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ENCYCLOPÆDIA PERTHENSIS.

* REPROVABLE. *adj.* [from *reprove.*] Culpable; blameable; worthy of reprehenſion.—It may be thy faith was not only little, but *reprovable. Taylor.*

* *To* REPROVE. *v. a.* [*reprouver*, Fr.] 1. To blame; to cenſure.—I will not *reprove* thee for thy ſacrifices. *Pſalm* l. 8.—This is the ſin of the miniſter, when men are called to *reprove* ſin, and do not. *Perkins.* 2. To charge to the face with a fault; to check; to chide; to reprehend.—They can better be content with one that can wink at their faults, than with him that will *reprove* them. *Whitgifte.*—There is no railing in a known diſcreet man, though he do nothing but *reprove. Shak.*—

What if thy ſon
Prove diſobedient, and *reprov'd* retort,
Wherefore didſt thou beget me? *Milton.*

—If a great perſonage undertakes an action paſſionately, he ſhall have enough to flatter him, but not enough to *reprove* him. *Taylor.*—He *reproves*, exhorts, and preaches. *Law.* 3. To refute; to diſprove.—

My lords,
Reprove my allegation if you can. *Shak.*

4. To blame for: with *of.*—To *reprove* one *of* lazineſs, they will ſay, doſt thou make idle a coat? that is a coat for idleneſs. *Carew.*

* REPROVER. *n. ſ.* [from *reprove.*] A reprehender; one that reproves.—Let the moſt potent ſinner tell us, whether he can command down the clamours of a guilty conſcience, and impoſe ſilence upon the bold *reprover? South.*—This ſhall have from every one, even the *reprovers* of vice, the title of living well. *Locke.*

* *To* REPRUNE. *v. a.* [*re* and *prune.*] To prune a ſecond time.—*Reprune* apricots and peaches. *Evelyn.*—

REPS, a town of Tranſylvania, 16 miles N. of Fogaras.

(1.) * REPTILE. *adj.* [*reptile*, Latin.] Creeping upon my feet. In the following lines *reptile* is confounded with *ſerpent.*

Cheriſh the ſully'd *reptile* race with moſs.
Gay.

(2.)* REPTILE. *n. ſ.* An animal that creeps upon many feet.—Terreſtrial animals may be divided into quadrupeds or *reptiles* which have many feet, and ſerpents which have no feet. *Locke.*—

From the inferior *reptile*,
To a woman form divine. *Prior.*

(3.) REPTILES, in zoology, a kind of animals denominated from their creeping or advancing on the belly. Or reptiles are a genus of animals and inſects, which, inſtead of feet reſt on one part of the body, while they advance forward with the reſt. Such are earthworms, ſnakes, caterpillars, &c. Indeed moſt of the claſs of reptiles have feet; only thoſe very ſmall, and the legs remarkably ſhort in proportion to the bulk of the body. Naturaliſts obſerve a great deal of artful contrivance for the motion of reptiles. Thus, particularly in the earth-worm, Dr Willis tells us, the whole body is only a chain of annular muſcles; or as Dr Derham ſays, it is only one continued ſpiral muſcle, the orbicular fibres whereof being contracted, render each ring narrower and longer than before; by which means it is enabled, like the worm of an augre, to bore its paſſage into the earth. Its reptile motion might alſo be explained by a wire wound on a cylinder, which when ſlipped off, and one end extended and held faſt, will bring the other near to it. So the earthworm having ſhot out or extended his body (which is with a wreathing), it takes hold by its ſmall feet, and ſo contracts the hinder part of its body. Dr Tyſon adds, that when the fore part of the body is ſtretched out, and applied to a plane at a diſtance, the hind part relaxing and ſhortening is eaſily drawn towards it as a centre. Its feet are diſpoſed of in a quadruple row the whole length of the worm, with which, as with ſo many hooks, it faſtens down ſometimes this and and ſometimes that part of the body to the plane, and at the ſame time ſtretches out or drags after it another. The creeping of ſerpents is effected after a ſomewhat different manner; there being a difference in their ſtructure, in that theſe laſt have a campages of bones articulated together. (See SERPENS.) The body here is not drawn together

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gether, but as it were complicated; part of it being applied on the rough ground, the reſt ejaculated and ſhot from it, which being ſet on the ground in its turn, brings the other after it. The ſpine of the back variouſly wreathed has the ſame effect in leaping, as the joints in the feet of other animals; they make their leaps by means of muſcles, and extend the plicæ or folds. See ZOOLOGY.

(1.) REPUBLIC, *n. ſ.* or commonwealth, a popular ſtate or government; or a nation where the people have the government in their own hands. See ARISTOCRACY, GOVERNMENT, DEMOCRACY, and MONARCHY.

(2.) REPUBLIC, AMERICAN. See AMERICA, § 14; 27—34.

(3.) REPUBLIC, ATHENIAN. See ATHENS and ATTICA.

(4.) REPUBLIC, BATAVIAN, the name given by the Dutch republicans, to the ci-devant States of HOLLAND; formerly called the UNITED PROVINCES, upon the revolution in 1795, when, upon the French invaſion, the Stadtholder fled, his office was aboliſhed, and a democratic government was eſtabliſhed, upon the *then* exiſting plan of the French republic, under a DIRECTORY and two COUNCILS (See theſe articles.) As that government has ſince been conſiderably altered, by the tyranny of the preſent French government, it is unneceſſary to enlarge upon it here. We ſhall therefore only mention the new geographical diviſion of the United Provinces into departments, which took place on that occaſion, and has not ſince been altered. Theſe departments are 8; named the *Ems, Yſſel, Rhine, Amſtel, Texel, Delft, Dommell and Scheld*, and *Meuſe*: of which the capitals are Leewarden, Zwoll, Arnheim, Amſterdam, Alcmaer, Delft, Herzogenboſch, and Middleburg. See REVOLUTION, and UNITED PROVINCES.

(5.) REPUBLIC, CISALPINE. } See CISALPINA,
(6.) REPUBLIC, CISPADANE. } CISPADANA, and ITALIAN REPUBLIC.

(7.) REPUBLIC, FRENCH. See FRANCE, § 57, 59; FRENCH, § 10; and REVOLUTION § VI.

(8.) REPUBLIC, HELVETIC. See HELVETIC REPUBLIC, REVOLUTION, and SWITZERLAND.

(9.) REPUBLIC, ITALIAN. See ITALIAN REPUBLIC.

(10.) REPUBLIC, LIGURIAN. See LIGURIAN.

(11.) REPUBLIC, NEAPOLITAN. See NEAPOLITAN.

(12.) REPUBLIC OF LETTERS, a phraſe uſed collectively of the whole body of the ſtudious and learned.

(13.) REPUBLIC, PIEDMONTESE. See PIEDMONTESE.

(14.) REPUBLIC, ROMAN. See ROME.

(15.) REPUBLIC, SPARTAN. See LACEDÆMON, and SPARTA.

(16.) REPUBLIC, THEBAN. See THEBES, N° 2.

(17.) REPUBLIC, VENETIAN. See VENICE.

REPUBLICAIN, PORT. See PORT, N° 10.

(1.) * REPUBLICAN. *adj.* [from *republick.*] Placing the government in the people.

(2.) * REPUBLICAN. *n. ſ.* [from *republick.*] One who thinks a commonwealth without monarchy the beſt government.—Such a chimerical happineſs is not peculiar to *republicans*. *Addiſon.*

* REPUBLICK. *n. ſ.* [*reſpublica*, Lat. *republique*, Fr.] 1. Commonwealth; ſtate in which the power is lodged in more than one.—They are indebted many millions more than their whole *republick* is worth. *Addiſon.* 2. Common intereſt; the publick.—

Thoſe that by their deeds will make it known
Whoſe dignity they do ſuſtain;
And life, ſtate, glory, all they gain,
Count the *republick*'s, not their own. *B. Jonſon.*

* REPUDIABLE. *adj.* from *repudiate.* Fit to be rejected.

* *To* REPUDIATE. *v. a.* [*repudio*, Lat. *repudier*, Fr.] To divorce; to reject; to put away.—Let not thoſe that have *repudiated* the more inviting ſins, ſhow themſelves philtred and bewitched by this. *Government of Tongue.*—Here is a notorious inſtance of the folly of the atheiſts, that while they *repudiate* all title to the kingdom of heaven, merely for the preſent pleaſure of body, they unwittingly deprive themſelves here of that very pleaſure and tranquillity they ſeek for. *Bentley.*

(1.) * REPUDIATION. *n. ſ.* [*repudiation*, Fr. from *repudiate.*] Divorce; rejection.—It was allowed by the Athenians, only in caſe of *repudiation* of a wife. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) REPUDIATION, in the civil law. See DIVORCE.

* REPUGNANCE. } *n. ſ.* [*repugnance*, Fr. from
* REPUGNANCY. } *repugnant.*] 1. Inconſiſtency; contrariety.—Where difference is without *repugnancy*, that which hath been can be no prejudice to that which is. *Hooker.*—It is no affront to omnipotence, if, by reaſon of the formal incapacity and *repugnancy* of the thing, we aver that the world could not have been made from all eternity. *Bentley.* 2. Reluctance; reſiſtance.—

Why do fond men expoſe themſelves to battle,
And let the foes quietly cut their throats,
Without *repugnancy*? *Shak. Timon.*

3. Struggle of oppoſite paſſions.—Thus did the paſſions act without any of their preſent jars, combats, or *repugnance*. *South.* 4. Averſion; unwillingneſs.—That which cauſes us to loſe moſt of our time, is the *repugnance* which we naturally have to labour. *Dryden.*

* REPUGNANT. *adj.* [*repugnant*, Fr. *repugnans*, Lat.] 1. Diſobedient; not obſequious.—

His antique ſword,
Rebellious to his arm, lies where it falls
Repugnant to command. *Shak.*

2. Contrary; oppoſite; inconſiſtent: with *to*, ſometimes *with*.—There is no breach of a divine law, but is more or leſs *repugnant unto* the will of the law-giver. *Perkins.*—I reject the other conjectures becauſe they have not due warrant from obſervation, but are clearly *repugnant thereunto*. *Woodward.*—Your way is to wreſt and ſtrain ſome principles maintained both by them and me, to a ſenſe *repugnant with* their other known doctrines. *Whitgift.*

* REPUGNANTLY. *adv.* [from *repugnant.*] Contradictorily.—They ſpeak not *repugnantly* thereto. *Brown.*

* *To* REPULLULATE. *v. n.* [*re* and *pullulo*, Latin. *repulluler*, Fr.] To bud again.—Though tares *repullulate*, there is wheat ſtill left in the field. *Howel's Voca. Forenſ.*

(1.) * REPULSE. *n. ſ.* [*repulſe*, Fr. *repulſa*, Lat.] The

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The condition of being driven off or put aside from any attempt.—My *repulse* at Hull seemed an act of so rude disloyalty, that my enemies had scarce confidence enough to abet it. *King Charles.*

So bent, the more shall shame him his *repulse*. *Milton.*

By fate repell'd and with *repulses* tir'd. *Denh.*

(2—4.) REPULSE BAY, a name given to 3 bays: 1. on the coast of Kerguelen's Land. 2. in the N. Pacific Ocean, on the W. coast of America. Lon. 235. 1. W. Lat. 66. 40. N. 3. in the S. Pacific Ocean, on the E. coast of New Holland. Lon. 148. 33. W. Lat. 20. 36. N.

* *To* REPULSE. *v. a.* [*repulsus*, Lat.] To beat back; to drive off.—The christian defendants still *repulsed* them. *Knolles.*—This fleet, attempting St Minoes, were *repulsed*. *Heyward.*—

Man complete to have discover'd and *repuls'd* Whatever wiles of foe. *Milton.*

(1.) * REPULSION. *n. s.* [*repulsus*, Lat.] The act or power of driving off from itself.—By their elasticity, the particles of air have a power of *repelling* or flying off from one another. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) REPULSION, in physics, is that property of bodies whereby they recede from each other, and, on certain occasions, mutually avoid coming into contact.

(3.) REPULSION, as well as attraction, has of late been considered as one of the primary qualities of all matter, and has been much used in explaining the phenomena of nature: thus the particles of air, fire, steam, electric fluid, &c. are all said to have a repulsive power with respect to one another.—That this is the case with the air, and vapour of all kinds, is certain; because when they are compressed into a small space, they expand with great force: but as to fire, light, and electricity, our experiments fail; nay, the supposition of a repulsive power among the particles of the electric fluid is inconsistent with the phenomena, as has been proved. See ELECTRICITY, *Index*. Even in those fluids, air and steam, where a repulsive power most manifestly exists, it is demonstrable that the repulsion cannot be a *primary* quality, since it can be increased to a great degree by heat, and diminished by cold: but it is impossible that a *primary* quality of matter can be increased or diminished by any external circumstances whatever; for whatever property depends upon external circumstances, is not a primary but a secondary one. —The repulsion of electrified bodies is explained under the article ELECTRICITY: that of others is less subject to investigation; and the most that can be said concerning it is, that in many cases it seems to be the consequence of a modification of fire, and in others of electricity.

* REPULSIVE. *adj.* [from *repulse*.] Driving off; having the power to beat back or drive off.—Do not this endeavour imply, that they have a repulsive force by which they fly from one another? *Newton's Opticks.*

* *To* REPURCHASE. *v. a.* [*re* and *purchase*.] To buy again.—

Once more we sit on England's royal throne, *Repurchas'd* with the blood of enemies. *Shak.*

—If the son alien those lands, and *repurchase* them again in fee, the rules of descents are to be observed. *Hale.*

* REPUTABLE. *adv.* [from *repute*.] Honourable; not infamous.—If ever any vice shall become *reputable*, and be gloried in as a mark of greatness, what can we then expect from the man of honour, but to signalize himself? *Rogers.*—It is as *reputable* to elude an enemy as defeat one. *Broome.*

* REPUTABLENESS. *n. s.* [from *reputable*.] The quality of a thing of good repute.

* REPUTABLY. *adv.* [from *reputable*.] Without discredit.—Many such worthy magistrates, who have thus *reputably* filled the chief seats of power in this great city. *Atterbury.*

* REPUTATION. *n. s.* [*reputation*, Fr. from *repute*.] 1. Character of good or bad.—Versoy, upon the lake of Geneva, has the *reputation* of being extremely poor and beggarly. *Addison.* 2. Credit; honour.—*Reputation* is an idle and most false imposition; oft got without merit, and lost without deserving: you have lost no *reputation* at all, unless you repute yourself such a loser. *Shak.*

A third interprets motions, looks, and eyes; At ev'ry word a *reputation* dies. *Pope's Rape.*

* REPUTE. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. Character; reputation. 2. Established opinion.—

Monarch in heav'n, till then, as one secure, Sat on his throne, upheld by old *repute*. *Milt.*

* *To* REPUTE. *v. a.* [*reputo*, Lat. *reputer*, Fr.] To hold; to account; to think.—

The king was *reputed* a prince most prudent, *Shakesp.*

I do *repute* her grace The rightful heir to England's royal seat. *Shak.*

I do know of those, That therefore only are *reputed* wise, For saying nothing. *Shak. Merch. of Venice.*

Men, such as chuse Law practice for mere gain, boldly *repute* Worse than embrothel'd strumpets. *Donne.*

—If the grand visier be so great, as he is *reputed*, in politicks, he will never consent to an invasion of Hungary. *Temple.*

* REPUTELESS. *adj.* [from *repute*.] Disreputable; disgraceful. A word not inelegant, but out of use.—

Opinion that did help me to the crown, Had left me in *reputeless* banishment. *Shak.*

REQUENA, a town of Spain, in New Castile, with a strong castle, seated on the Oliana, 40 miles W. of Valencia, 34 SE. of Cuenza, and 130 E. by S. of Madrid. Lon. 0. 40. W. Lat. 39. 24. N.

(1.) * REQUEST. *n. s.* [*requête*, Fr.] 1. Petition; entreaty.—

I will both hear and grant you your *requests*. *Shak.*

—Haman stood up to make *request* for his life to Esther. *Esth.*—

All thy *request* for man, accepted Son! Obtain; all thy *request* was my decree. *Milton.*

This, the last *request* that I shall send. *Denh.* 2. Demand; repute; credit; state of being desired.—Coriolanus being now in no *request* of his country. *Shak.*—Whilst this vanity of thinking, that men are obliged to write either systems or nothing, is in *request*, many excellent notions are suppressed. *Boyle.*—Knowledge and fame were in as great *request* as wealth among us now. *Temple.*

(2.) REQUEST, in law, is a petition preferred

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to a prince, or to a court of juſtice; begging relief in ſome conſcionable caſes where the common law grants no immediate redreſs.

(3.) REQUESTS COURT OF, *(curia requiſitionum)* was a court of equity, of the ſame nature with the court of chancery, but inferior to it; principally inſtituted for the relief of ſuch petitioners as in conſcionable caſes addreſſed themſelves by ſupplication to his majeſty. Of this court the lord privy-ſeal was chief judge, aſſiſted by the maſters of requeſts. It began about the 9 Hen. VII. according to Sir Julius Cæſar's tractate upon this ſubject; though Mr Gwyn, in his preface to his Readings, ſaith it began from a commiſſion firſt granted by Henry VIII.—This court, having aſſumed great power to itſelf, ſo that it became burthenſome, *Mich.* anno 40 and 41 *Eliz.* in the court of common-pleas it was adjudged upon ſolemn argument, that the court of requeſts was no court of judicature, &c. and by ſtat. 16 and 17 Car I. c. 10, it was taken away. There are ſtill however courts of requeſts, or *courts of conſcience*, conſtituted in London and other trading and populous diſtricts for the recovery of ſmall debts. The firſt of theſe was eſtabliſhed in London at ſo early a period as the reign of Henry VIII. by an act of their common council; which however was certainly inſufficient for that purpoſe, and illegal, till confirmed by ſtat. 3 Jac. I. c. 15. which has ſince been explained and amended by ſtat. 14 Geo. II. c. 10. The conſtitution is this; two aldermen and four commoners ſit twice a week to hear all cauſes of debt not exceeding the value of 40 ſh. which they examine in a ſummary way, by the oath of the parties or other witneſſes, and make ſuch order therein as is conſonant to equity and good conſcience. The time and expence of obtaining this ſummary redreſs are very inconſiderable, which make it a great benefit to trade; and thereupon divers trading towns and other diſtricts have obtained acts of parliament for eſtabliſhing in them courts of conſcience upon nearly the ſame plan as that of London. By 25 Geo. III. c. 45. (which is confined to proſecutions in courts of conſcience in London, Middleſex, and the borough of Southwark), and by 26 Geo. III. c. 38. (which extends the proviſions of the former act to all other courts inſtituted for the recovery of ſmall debts), it is enacted, that after the firſt day of Sept. 1786, no perſon whoſoever being a debtor or defendant, and who has been or ſhall be committed to any gaol or priſon by order of any court or commiſſioners authoriſed by any act or acts of parliament for conſtituting or regulating any court or courts for the recovery of ſmall debts, where the debt does not exceed 20 Sh. ſhall be kept or continued in cuſtody, on any pretence whatſoever, more than 20 days from the commencement of the laſt mentioned act; or from the time of his, her, or their commitment to priſon: and where the original debt does not amount to or exceed the ſum of forty ſhillings, more than 40 days from the commencement of the ſaid act, or from the time of his, her, or their commitment as aforeſaid; and all gaolers are thereby required to diſcharge ſuch perſons accordingly. And by ſect. 2. if it ſhall be proved to the ſatisfaction of the court, that any ſuch debtor has money or goods which he has wilfully and fraudulently concealed; the court ſhall have power to enlarge the aforeſaid times of impriſonment for debts under 20 Sh. to any time not exceeding 30 days, and for debts under forty ſhillings, to any time not exceeding 60 days; which ſaid ground of farther detention ſhall be ſpecified in the ſaid commitment. And that (by ſect. 3.) at the expiration of the ſaid reſpective times of impriſonment, every ſuch perſon ſhall immediately be diſcharged, without paying any ſum of money, or other reward or gratuity whatſoever, to the gaoler of ſuch gaol on any pretence whatſoever; and every gaoler demanding or receiving any fee for the diſcharge of any ſuch perſon, or keeping any ſuch perſon priſoner after the ſaid reſpective times limited by the ſaid act, ſhall forfeit £5. to be recovered in a ſummary way before two juſtices of the peace, one moiety thereof to be paid to the overſeers of the poor of the pariſh where the offence ſhall be committed, and the other to the informer.

* *To* REQUEST. *v. a.* [*requeſter*, Fr.] To aſk; to ſolicit; to entreat.—

To-night we hold a ſolemn ſupper, Sir,
And I'll *requeſt* your preſence. *Shak.*

—It was to be *requeſted* of Almighty God by prayer, that thoſe kings would fulfil all that hope of peace. *Knolles.*—

The virgin quire for her *requeſt*,
The god that ſits at marriage feaſt. *Milton.*

—Great perſons cannot be properly ſaid to *requeſt*, becauſe they muſt not be denied. *South.*

* REQUESTER. *n. ſ.* [from *requeſt.*] Petitioner; ſoliciter.

* *To* REQUICKEN. *v. a.* [*re* and *quicken.*] To reanimate.—

Straight his doubled ſpirit
Requicken'd what in fleſh was fatigate. *Shak.*

* REQUIEM. *n. ſ.* [Latin.] 1. A hymn in which they implore for the dead *requiem* or reſt.—

We ſhould profane the ſervice of the dead,
To ſing a *requiem* and ſuch peace to her,
As to peace-parted ſouls. *Shak.*

2. Reſt; quiet; peace. Not in uſe.—

The midwife kneeled at my mother's throes,
With pain produc'd, and nurs'd for future woes;
Elſe had I an eternal *requiem* kept. *Sandys.*

REQUINY, a town of France, in the department of the Morbihan; 6 miles NW. of Joſſelin.

* REQUIRABLE. *adj.* [from *require.*] Fit to be required.—It contains the certain periods of times, and all circumſtances *requirable* in a hiſtory. *Hale.*

* *To* REQUIRE. *v. a.* [*requiro*, Lat. *requerir*, Fr.] 1. To demand; to aſk a thing as of right.—

Ye me *require*
A thing without the compaſs of my wit. *Spenſ.*

We do *require* them of you, ſo to uſe them,
As we ſhall find their merits. *Shak.*

—This the law of God *requireth* at our hands. *Spelman.*—

Subjection, but *requir'd* with gentle ſway.
Milton.

Oft our alliance other lands deſir'd,
And what we ſeek of you, of us *requir'd*. *Dryd.*

2. To make neceſſary; to need.—The king's buſineſs *required* haſte. 1 *Sam.* xxi. 8.—

High

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High from the ground the branches would *require*
Thy utmoſt reach. *Milton.*
God gives us what he knows our wants *requires*. *Dryd. n.*
—God, when he gave the world in common to all mankind, commanded men alſo to labour; and the penury of his condition *required* it. *Locke.*

(1.) * REQUISITE. *adj.* [*requiſitus*, Lat.] Neceſſary; needful; required by the nature of things.—When God new-modelled the world by the introduction of a new religion, and that in the room of one ſet up by himſelf, it was *requiſite*, that he ſhould recommend it to the reaſons of men with the ſame authority and evidence that enforced the former. *South.*—The ſpirits cannot ſo well cloſe and go together in the head, which is ever *requiſite* to ſleep. *Bacon.*—Prepare your ſoul with all thoſe neceſſary graces, that are more immediately *requiſite* to this performance. *Wake.*

(2.) * REQUISITE. *n. ſ.* Any thing neceſſary.—*Ea non parta labore, ſed relicta*, was thought by a poet to be one of the *requiſites* to a happy life. *Dryden.*—For want of theſe *requiſites*, moſt of our ingenious young men take up ſome cried up Engliſh poet, adore him, and imitate him, without knowing wherein he is defective. *Dryden.*—God in his part has declared the *requiſites* on ours. *Wake.*

* REQUISITELY. *adv.* [from *requiſite*.] Neceſſarily; in a requiſite manner.—We diſcern how *requiſitely* the ſeveral parts of ſcripture are fitted to ſeveral times, perſons, and occurrences. *Boyle.*

* REQUISITENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *requiſite*.] Neceſſity; the ſtate of being requiſite.—Diſcerning how exquiſitely the ſeveral parts of ſcripture are fitted to the ſeveral times, perſons and occurrences intended, we ſhall diſcover not only the ſenſe of the obſcure paſſages, but the *requiſiteneſs* of their having been written ſo obſcurely. *Boyle.*

REQUISTA, a town of France, in the dep. of Aveyron; 15 miles SE. of Sauveterre, and 18 S. of Rhodez.

* REQUITAL. *n. ſ.* [from *requite*.] 1. Return for any good or bad office; retaliation.—Should we take the quarrel of ſermons in hand, and revenge their cauſe by *requital*, thruſting prayer in a manner out of doors under colour of long preaching? *Hooker.*—

Be bold, you do ſo grow in my *requital*,
As nothing can unroot you. *Shak.*
Our ſoul
Cannot but yield you forth to public thanks,
Forerunning your *requital*. *Shak.*

2. Return; reciprocal action.—

No merit their averſion can remove,
Nor ill *requital* can efface their love. *Waller.*

3. Reward; recompence.—

He aſk'd me for a ſong,
And in *requital* op'd his leathern ſcrip,
And ſhew'd me ſimples of a thouſand names. *Milton.*
I have ta'en a cordial,
Sent by the king or Haly, in *requital*
Of all my miſeries, to make me happy. *Denh.*

—There is ſome return, though there can be no *requital*. *South.*

* To REQUITE. *v. a.* [*requiter*, Fr.] 1. To repay; to retaliate good or ill; to recompenſe.—If he love me to madneſs, I ſhall never *requite* him. *Shak.*—They ſaid, Joſeph will *requite* us all the evil we did. *Gen.* l.—One ſhall *requite* kindneſs to his friends. *Eccluſ.* xxx. 6.—

He can *requite* thee, for he knows the charms
That call fame on ſuch gentle acts as theſe. *Milt.*
'Tis all we beg thee to conceal from ſight
Thoſe acts of goodneſs which themſelves *requite*. *Pope.*
Unhappy Wallace,
Great patriot heroe! ill *requited* chief! *Thomſ.*

2. To do or give in reciprocation.—He hath *requited* me evil for good. 1 *Sam.* xxv. 21.—Open not thine heart to every man, leſt he *requite* thee with a ſhrewd turn. *Eccluſ.* vii. 19.

(1.) * REREMOUSE. *n. ſ.* [*brereremus*, Sax.] A bat. See *Rearmouſe*.

(2.) REREMOUSE. See VESPERTILIO.

RERHATTAN, a town of Sweden, in Dalecarlia; 30 miles SW. of Geffle.

RERONE, a river of Maritime Auſtria, which riſes in the Vicentine, and runs into the Brenta.

RERRE, a river of France, in the dep. of Loir and Cher; which runs into the Saudre, 3 miles above Romorentin.

RERRICK, a pariſh of Scotland, in Kirkcudbrightſhire; 10 miles long, and about 6 broad; ſeated on the coaſt of the Solway Frith, at the mouth of the Urr; and bounded on the N. by the mountain of BENCAIRN, and ſome inferior hills. The ſurface of the level ground conſiſts of moſs, meadow, plain fields, and ſwelling eminences. The ſoil, except the moſſes, which cover about 400 acres, and ſome rugged ground on the N. is wholly arable. On the NE. corner, there is a fine bay for ſmall veſſels, and on the W. a capacious baſon; where large ſhips may lie in ſafety in all weather. It affords beautiful and extenſive proſpects of the Engliſh coaſt and the Cumberland mountains. It has 3 free ports, viz. BALCARRY, on the E. *Port Mary* on the S. and *Mullock Bay* on the SW. from which are exported annually about 10,000 buſhels of lime, 15,280 ſtones of meal, 116 tons of potatoes, 800 buſhels of barley, 231 of bear, and 198 of wheat. About 170,000 foreſt trees have been lately planted. The population, in 1793, was 2050, and had juſt decreaſed one, ſince 1755. The number of ſheep was 2,383; of horſes 190, and of black cattle 2,532. There are two manufacturing villages, at the Abbey of Dundrennan, which was a Ciſtertian monaſtery, and Heſton Bay. Iron-ſtone and freeſtone abound; and there are alſo beautiful rock cryſtals found, and ſome of an amethyſt colour.

* To RESAIL. *v. a.* [*re* and *ſail*.] To ſail back.

From Pyle *reſailing*, and the Spartan court,
Horrid to ſpeak! in ambuſh is decreed. *Pope.*

* RESALE. *n. ſ.* [*re* and *ſale*.] Sale at ſecond hand.—Monopolies and coemption of wares for *reſale*, where they are not reſtrained, are great means to enrich. *Bacon.*

* To RESALUTE. *v. a.* [*reſaluto*, Lat. *reſaluer*, Fr.] To ſalute or greet anew.—

We drew her up to land,
And trod ourſelves the *reſaluted* ſand. *Chapman.*
To *reſalute* the world with ſacred light,
Leucotheo wak'd. *Milton.*

RESAU,

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RESAU, a town of Franconia, in Culmbach.

RESAVA, a river of Servia, which runs into the Morava: 14 miles S. of Paſſarowitz.

* *To* RESCIND. *v. a.* [*reſcindo*, Lat. *reſcinder*, Fr.] To cut off; to abrogate a law.—It is not poſſible to *reſcind* or diſclaim the ſtanding obliged by it. *Hammond.*—

Theſe to *reſcind*, and peerage to reſtore. *Dryden.*

(1.) * RESCISSION. *n. ſ.* [*reſciſſion*, Fr. *reſciſſus*, Lat.] The act of cutting off; abrogation.—If any infer *reſciſſion* of their eſtate to have been for idolatry, that the government of all idolatrous nations ſhould be alſo diſſolved, it followeth not. *Bacon.*

(2.) RESCISSION, in the civil law, is an action intended for the annulling or ſetting aſide any contract, deed, &c.

* RESCISSORY. *adj.* [*reſciſſoire*, Fr. *reſciſſus*, Lat.] Having the power to cut off.

(1.) RESCOBIE, a pariſh of Scotland, in Angus-ſhire, 12 miles W. of Lunan Bay, comprehending about 17 ſquare miles, moſtly under cultivation; with ſome thriving plantations of fir, and very little waſte ground. It has ſeveral ſmall lakes, particularly BALGAVIES, RESTENET, and Reſcobie, abounding in marl, which has been ſucceſsfully employed in improving the ſoil. The climate is ſalubrious, as the pariſh is ſituated between two hills; viz. Dunnichen on the S. and Turin on the N. which occaſion a conſtant circulation of air. A woman died in it, in 1792, aged 104. The population, in 1792, was 934; the increaſe 136, ſince 1755. The principal houſe is Turin, the ſeat of Mr Watſon. On the top of Turin hill are relics of a ſtrong caſtle, called *Kemp Caſtle*.

(2.) RESCOBIE, a lake in the above pariſh, one mile long, formed by the Lunan.

* *To* RESCRIBE. *v. a.* [*reſcribo*, Lat. *reſcrire*, Fr.] 1. To write back.—Whenever a prince on his being conſulted *reſcribes* or writes back Toleramus, he diſpenſes with that act otherwiſe unlawful. *Ayliffe.* 2. To write over again.—Calling for more paper to *reſcribe* them, he ſhewed him the difference betwixt the ink-box and the ſand-box. *Howel.*

(1.) * RESCRIPT. *n. ſ.* [*reſcrit*, Fr. *reſcriptum*, Lat.] Edict of an emperour.—One finding a great maſs of money digged under ground, and being ſomewhat doubtful, ſignified it to the emperor, who made a *reſcript* thus: Uſe it. *Bacon.*—The popes did, after the manner of the Roman emperors, write back their determinations, which were ſtiled *reſcripts* or decretal epiſtles, having the force of laws. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) *A* RESCRIPT is an anſwer delivered by an emperor, or a pope, when conſulted by particular perſons on ſome difficult queſtion or point of law, to ſerve as a deciſion thereof.

* RESCUE. *n. ſ.* [*reſcouſſe*, *reſcoſſe*, old Fr. *reſcuſſus*, low Lat.] Deliverance from violence, danger, or confinement.—

How comes it, you
Have holp to make this *reſcue?* *Shak.*

* *To* RESCUE. *v. a.* [*reſcorre*, old Fr.] To ſet free from any violence, confinement, or danger.—Sir Scudamore, after long ſorrow, in the end met with Britomartis, who ſuccoured him and *reſkewed* his love. *Spenſer.*—

My uncles both are ſlain in *reſcuing* me. *Shak.*

Reſcue thy miſtreſs, if thou be a man. *Shak.*—Dr Bancroft underſtood the church excellently, and had almoſt *reſcued* it out of the hands of the Calvinian party. *Clarendon.*—He that is ſo ſure of his particular election, as to reſolve he can never fall, if he commit thoſe acts, againſt which ſcripture is plain, muſt neceſſarily reſolve, that nothing but the removing his fundamental error can *reſcue* him from the ſuperſtructive. *Hammond.*—

Who was that juſt man, whom had not heav'n
Reſcu'd, had in his righteouſneſs been loſt? *Milt.*

Riches cannot *reſcue* from the grave. *Dryden.*—We have never yet heard of a tumult raiſed to *reſcue* a miniſter whom his maſter deſired to bring to a fair account. *Davenant.*

* RESCUER. *n. ſ.* [from *reſcue.*] One that reſcues.

RESE, or REZE, a river of France, in the dep. of Loir and Cher, which runs into the Saudre at Romorentin.

* RESEARCH. *n. ſ.* [*recherche*, Fr.] Enquiry; ſearch.—By a ſkilful application of thoſe notices, may be gained in ſuch *reſearches* the accelerating and bettering of fruits, emptying mines, and draining fens. *Glanville.*—I ſubmit thoſe miſtakes to the better conſideration of others, who ſhall have made *reſearch* into this buſineſs. *Holder.*—A felicity adapted to every rank, ſuch as the *reſearches* of human wiſdom ſought for, but could not diſcover. *Rogers.*

* *To* RESEARCH. *v. a.* [*rechercher*, Fr.] To examine; to enquire.—It is not eaſy to *reſearch* with due diſtinction, in the actions of eminent perſonages, both how much they may have been blemiſhed by the envy of others, and what was corrupted by their own felicity. *Wotton.*

* *To* RESEAT. *v. a.* [*re* and *ſeat.*] To ſeat again.—

When he's produc'd, will you *reſeat* him
Upon his father's throne? *Dryden.*

RESEDA, DYER'S WEED, *Yellow-weed*, WELD, or *Wild woad*; a genus of the order of trigynia, belonging to the dodecandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 54th order, *Miſcellaneæ*. The calyx is monophyllous and partite, the petals lanciniated; the capſule unilocular, and opening at the mouth. There are 11 ſpecies; of which the moſt remarkable is the

RESEDA LUTEOLA, or common dyer's weed, growing naturally in waſte places in many parts of Britain. The young leaves are often undulated; the ſtalk is a yard high, or more, terminated with a long naked ſpike of yelloviſh-green flowers: the plant is cultivated and much uſed for dying ſilk and wool of a yellow colour. Its cheif property is, that it will grow with very little trouble, without dung, and on the very worſt ſoils. It is therefore commonly ſown with, o immediately after, barley or oats, without an additional care, except drawing a buſh over it t harrow it in. The reaping of corn does it littl or no hurt, as it grows but little the firſt year and the next ſummer it is pulled and dried lik flax. Much care and nicety, however, is requiſite ſo as not to injure either the ſeed or ſtalk; or which

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which ſometimes happens, damaging both, by letting it ſtand too long, or pulling it too green. To avoid theſe inconveniences, a better method of culture has been deviſed. This new method is to plough and harrow the ground very fine, without dung, as equally as poſſible, and then ſowing a gallon of ſeed, which is very ſmall, upon an acre, ſome time in Auguſt. In about two months it will be high enough to hoe, which muſt be carefully done, and the plants left about ſix inches aſunder. In March it is to be hoed again, and this labour is to be repeated a third time in May. About the cloſe of June, when the flower is in full vigour, and the ſtalk is become of a greeniſh-yellow, it ſhould be pulled; a ſufficient quantity of ſtems being left growing for ſeed till September. By theſe means the flower and ſtalk, both of them being carefully dried, will ſell at a good price to the dyers, who employ it conſtantly, and in large quantities; add to this, that the ſeed being ripe and in perfect order, will yield a very conſiderable profit. In a tolerable year, when the ſeaſons have not been unfavourable, the advantages derived from this vegetable will anſwer very well; but if the ſummer ſhould be remarkably fine, and proper care is taken in getting it in, there will be a very large produce upon an acre. The crop being, as has been ſhown, ſo early removed, the ground may be conveniently prepared for growing wheat the next year. Upon the whole, weld is in its nature a very valuable commodity in many reſpects, as it ſerves equally for woollen, linen, or ſilk; dyeing not only a rich and laſting yellow, but alſo, properly managed, all the different ſhades of yellow with brightneſs and beauty; and if theſe be previouſly dipped blue, they are by the weld changed into a very pleaſing green, which our artiſts can alſo diverſify into a great variety of ſhades.

* RESEIZER. *n. ſ.* One that ſeizes again.

* RESEIZURE. *n. ſ.* [*re* and *ſeizure.*] Repeated ſeizure; ſeizure a ſecond time.—It is now the more eaſy to judge of the forefeiture of *reſeizure*: deface the image, and you diveſt the right. *Bacon.*

(1.) * RESEMBLANCE. *n. ſ.* [*reſemblance,* Fr.] 1. Likeneſs; ſimilitude; repreſentation.—One main end of poetry and painting is to pleaſe; they bear a great *reſemblance* to each other. *Dryden.*—The quality produced hath commonly no *reſemblance* with the thing producing it; wherefore we look on it as a bare effect of power. *Locke.*—

So chymiſts boaſt they have a pow'r,
From the dead aſhes of a flow'r,
Some faint *reſemblance* to produce,
But not the virtue. *Swift.*

—I cannot help remarking the *reſemblance* betwixt him and our author. *Pope.* 2. Something reſembling.—Theſe ſenſible things, which religion hath allowed, are *reſemblances* formed according to things ſpiritual. *Hooker.*—

Faireſt *reſemblance* of thy maker fair,
Thee all things living gaze on. *Milton.*

—They are but weak *reſemblances* of our intentions. *Addiſon.*

(2.) RESEMBLANCE, *and* DISSIMILITUDE, the relations of likeneſs and difference among objects. See COMPARISON, FIGURE, METAPHOR, ORATORY, POETRY, &c.

* *To* RESEMBLE. *v. a.* [*reſembler,* Fr.] 1. To compare: to repreſent as like ſomething elſe.—Moſt ſafely may we *reſemble* ourſelves to God, in reſpect of that pure faculty, which is never ſeparate from the love of God. *Raleigh.*—The torrid parts of Africk are *reſembled* to a libbard's ſkin, *Brerewood.* 2. To be like; to have likeneſs to.—If we ſee a man of virtues, mixed with infirmities, fall into misfortune, we are afraid that the like misfortunes may happen to ourſelves, who *reſemble* the character. *Addiſon.*

RESEN, a town of Aſſyria on the Tigris, mentioned by Moſes, built by Nimrod; thought to be the LARISSA of Xenophon; which ſee. But as *Lariſſa* is a name in imitation of a Greek city; and as there were no Greek cities, conſequently no *Lariſſa* in Aſſyria, before Alexander the Great; it is probable that, the Greeks aſking of what city thoſe were the ruins they ſaw, the Aſſyrians might anſwer, *Lareſen, Of Reſen;* which word Xenophon expreſſed by *Lariſſa,* a more familiar ſound to a Greek ear. *Wells.*

* *To* RESEND. *v. a.* [*re* and *ſend.*] To ſend back; to ſend again. Not in uſe.—

I ſend to her, by this ſame coxcomb,
Tokens and letters, which ſhe did *reſend. Shak.*

RESENIUS, Peter John, a learned Daniſh counſellor and profeſſor, born at Copenhagen, in 1625. He ſtudied 4 years at Leyden, was made Counſellor of the German nation at Padua, and ſyndic of the univerſity. On his return to Denmark, he was made Preſident of Copenhagen, counſellor of juſtice, and counſellor of State, and ennobled. He wrote ſeveral works, the chief of which is his *Edda Iſlandorum.* He died in 1688.

* *To* RESENT. *v. a.* [*reſſentir,* Fr.] 1. To take well or ill.—My philoſophical theory, he then ſo well *reſented,* that afterwards, upon a mature digeſtion of my whole deſign, he commanded me to let your lordſhips underſtand, how great inclination he hath to further ſo hopeful a work. *Bacon.*—To be abſent from any part of publick worſhip he thus deeply *reſented. Fell.* 2. To take ill; to conſider as an injury or affront. This is now the moſt uſual ſenſe.—

Thou with ſcorn
And anger would'ſt *reſent* the offer'd wrong.
Milton.

—Such proceedings have been always *reſented. Davenant.*

* RESENTER. *n. ſ.* [from *reſent.*] One who feels injuries deeply.—The earl was the worſt philoſopher, being a great *reſenter* of the leaſt diſgrace. *Wotton.*

* RESENTFUL. *adj.* [*reſent* and *full.*] Malignant; eaſily provoked to anger, and long retaining it.

* RESENTINGLY. *adv.* [from *reſenting.*] 1. With deep ſenſe; with ſtrong perception.—Hylobares judiciouſly and *reſentingly* recapitulates your main reaſonings. *More.* 2. With continued anger.

* RESENTMENT. *n. ſ.* [*reſſentiment,* Fr.] 1. Strong perception of good or ill.—He retains vivid *reſentments* of the more ſolid morality. *More.*—Some faces we admire and doat on; others, in our impartial apprehenſions, no leſs deſerving, we can behold without *reſentment. Glanville.*—What

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he hath of ſenſible evidence, the very grand work of his demonſtration is but the knowledge of his own *reſentment*. *Glanville*. 2. Deep ſenſe of injury; anger long continued; ſometimes ſimply anger.—

Can heav'nly minds ſuch high *reſentment* ſhow,
Or exerciſe their ſpite in human woe? *Dryden*.

—I cannot, without ſome envy, and a juſt *reſentment* againſt the oppoſite conduct of others, reflect upon that generoſity, wherewith the heads of a ſtruggling faction treat thoſe who will undertake to hold a pen in their defence. *Swift*.—Where they declare their *reſentment*, and uneaſineſs at any thing, there they paſs the judgment upon themſelves. *Law*.

(1.) * RESERVATION. *n. ſ.* [*reſervation*, Fr.] 1. Reſerve; concealment of ſomething in the mind.—Nor had I any *reſervations* in my own ſoul, when I paſſed that bill, nor repentings after. *King Charles*.—We ſwear with Jeſuitical equivocations and mental *reſervations*. *Sanderſon*. 2. Something kept back; ſomething not given up.—

Ourſelf by monthly courſe,
With *reſervation* of an hundred knights,
By you to be ſuſtain'd, ſhall our abode
Make with you by due turns. *Shak*.

—This is academical *reſervation* in matters of eaſy truth. *Brown*.—Theſe opinions Steele and his faction are endeavouring to propagate among the people concerning the preſent miniſtry; with what *reſervation* to the honour of the queen, I cannot determine. *Swift*. 3. Cuſtody; ſtate of being treaſured up.—

He will'd me,
In heedful'ſt *reſervation*, to beſtow them. *Shak*.

(2.) RESERVATION, in law, an action or clauſe whereby ſomething is reſerved, or ſecured to one's ſelf.

(3.) RESERVATION, MENTAL, a propoſition which, ſtrictly taken, and according to the natural import of the terms, is falſe; but, if qualified by ſomething concealed in the mind, becomes true. Mental reſervations are the great refuge of religious hypocrites, who uſe them to accommodate their conſciences with their intereſts: the Jeſuits were zealous advocates for mental reſervations; yet are they real lies, as including an intention to deceive.

* RESERVATORY. *n. ſ.* [*reſervoir*, Fr.] Place in which any thing is reſerved or kept.—I got ſuch notice of that ſubterranean *reſervatory* as to make a computation of the water now concealed therein. *Woodw*.

(1.) * RESERVE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Store kept untouched, or undiſcovered.—Though I be beaten, it is not neceſſary I ſhould yield, not knowing what forces there are in *reſerve* behind. *Locke*. 2. Something kept for exigence.—The virgins, beſides the oil in their lamps, carried likewiſe a *reſerve* in ſome other veſſel. *Tillotſon*.—Things are managed by advocates, who oftentimes ranſack all *reſerves* of law to ſupport an unrighteous cauſe. *Kettlewell*. 3. Something concealed in the mind.—However any one may concur in the general ſcheme, it is ſtill with certain *reſerves*. *Addiſon*. 4. Exception; prohibition.—

What *reſerve* forbids to taſte? *Milton*.

5. Exception in favour.—Each has ſome darling luſt, which pleads for a *reſerve*. *Rogers*. 6. Modeſty; caution in perſonal behaviour.—

My ſoul ſurpriz'd, and from herſelf diſjoin'd,
Left all *reſerve*, and all the ſex behind. *Prior*.

(2.) RESERVE, in law. See RESERVATION, § 2.

(3.) RESERVE, or CORPS DE RESERVE, in military affairs, the third or laſt line of an army, drawn up for battle; ſo called becauſe they are reſerved to ſuſtain the reſt as occaſion requires, and not to engage but in caſe of neceſſity.

* *To* RESERVE. *v. a.* [*reſerver*, Fr. *reſervo*, Lat.] 1. To keep in ſtore; to ſave to ſome other purpoſe.—I could add many probabilities of the names of places; but I *reſerve* them for another. *Spenſer*.—Haſt thou ſeen the treaſures of the hail, which I have *reſerved* againſt the day of trouble? *Job*, xxxviii. 23.—David *reſerved* of them for an hundred chariots. 2 *Sam*. viii. 4.—

Flowers
Reſerv'd from night, and kept for thee in ſtore. *Milton*.

2. To retain; to keep; to hold.—

Reſerve thy ſtate. *Shak*.

—Will he *reſerve* his anger for ever? *Jer*. iii. 5. 3. To lay up to a future time.—The lord knoweth how to *reſerve* the unjuſt unto the day of judgment. 2 *Peter*, ii. 9.—The breach ſeems like the ſciſſures of an earthquake, and *reſerves* its cure only for omnipotence. *Decay of Piety*.—*Reſerve* your kind looks and language for private hours. *Swift*.

* RESERVED. *adj.* [from *reſerve*.] 1. Modeſt; not looſely free.—

To all obliging, yet *reſerv'd* to all. *Walſh*.
Fame is a bubble the *reſerv'd* enjoy. *Young*.

2. Sullen; not open; not frank.—

Nothing *reſerv'd* or ſullen was to ſee. *Dryd*.

* RESERVEDLY. *adv.* [from *reſerved*.] 1. Not with frankneſs; not with openneſs; with reſerve.—I muſt write but obſcurely and *reſervedly*, until I have opportunity to expreſs my ſentiments with greater perſpicuity. *Woodw*. 2. Scrupulouſly; coldly.—

He ſpeaks *reſerv'dly*. *Pope*.

* RESERVEDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *reſerved*.] Cloſeneſs; want of frankneſs; want of openneſs.—

Obſerve their gravity
And their *reſervedneſs*. *Ben Jonſon*.

—By formality, I mean ſomething more than ceremony and compliment, even a ſolemn *reſervedneſs*. *Wotton*.—There was great warineſs and *reſervedneſs*. *Clarendon*.—Diſſimulation can but juſt guard a man within the compaſs of his own perſonal concerns, which yet may be more effectually done by that ſilence and *reſervedneſs*, that every man may innocently practiſe. *South*.

* RESERVER. *n. ſ.* [from *reſerve*.] One that reſerves.

(1.) * RESERVOIR. *n. ſ.* [*reſervoir*, Fr.] Place where any thing is kept in ſtore.—There is not a ſpring or fountain, but are well provided with huge ciſterns and *reſervoirs* of rain and ſnow water. *Addiſon*.—

This year a *reſervoir*, to keep and ſpare;

Th

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The next, a fountain ſpouting through his heir. *Pope.*

(2.) *A* RESERVOIR is chiefly uſed for a place where water is collected and reſerved, in order to be conveyed to diſtant places through pipes, or ſupply a fountain, or *jet d'eau.*

RESET, *n. ſ.* in law, the receiving or harbouring an outlawed perſon. See OUTLAWRY.

* *To* RESETTLE. *v. a.* [*re* and *ſettle.*] To ſettle again.—Will the houſe of Auſtria yield the leaſt article, even of uſurped prerogative, to *reſettle* the minds of thoſe princes in the alliance? *Swift.*

* RESETTLEMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *reſettle.*] 1. The act of ſettling again.—To the *reſettlement* of my diſcompoſed ſoul, I conſider that grief is the moſt abſurd of all the paſſions. *Norris.* 2. The ſtate of ſettling again.—Some roll their caſk to mix it with the lees, and after a *reſettlement*, they rack it. *Mort.*

RESHD, or RESHT, } a city of Perſia, capital of the prov. of Ghilan, ſeated on a river, 6 miles SE. of the Caſpian Sea. It contains about 1000 houſes irregularly built. It is populous and commercial. The climate is extremely hot in ſummer. It lies 100 miles N. of Iſpahan, and 110 N. of Caſbin. Lon. 50. 0. E. according to Cruttwell, or 52. 16. as Dr Brookes has it. Lat. 37. 18. N.

* RESIANCE. *n. ſ.* [from *reſiant.*] Reſidence; abode; dwelling. *Reſiance* and *reſiant* are now only uſed in law.—The king forthwith baniſhed all Flemiſhes, commanding his merchant adventurers, which had a *reſidence* in Antwerp, to return home. *Bacon.*

* RESIANT. *adj.* [*reſſeant*, Fr.] Reſident; preſent in a place.—Solyman was come as far as Sophia, where the Turks great lieutenant in Europe is always *reſiant*. *Knolles.*—

The Allobroges here *reſiant* in Rome.
Ben Jonſon.

* *To* RESIDE. *v. n.* [*reſideo*, Lat. *reſider*, Fr.] 1. To have abode; to live; to dwell; to be preſent.—

How can God with ſuch *reſide?* *Milton.*
In no fix'd place the happy ſouls *reſide.*
Dryden.

2. [*Reſido*, Lat.] To ſink; to ſubſide; to fall to the bottom.—Oil of vitriol and petroleum, a drachm of each, turn into a mouldy ſubſtance; there *reſiding* in the bottom a fair cloud and a thick oil on the top. *Boyle.*

(1.) * RESIDENCE. *n. ſ.* [*reſidence*, Fr.] 1. Act of dwelling in a place.—

To reſtify his hidden *reſidence.* *Milton.*

—The confeſſor had often made conſiderable *reſidence* in Normandy. *Hake.* 2. Place of abode; dwelling.—

Within the infant rind of this ſmall flower,
Poiſon hath *reſidence.* *Shak.*
Fith within their wat'ry *reſidence.* *Milton.*

—Capua had been the *reſidence* of Tiberius for ſeveral years. *Addiſon.* 3. [From *reſido*, Latin.] That which ſettles at the bottom of liquors.—Separation is wrought by weight, as in the ordinary *reſidence* or ſettlement of liquors. *Bacon.*—In the evaporation of water, beſides a terreous *reſidence*, ſome ſalt is alſo found. *Brown.*

(2.) RESIDENCE, in the canon and common law, the abode of a parſon or incumbent upon his benefice; and his aſſiduity in attending on the ſame.

(1.) * RESIDENT. *adj.* [*reſident*, Lat. *reſident*, Fr.] Dwelling or having abode in any place.—Not thinking it neceſſary, that Chriſt ſhould be perſonally preſent or *reſident* on earth in the millenium. *Burnet.*—He is not ſaid to be *reſident* in a place, who comes thither with a purpoſe of retiring immediately. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) * RESIDENT. *n. ſ.* [from the adj.] An agent, miniſter, or officer reſiding in any diſtant place with the dignity of an ambaſſador.—The pope fears the Engliſh will ſuffer nothing like a *reſident* or conſul in his kingdoms. *Addiſ.*

(3.) RESIDENTS, (§ 2.) are a claſs of public miniſters, inferior to ambaſſadors or envoys; but, like them, are under the protection of the law of nations.

* RESIDENTIARY. *adj.* [from *reſident.*] Holding reſidence.—Chriſt was the conductor of the Iſraelites into Canaan; and their *reſidentiary* guardian. *More.*

* RESIDUAL, } *adj.* [from *reſiduum*, Latin.]
* RESIDUARY. } Relating to the reſidue; relating to the part remaining.—'Tis enough to loſe the legacy, or the *reſiduary* advantage of the eſtate left him. *Ayliffe.*

* RESIDUE. *n. ſ.* [*reſidu*, Fr. *reſiduum*, Latin.] The remaining part; that which is left.—The cauſes are all ſuch as expel the moſt volatile parts of the blood, and fix the *reſidue.* *Arbuthnot.*

* *To* RESIEGE. *v. a.* [*re* and *ſiege*, Fr.] To ſeat again. Obſolete.—

And then therein *reſieged* was again,
And ruled long with honourable ſtate. *Spenſer.*

* *To* RESIGN. *v. a.* [*reſigner*, Fr. *reſigno*, Lat.] 1. To give up a claim or poſſeſſion.—

Reſign
Your crown and kingdom. *Shak.*
Thus I have *reſign'd* to you my charge. *Shak.*
To her thou didſt *reſign* thy place. *Milton.*
Phœbus *reſigns* his darts. *Denham.*
Ev'ry Iſmena would *reſign* her breaſt;
And ev'ry dear Hippolytus be bleſt. *Prior.*

2. To yield up.—Whoever ſhall *reſign* their reaſons, yet are they ſtill within the line of vulgarity. *Brown.*—

Deſirous to *reſign* and render back
All I receiv'd. *Milton.*

—Thoſe, who always *reſign* their judgment to the laſt man they heard or read, truth never ſinks into thoſe men's minds; but, camelion-like, they take the colour of what is laid before them, and as ſoon loſe and *reſign* it to the next that comes in their way. *Locke.* 3. To give up in confidence: with *up* emphatical.—We ſhould in all things *reſign up* ourſelves to the will of God. *Tillotſon.*—To ſubmit; particularly to ſubmit to providence.—

Fearleſs of fortune, and *reſign'd* to fate.
Dryden.
Sincere, though prudent; conſtant, yet *reſign'd.* *Pope.*

3. To ſubmit without reſiſtance or murmur.—

What thou art, *reſign* to death. *Shak.*

(2.) * RESIGNATION. *n. ſ.* [*reſignation*, Fr.]

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2. The act of refigning or giving up a claim or poſſeſſion.—

The *reſignation* of thy ſtate and crown. *Shak.* —He intended to procure a *reſignation* of the rights of the king's majeſty's ſiſters and others. *Hayward.* 2. Submiſſion; unreſiſting acquieſcence.—We cannot expect, that any one ſhould readily quit his own opinion, and embrace ours, with a blind *reſignation*. *Locke.*—There is a kind of ſluggiſh *reſignation*, as well as poorneſs and degeneracy of ſpirit, in a ſtate of ſlavery. *Addiſon.* 3. Submiſſion without murmur to the will of God.

(2.) RESIGNATION. See MORAL PHILOSOPHY.

* RESIGNER. *n. ſ.* [from *reſign.*] One that refigns.

* RESIGNMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *reſign.*] Act of refigning.

* RESILIENCE. } *n. ſ.* [from *reſilio*, Latin.]
* RESILIENCY. } The act of ſtarting or leaping back.—If you ſtrike a ball ſidelong, the rebound will be as much the contrary way; whether there be any ſuch *reſilience* in echoes, that is, whether a man ſhall hear better if he ſtand aſide the body repercuſſing, than if he ſtand where he ſpeaketh, may be tried. *Bacon.*

* RESILIENT. *adj.* [*reſiliens*, Lat.] Starting or ſpringing back.

* RESILITION. *n. ſ.* [*reſilio*, Lat.] The act of ſpringing back; reſilience.

(1.) * RESIN. *n. ſ.* [*reſine*, Fr. *reſina*, Latin.] The fat ſulphurous parts of ſome vegetable, which is natural or procured by art, and will incorporate with oil or ſpirit, not an aqueous menſtruum. Thoſe vegetable ſubſtances that will diſſolve in water are gums, thoſe that will not diſſolve and mix but with ſpirits or oil, are reſins.

(2.) RESIN, in natural hiſtory, a viſcid juice oozing either ſpontaneouſly, or by inciſion, from ſeveral trees, as the pine, fir, &c. Reſins are diſtinguiſhed from GUMS, by being inflammable, and ſoluble only in ardent ſpirits.—A premium for ſeveral years has been offered by the London Society for Encouraging Arts, &c. for diſcovering a mode of reducing the inflammable quality of reſin, ſo as to adapt it to the purpoſes of making candles; but no ſuch diſcovery has yet been made.

(3.) RESIN, ELASTIC, or CAOUTCHOUC; or ELASTIC GUM, or INDIAN-RUBBER; a ſubſtance produced from the ſyringe tree of Cayenne and other parts of South America, and poſſeſſed of the moſt ſingular properties. No ſubſtance is yet known which is ſo pliable, and at the ſame time ſo elaſtic; and it is capable of reſiſting the action of very powerful menſtrua. From M. De la Condamine, we learn, that this ſubſtance oozes out, under the form of a vegetable milk, from inciſions made in the tree; and that it is gathered chiefly in time of rain, becauſe, though it may be collected at all times, it flows then moſt abundantly. The means employed to inſpiſſate and indurate it, M. de la Borde ſays, are kept a profound ſecret. M. Bomare, and others, affirm, that it thickens and hardens gradually by being expoſed to the air; and as ſoon as it acquires a ſolid conſiſtence, it manifeſts a very extraordinary degree of flexibility and elaſticity. Accordingly the Indians make boots of it, which water cannot penetrate, and which, when ſmoaked, have the appearance of real leather. Bottles are alſo made of it, to the necks of which are faſtened hollow reeds, ſo that the liquor contained in them may be ſquirted through the reeds or pipes by preſſure. One of theſe filled with water is always preſented to gueſts at their entertainments, who never fail to make uſe of it before eating. This whimſical cuſtom led the Portugueſe in that country to call the tree that produces this reſin *pao di xirringa*, and hence the name of SERINGAL is given both to the tree and to its reſinous production. Flambeaux, an inch and a half in diameter, and two feet long, are likewiſe made of this reſin, which give a beautiful light, have no bad ſmell, and burn 12 hours. A kind of cloth is alſo prepared from it, which the inhabitants of Quito apply to the ſame purpoſes as our oil-cloth and ſail-cloth. It is formed by moulds, into a variety of figures for uſe and ornament; the proceſs is this: The juice, obtained by inciſion, is ſpread over pieces of clay formed into the deſired ſhape; and as faſt as one layer is dry, another is added, till the veſſel be of the proper thickneſs: the whole is then held over a ſtrong ſmoke of burning vegetables, whereby it hardens into the texture and appearance of leather; and before the finiſhing, while yet ſoft, is capable of having any impreſſion made on the outſide, which remains ever after. When the whole is done, the inſide mould is taken out. Ever ſince this reſin has been known in Europe, its chemical qualities and other intereſting properties have been very diligently inveſtigated. See CHEMISTRY, *Index.* The diſtinguiſhing properties of this ſubſtance, viz. its ſolidity, flexibility, and elaſticity, and its quality of reſiſting the action of aqueous, ſpirituous, ſaline, oily, and other common ſolvents, render it extremely fit for the conſtruction of tubes, catheters, and other inſtruments, in which theſe properties are wanted. To form this reſin into ſmall tubes, M. Macquer prepared a ſolid cylindrical mould of wax, of the deſired ſize and ſhape; and then dipping a pencil into the etherial ſolution of the reſin, daubed the mould over with it, till he had covered it with a coat of reſin of a ſufficient thickneſs. The whole piece is then thrown into boiling water; by the heat of which the wax is ſoon melted, and riſes to the ſurface, leaving the reſinous tube completely formed behind. Of the genuine trees, thoſe growing along the banks of the river of the Amazons are deſcribed by M. Condamine as attaining a very great height, being at the ſame time perfectly ſtraight, and having no branches except at top, which is but ſmall, covering no more than a circumference of ten feet. Its leaves bear ſome reſemblance to thoſe of the *manioc*; they are green on the upper part, and white beneath. The ſeeds are three in number, and contained in a pod conſiſting of three cells, like thoſe of the *ricinus*; and in each of them is a kernel, which being ſtripped and boiled in water, produces a thick oil or fat, anſwering the purpoſes of butter in the cookery of that country. As to the genus of this tree, it does not ſeem to be yet aſcertained. Aublet, in his *Hiſtoire des Plants de la Guiane* (p. 871.),

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371.), describes the tree, the fruit, and manner of collecting the juice; but never saw the flower: he calls it, however, *Hevea Guianenſis*. In Jacquin's America, it is called *Echites corymboſa*. The younger Linnæus, in his *Supplementum Plantarum* (p. 422.), names it *Jatropha elaſtica*; but acknowledges that he only gives it this name from the ſtructure of the fruit having moſt reſemblance to that genus, his dry ſpecies wanting the flowers. Of the above gum, it is ſaid, the Chineſe make elaſtic rings for laſcivious purpoſes.—Among us it is uſed by ſurgeons for injecting liquids, and by painters for rubbing out black lead pencil marks, &c.

(4.) RESIN, GUM, a ſubſtance uniting the properties of gum and reſin: of theſe the inſtances are numerous.

(5.) RESIN, RED GUM, is procured from the red gum tree, or eucalyptus reſinifera; a tree ſo large and lofty as to exceed in ſize the Engliſh oak. The wood of the tree is brittle, and of little uſe but for fire wood, from the large quantity of reſinous gum it contains. The tree is diſtinguiſhed by having pedunculated flowers, and an acute or pointed conical calyptra. To obtain the juice from this tree, inciſions are made in the trunk of it, and ſometimes upwards of 60 gallons of red reſinous juice have been obtained from one of them. "When this juice is dried, it becomes a very powerful aſtringent gum reſin, of a red colour, much reſembling that known in the ſhops by the name of *kino*, and, for all medical purpoſes, fully as efficacious. Mr White (ſee his *Voyage, App.*) adminiſtered it to patients in the dyſentery, which prevailed much ſoon after the landing of the convicts, and in no one inſtance found it to fail. This gum reſin diſſolves almoſt entirely in ſpirit of wine, to which it gives a blood red tincture. Water diſſolves about one-fifth part only, and the watery ſolution is of a bright red. Both theſe ſolutions are powerfully aſtringent."

(6.) RESIN, YELLOW GUM, is procured from the yellow reſin tree, which is as large as the Engliſh walnut tree. The properties of this reſin are equal to thoſe of the moſt fragrant balſams. It exudes from the bark ſpontaneouſly, but more readily if inciſions are made. The colour of it is yellow, and at firſt it is fluid; but after being inſpiſſated in the ſun, it becomes ſolid. When burnt on hot coals, it ſmells like a mixture of balſam of Tolu and benzoin, approaching ſomewhat to ſtorax. "It is perfectly ſoluble in ſpirit of wine, but not in water, nor even in eſſential oil of turpentine, unleſs it be digeſted in a ſtrong heat. The varniſh which it makes with either is very weak, and of little uſe. With reſpect to its medicinal qualities, Mr White found it a good pectoral medicine, and very balſamic. It is not obtainable in ſo great abundance as the red gum produced by the eucalyptus reſinifera. The plant which produces the yellow gum ſeems to be perfectly unknown to botaniſts, but Mr White has communicated no ſpecimens by which its genus or even claſs could be determined."

(1.) * RESINOUS. *adj.* [from *reſin*; *reſineux*, Fr.] Containing reſin; conſiſting of reſin.—*Reſinous* gums, diſſolved in ſpirit of wine, are let fall again, if the ſpirit be copiouſly diluted. *Boyle.*

(2.) RESINOUS ELECTRICITY, is that kind of electricity which is produced by exciting bodies of the reſinous kind, and which is generally negative. See ELECTRICITY, *Index.*

* RESINOUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *reſinous.*] The quality of being reſinous.

* RESIPISCENCE. *n. ſ.* [*reſipiſcence*, Fr. *reſipiſcentia*, low Lat.] Wiſdom after the fact; repentance.

(1.) * *To* RESIST. *v. a.* [*reſiſto*, Lat. *reſiſter*, Fr.] 1. To oppoſe; to act againſt.—*Reſiſt* the devil, and he will flee. *Ja.* iv.—

To do ill our ſole delight
As being the contrary to his high will
Whom we *reſiſt*. *Milton.*

Not more almighty to *reſiſt* our might,
Than wiſe to fruſtrate all our plots. *Milton.*

Some forms, tho' bright, no mortal man can bear,
Some, none *reſiſt*, though not exceeding fair. *Young.*

2. Not to admit impreſſion or force.—

Nor keen nor ſolid could *reſiſt* that edge. *Milton.*

(2.) * *To* RESIST. *v. n.* To make oppoſition.

Who *reſiſt*,
Are mock'd for valiant ignorance. *Shak.*

(1.) * RESISTANCE. RESISTENCE. *n. ſ.* [*reſiſtance*, Fr. This word, like many others, is differently written, as it is ſuppoſed to have come from the Latin, or the French.] 1. The act of reſiſting; oppoſition.—Demetrius, ſeeing that the land was quiet, and that no *reſiſtance* was made againſt him, ſent away all his forces. 1 *Mac.* 2. The quality of not yielding to force or external impreſſion.—The *reſiſtance* of bone to cold is greater than of fleſh; for the fleſh ſhrinketh, but the bone *reſiſteth. Bacon.*—

Not an arrow does *reſiſtance* find. *Waller.*

—The idea of ſolidity we receive by our touch, and it ariſes from the *reſiſtance* which we find in one body to the entrance of any other body into the place it poſſeſſes. *Locke.*—But that part of the *reſiſtance*, which ariſes from the vis inertiæ, is proportional to the denſity of the matter, and cannot be diminiſhed by dividing the matter into ſmaller parts, nor by any other means, than by decreaſing the denſity of the medium. *Newton.*

(2.) RESISTANCE, or RESISTING FORCE, in philoſophy, denotes, in general, any power which acts in an oppoſite direction to another, ſo as to deſtroy or diminiſh its effect. See MECHANICS, HYDROSTATICS, and PNEUMATICS. Of all the reſiſtances of bodies to each other, there is none of greater importance than the reſiſtance or reaction of fluids. It is here that we muſt look for a theory of naval architecture; for the impulſe of the air is our moving power, and this muſt be modified ſo as to produce every motion we want by the form and diſpoſition of our ſails; and it is the reſiſtance of the water which muſt be overcome, that the ſhip may proceed in her courſe; and this muſt alſo be modified to our purpoſe, that the ſhip may not drive like a log to leeward, but on the contrary may ply to windward, that ſhe may anſwer

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fwer her helm briſkly, and that ſhe may be eaſy in all her motions on the ſurface of the troubled ocean. The impulſe of wind and water makes them ready and indefatigable ſervants in a thouſand ſhapes for driving our machines; and we ſhould loſe much of their ſervice did we remain ignorant of the laws of their action. We cannot refuſe the ancients a conſiderable knowledge of this ſubject. It was equally intereſting to them as to us; and we cannot read the accounts of the naval exertions of Phœnicia, Carthage, and of Rome, exertions which have not been ſurpaſſed by any thing of modern date, without believing that they poſſeſſed much practical and experimental knowledge of this ſubject. It was not, perhaps, poſſeſſed by them in a ſtrict and ſyſtematic form, as it is now taught by our mathematicians; but the maſter-builders, in their dock-yards, did undoubtedly exerciſe their genius in comparing the forms of their fineſt ſhips, and in marking thoſe circumſtances of form and dimenſion which were *in fact* accompanied with the deſirable properties of a ſhip, and thus framing to themſelves maxims of naval architecture in the ſame manner as we do now. For we believe that our naval architects are not diſpoſed to grant that they have profited much by all the labours of the mathematicians. But the ancients had not made any great progreſs in the phyſico-mathematical ſciences, which conſiſt chiefly in the application of calculus to the phenomena of nature. In this branch they could make none, becauſe they had not the means of inveſtigation. A knowledge of the motions and actions of fluids is acceſſible only to thoſe who are familiarly acquainted with the fluxionary mathematics; and without this key there is no admittance. Even when poſſeſſed of this guide, our progreſs has been very ſlow, heſitating, and devious; and we have not yet been able to eſtabliſh any ſet of doctrines which are ſuſceptible of an eaſy and confident application to the arts of life. If we have advanced further than the ancients, it is becauſe we have come after them, and have profited by their labours, and even by their miſtakes. Sir Iſaac Newton was the firſt (as far as we can recollect) who attempted to make the motions and actions of fluids the ſubject of mathematical diſcuſſion. He had invented the method of fluxions long before he engaged in his phyſical reſearches; and he proceeded in theſe *ſuâ matheſi facem præferente*. Yet even with this guide he was often obliged to grope his way, and to try various by-paths, in the hopes of obtaining a legitimate theory. Having exerted all his powers in eſtabliſhing a theory of the lunar motions, he was obliged to reſt contented with an approximation inſtead of a perfect ſolution of the problem which aſcertains the motions of three bodies mutually acting on each other. This convinced him that it was in vain to expect an accurate inveſtigation of the motions and actions of fluids, where millions of unſeen particles combine their influence. He therefore caſt about to find ſome particular caſe of the problem which would admit of an accurate determination, and at the ſame time furniſh circumſtances of analogy or reſemblance ſufficiently numerous for giving limiting caſes, which ſhould include between them thoſe other caſes that did not admit of this accurate inveſtigation. And thus, by knowing the limit to which the caſe propoſed did approximate, and the circumſtance which regulated the approximation, many uſeful propoſitions might be deduced for directing us in the application of theſe doctrines to the arts of life. He therefore figured to himſelf a hypothetical collection of matter, which poſſeſſed the characteriſtic property of fluidity, viz. the *quaquaverſum* propagation of preſſure, and the moſt perfect intermobility of parts, and which formed a phyſical whole or aggregate, whoſe parts were connected by mechanical forces, determined both in degree and in direction, and ſuch as rendered the determination of certain important circumſtances of their motion ſuſceptible of preciſe inveſtigation. And he concluded, that the laws which he ſhould diſcover in theſe motions muſt have a great analogy with the laws of the motions of real fluids: and from this hypotheſis he deduced a ſeries of propoſitions, which form the baſis of almoſt all the theories of the impulſe and reſiſtance of fluids which have been offered to the public ſince his time. It muſt be acknowledged, that the reſults of this theory agree but ill with experiment, and that, *in the way in which it has been zealouſly proſecuted by ſubſequent mathematicians*, it proceeds on principles or aſſumptions which are not only gratuitous, but even falſe. But it affords ſuch a beautiful application of geometry and calculus, that mathematicians have been as it were faſcinated by it, and have publiſhed ſyſtems ſo elegant and ſo extenſively applicable, that one cannot help lamenting that the foundation is ſo flimſy. John Bernoulli's theory, in his diſſertation on the communication of motion, and Bouguer's in his *Traité du Navire*, and in his *Theorie du Manœuvre et de la Mâture des Vaiſſeaux*, muſt ever be conſidered as among the fineſt ſpecimens of phyſico-mathematical ſcience which the world has ſeen. And, with all its imperfections, this theory ſtill furniſhes (as was expected by its illuſtrious author) many propoſitions of immenſe practical uſe, they being the limits to which the real phenomena of the impulſe and reſiſtance of fluids really approximate. So that, when the law by which the phenomena deviate from the theory is once determined by a well choſen ſeries of experiments, this hypothetical theory becomes almoſt as valuable as a true one. And although M. d'Alembert, by treading warily in the ſteps of Sir Iſaac Newton in another route, has diſcovered a genuine and unexceptionable theory, the proceſs of inveſtigation is ſo intricate, requiring every fineſſe of the moſt abſtruſe analyſis, and the final equations are ſo complicated, that even their moſt expert author has not been able to deduce more than one ſimple propoſition (which too was diſcovered by Daniel Bernoulli by a more ſimple proceſs) which can be applied to any uſe. The hypothetical theory of Newton, therefore, continues to be the ground-work of all our practical knowledge of the ſubject. We ſhall therefore lay before our readers a very ſhort view of it, and the manner of applying it. We ſhall then ſhew its defects, (which were pointed out by its great author,) and give an hiſtorical account of the many attempts which have been made to amend it, or to ſubſtitute another; in all which we think it our duty to ſhow, that Sir Iſaac Newton took the lead and

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and pointed out every path which others have taken, if we except Daniel Bernoulli and D'Alembert; and we ſhall give an account of the chief ſets of experiments which have been made on this important ſubject, in the hopes of eſtabliſhing an empirical theory, which may be employed with confidence in the arts of life.

(3.) RESISTANCE OF FLUIDS, THEORY OF. We know by experience that force muſt be applied to a body in order that it may move through a fluid, ſuch as air or water; and that a body projected with any velocity is gradually retarded in its motion, and generally brought to reſt. The analogy of nature makes us imagine that there is a force acting in the oppoſite direction, or oppoſing the the motion, and that this force reſides in, or is exerted by the fluid. And the phenomena reſemble thoſe which accompany the known reſiſtance of active beings, ſuch as animals. Therefore we give to this ſuppoſed force the metaphorical name of RESISTANCE. We alſo know that a fluid in motion will hurry a ſolid body along with the ſtream, and that it requires force to maintain it in its place.—A ſimilar analogy makes us ſuppoſe that the fluid exerts force, in the ſame manner as when an active being impels the body before him; therefore we call this the IMPULSION *of a Fluid*. And as our knowledge of nature informs us that the mutual action of bodies are in every caſe equal and oppoſite, and that the obſerved change of motion is the only inclination, characteriſtic, and meaſure, of the changing force, the forces are the ſame (whether we call them *impulſions* or *reſiſtances*) when the relative motions are the ſame, and therefore depend entirely on theſe relative motions. The force, therefore, which is neceſſary for keeping a body immoveable in a ſtream of water, flowing with a certain velocity, is the ſame with what is required for moving this body with this velocity through ſtagnant water. To any one who admits the motion of the earth round the ſun, it is evident that we can neither obſerve nor reaſon from a caſe of a body moving through ſtill water, nor of a ſtream of water preſſing upon or impelling a quieſcent body. A body in motion appears to be reſiſted by a ſtagnant fluid, becauſe it is a law of mechanical nature, that force muſt be employed to put any body in motion. Now, the body cannot move forward without putting the contiguous fluid in motion, and force muſt be employed for producing this motion. In like manner, a quieſcent body is impelled by a ſtream of fluid, becauſe the motion of the contiguous fluid is diminiſhed by this ſolid obſtacle; the reſiſtance, therefore, or impulſe, no way differs from the ordinary communications of motion among ſolid bodies. Sir Iſaac Newton, therefore, begins his theory of the reſiſtance and impulſe of fluids, by ſelecting a caſe where, although he cannot pretend to aſcertain the motions themſelves which are produced in the particles of a contiguous fluid, he can tell preciſely their mutual ratios. He ſuppoſes two ſyſtems of bodies ſuch, that each body of the firſt is ſimilar to a correſponding body of the ſecond, and that each is to each in a conſtant ratio. He alſo ſuppoſes them to be ſimilarly ſituated, that is, at the angles of ſimilar figures, and that the homologous lines of theſe figures are in the ſame ratio with the diameters of the bodies. He further ſuppoſes, that they attract or repel each other in ſimilar directions, and that the accelerating connecting forces are alſo proportional; that is, the forces in the one ſyſtem are to the correſponding forces in the other ſyſtem in a conſtant ratio, and that, in each ſyſtem taken apart, the forces are as the ſquares of the velocities directly, and as the diameters of the correſponding bodies, or their diſtances, inverſely. This being the caſe, it legitimately follows, that if ſimilar parts of the two ſyſtems are put into ſimilar motions, in any given inſtant, they will *continue* to move ſimilarly, each correſpondent body deſcribing ſimilar curves, with proportional velocities; for, the bodies being ſimilarly ſituated, the forces which act on a body in one ſyſtem, ariſing from the combination of any number of adjoining particles, will have the ſame direction with the force acting on the correſponding body in the other ſyſtem, ariſing from the combined action of the ſimilar and ſimilarly directed forces of the adjoining correſpondent bodies of the other ſyſtem; and theſe compound forces will have the ſame ratio with the ſimple forces which conſtitute them, and will be as the ſquares of the velocities directly, and as the diſtances, or any homologous lines inverſely, and therefore the chords of curvature, having the direction of the centripetal or centrifugal forces, and ſimilarly inclined to the tangents of the curves deſcribed by the correſponding bodies, will have the ſame ratio with the diſtances of the particles. The curves deſcribed by the correſponding bodies will therefore be ſimilar, the velocities will be proportional, and the bodies will be ſimilarly ſituated at the end of the firſt moment, and expoſed to the action of ſimilar and ſimilarly ſituated centripetal or centrifugal forces; and this will again produce ſimilar motions during the next moment, and ſo on for ever. All this is evident to any perſon acquainted with the elementary doctrines of curvilineal motions, as delivered in the theory of phyſical aſtronomy. From this fundamental propoſition, it clearly follows, that if two ſimilar bodies, having their homologous lines proportional to thoſe of the two ſyſtems, be ſimilarly projected among the bodies of thoſe two ſyſtems with any velocities, they will produce ſimilar motions in the two ſyſtems, and will themſelves continue to move ſimilarly; and therefore, will, in every ſubſequent moment ſuffer ſimilar diminutions or retardations. If the initial velocities of projection be the ſame, but the denſities of the two ſyſtems, that is, the quantities of matter contained in an equal bulk or extent, be different, it is evident that the quantities of motion produced in the two ſyſtems in the ſame time will be proportional to the denſities; and if the denſities are the ſame, and uniform in each ſyſtem, the quantities of motion produced will be as the ſquares of the velocities, becauſe the motion communicated to each correſponding body will be proportional to the velocity communicated, that is, to the velocity of the impelling body; and the number of ſimilarly ſituated particles which will be agitated will alſo be proportional to this velocity. Therefore, the whole quantities of motion produced in the ſame moment

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ment of time will be proportional to the ſquares of the velocities. And laſtly, if the denſities of the two ſyſtems are uniform, or the ſame through the whole extent of the ſyſtems, the number of particles impelled by ſimilar bodies will be as the ſurfaces of theſe bodies. Now the diminutions of the motions of the projected bodies are (by Newton's third law of motion) equal to the motions produced in the ſyſtems; and theſe diminutions are the meaſures of what are called the reſiſtances oppoſed to the motions of the projected bodies. Therefore, combining all theſe circumſtances, the reſiſtances are proportional to the ſimilar ſurfaces of the moving bodies, to the denſities of the ſyſtems through which the motions are performed, and to the ſquares of the velocities, jointly. We cannot form to ourſelves any diſtinct notion of a fluid, otherwiſe than as a ſyſtem of ſmall bodies, or a collection of particles, ſimilarly or ſymmetrically arranged, the centres of each being ſituated in the angles of regular ſolids. We muſt from this notion of it, whether we ſuppoſe, with the vulgar, that the particles are little globules in mutual contact, or, with the partiſans of corpuſcular attractions and repulſions, we ſuppoſe the particles to be kept at a diſtance from each other by means of theſe attractions and repulſions mutually balancing each other. In this laſt caſe, no other arrangement is conſiſtent with a quieſcent equilibrium: and in this caſe, it is evident, from the theory of curvilineal motions, that the agitations of the particles will always be ſuch, that the connecting forces, in actual exertion, will be proportional to the ſquares of the velocities directly, and to the chords of curvature having the direction of the forces inverſely. From theſe premiſes, therefore, we might deduce, in the ſtricteſt manner, the demonſtration of the leading theorem of the reſiſtance and impulſe of fluids; but the extenſive nature of the ſubject would lead us far beyond our limits; for which reaſon we muſt refer the reader to the articles already ſpecified, and to the works of Newton and other philoſophers who have conſidered the ſubjects in detail.

* RESISTIBILITY. *n. ſ.* [from *reſiſtible*.] 1. Quality of reſiſting.—Whether the *reſiſtibility* of Adam's reaſon did not equivalence the facility of Eve's ſeduction, we refer unto ſchoolmen. *Brown.*—The name body, being the complex idea of extenſion and *reſiſtibility*, together, in the ſame ſubject, theſe two ideas are not exactly one and the ſame. *Locke.* 2. Quality of being reſiſtible.—It is from corruption, and liberty to do evil, meeting with the *reſiſtibility* of this ſufficient grace, that one reſiſts it. *Hammond.*

* RESISTIBLE. *adj.* [from *reſiſt*.] That may be reſiſted.—That is irreſiſtible; this, though potent, yet is in its own nature *reſiſtible* by the will of man. *Hale.*

* RESISTLESS. *adj.* [from *reſiſt*.] Irreſiſtible; that cannot be oppoſed.—Our own eyes do every where behold the ſudden and *reſiſtleſs* aſſaults of death. *Raleigh.*—

All at once to force *reſiſtleſs* way. *Milton.*
Since you can love, and yet your error ſee,
The ſame *reſiſtleſs* power may plead for me.
Dryden.
Reſiſtleſs in her love, as in her hate. *Dryden.*
Though thine eyes *reſiſtleſs* glances dart,
A ſtronger charm is thine, a generous heart.
Logie.

RESITE, a town of Naples, in the province of Capitanata, 16 miles WNW. of Vieſte.

RESOLIS, a town of Scotland, in the county of Cromarty, 7 miles W. of Cromarty.

* RESOLVABLE. *adj.* [from *reſolve*.] 1. That may be referred or reduced.—The actions of ingratitude ſeem directly *reſolvable* into pride, as the principal reaſon of them. *South.* 2. Diſſoluble; admitting ſeparation of parts.—The ſerum of the blood is *reſolvable* by a ſmall heat. *Arbuthnot.* 3. Capable of ſolution, or of being made leſs obſcure.—The effect is wonderful in all, and the cauſes beſt *reſolvable* from obſervations. *Brown.*

* RESOLUBLE. *adj.* [*reſoluble*, Fr. *re* and *ſolubilis*, Lat.] That may be melted or diſſolved.—Three is not preciſely the number of the diſtinct elements, whereinto mixt bodies are *reſoluble* by fire. *Boyle.*

* RESOLVE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] Reſolution; fixed determination.—

I'm glad, you thus continue your *reſolve*.
Shak.
He ſtrait revokes his bold *reſolve*. *Denham.*
Rome attends her fate from our *reſolves*. *Cato.*

(1.) * *To* RESOLVE. *v. a.* [*reſolvo*, Latin; *reſoudre*, Fr.] 1. To inform; to free from a doubt or difficulty.—In all things then are our conſciences beſt *reſolved*, and in moſt agreeable ſort unto God and nature *reſolved*, when they are ſo far perſuaded, as thoſe grounds of perſuaſion will bear. *Hooker.*—

I will *reſolve* your grace immediately. *Shak.*
I cannot brook delay, *reſolve* me now. *Shak.*
Reſolve me, ſtrangers, whence and what you are? *Dryden.*

2. To ſolve; to clear.—Examine, ſift, and *reſolve* their alleged proofs. *Hooker.*—I *reſolve* the riddle of their loyalty. *King Charles.*—He always ſent himſelf rather judiciouſly to *reſolve*, than by doubts to perplex a buſineſs. *Hayward.*—The gravers, when they have attained to the knowledge of theſe repoſes, will eaſily *reſolve* thoſe difficulties. *Dryden.*—

The man who would *reſolve* the work of fate.
May limit number. *Prior.*

—Happineſs, it was *reſolv'd* by all, muſt be ſome one uniform end, proportioned to the capacities of human nature. *Rogers.* 3. To ſettle in an opinion.—Good or evil actions, commanded or prohibited by laws and precepts ſimply moral, may be *reſolved* into ſome dictates and principles of the law of nature. *White.*—

Long ſince we were *reſolved* of your truth,
Your faithful ſervice, and your toil. *Shak.*

4. To fix in a determination. This ſenſe is rather neutral, though in theſe examples the form be paſſive.—

Good proof
This day affords, declaring thee *reſolv'd*
To undergo with me one guilt. *Milton.*
I run to meet th' alarms,
Reſolv'd on death, *reſolv'd* to die in arms. *Dryd.*
Reſolv'd for ſea, the ſlaves thy baggage pack.
Nothing retards thy voyage. *Dryden.*

5. To fix in conſtancy; to confirm.—

* Quit

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Quit presently the chapel, or *resolve* you
For more amazement. *Shak.*

5. To melt; to dissolve.—*Resolving* is bringing a fluid, which is new concreted, into the state of fluidity again. *Arbuthnot.*—Vegetable salts *resolve* the coagulated humours of a human body. *Arbuthnot.* 7. To analyse; to reduce.—Into what can we resolve this strong inclination of mankind to this error? *Tillotson.*—

Now *resolv'd* to elements agen, *Dryden.*

—The decretals *resolve* all into a monarchical power at Rome. *Baker.*

(2.) * *To* RESOLVE. *v. n.* 1. To determine; to decree within one's self.—

Confirm'd, then I *resolve*
Adam shall share with me. *Milton.*

—Those, who have *resolved* upon the thriving sort of piety, have seldom embarked all their hopes in one bottom. *Decay of Piety.* 2. To melt; to be dissolved.—

Retaining but a quantity of life,
Which bleeds away, ev'n as a form of wax
Resolveth from its figure 'gainst the fire? *Shak.*
All tempers yield and soften in those fires,
Our honours, interests, *resolving* down,
Run in the gentle current of our joys. *Southern.*

—When the blood stagnates in any part, it first coagulates, then *resolves* and turns alkaline. *Arbuthnot.* 3. To be settled in opinion.—Let men *resolve* of that as they please. *Locke.*

* RESOLVEDLY. *adv.* [from *resolved.*] With firmness and constancy.—A man may be *resolvedly* patient unto death. *Grew.*

* RESOLVEDNESS. *n. s.* [from *resolved.*] Resolution; constancy; firmness.—This *resolvedness*, this high fortitude in sin, can with no reason be imagined a preparative to its remission. *Dec. of P.*

(1.) * RESOLVENT. *n. s.* [*resolvens*, Latin.] That which has the power of causing solution.—In the beginning of inflammation, repellents; and in the increase, *resolvents* ought to be mixed. *Wiseman.*—Lactescent plants, as lettuce and endive contain wholesome juice, *resolvent* of the bile. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) RESOLVENTS, in surgery, such as are proper for dissipating tumours, without allowing them to come to suppuration.

* RESOLVER. *n. s.* [from *resolve.*] 1. One that forms a firm resolution.—God cannot be thought to have justified that unsincere *resolver's* soul. 2. One that dissolves; one that separates parts.—It may be doubted, whether or no the fire be the genuine and universal *resolver* of mixed bodies. *Boyle.*

* RESOLUTE. *adj.* [*resolu*, Fr.] Determined; bold; constant; steady; firm.—

Be bloody, bold, and *resolute*; laugh to scorn
The pow'r of man; for none of woman born
Shall harm Macbeth. *Shak.*
Edward is at hand
Ready to fight; therefore be *resolute*. *Shak.*

* RESOLUTELY. *adv.* [from *resolute.*] Determinately; constantly; firmly; steadily.—

We *resolutely* must,
To the few virtues that we have, be just. *Rose.*

—A man who lives a virtuous life, despises the pleasures of sin, and persists *resolutely* in his course.

Tillotson.—Some of these facts he examines, some he *resolutely* denies. *Swift.*

* RESOLUTENESS. *n. s.* [from *resolute.*] Determinateness; state of being fixed in resolution.—All that my *resoluteness* to make use of my ears, not tongue, could do, was to make them acquiesce. *Boyle.*

(1.) * RESOLUTION. *n. s.* [*resolutio*, Lat. *resolution*, Fr.] 1. Act of clearing difficulties.—In matters of antiquity, if their originals escape due relation, they fall into great obscurities, and such as future ages seldom reduce into a *resolution*. *Brown.*—Visits, whether of civility, or for *resolution* of conscience, were numerous. *Fell.*—The unravelling and *resolution* of the difficulties, that are met with in the execution of the design, are the end of an action. *Dryden.* 2. Analysis; act of separating any thing into constituent parts.—To the present impulses of sense, memory and instinct, all the sagacities of brutes may be reduced; though witty men, by analytical *resolution*, have chemically extracted an artificial logick out of all their actions. *Hale.* 3. Dissolution.—In the hot springs of extreme cold countries, the first heats are unsufferable, which proceed out of the *resolution* of humidity congealed. 4. [From *resolute.*] Fixed determination; settled thought.—

Ere a determinate *resolution*,
The bishop did require a respite. *Shak.*

—O Lord, *resolutions* of future reforming do not always satisfy thy justice. *King Charles.*—We spend our days in deliberating, and we end them without coming to any *resolution*. *L'Estrange.*—How much this is in every man's power, by making *resolutions* to himself, is easy to try. *Locke.*—The mode of the will, which answers to dubitation, may be called suspension; that which answers to invention, *resolution*. *Grew.* 5. Constancy; firmness; steadiness in good or bad.—The rest of the Helots, which were otherwise scattered, bent thitherward, with a new life of *resolution*. *Sidney.*—I would unstate myself to be in a due *resolution*. *Shak.*—They, who governed the parliament, had the *resolution* to act those monstrous things. *Clarendon.*—

What reinforcement we may gain from hope,
If not what *resolution* from despair. *Milton.*

6. Determination of a cause in courts of justice.—Nor have we all the acts of parliament or of judicial *resolutions*. *Hale.*

(2.) RESOLUTION, in chemistry (§ 1. *def.* 2.) is the reduction of a mixed body into its first principles, as far as can be done by a proper analysis.

(3.) RESOLUTION, in medicine and surgery, the disappearing of any tumour without coming to suppuration or forming an abscess.

(4.) RESOLUTION, in music. To *resolve* a discord or dissonance, says Rousseau, is to carry it according to rule into a consonance in the subsequent chord. There is for that purpose a procedure prescribed, both for the fundamental bass of the dissonant chord, and for the part by which the dissonance is formed. There is no possible manner of resolving a dissonance which is not derived from an operation of cadence: it is then by the kind of cadence which we wish to form, that the motion of the fundamental bass is determined.

See

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(See CADENCE.) With respect to the part by which the dissonance is formed, it ought neither to continue in its place, nor to move by disjointed gradations; but to rise or descend diatonically; according to the nature of the dissonance. Theorists say, that major dissonances ought to rise, and minor descend; which is not however, without exception, since, in particular chords of harmony, a seventh, although major, ought not to rise, but to descend, unless in that chord which is, very incorrectly, called *the chord of the seventh redundant*. It is better then to say, that the seventh and all its derivative dissonances ought to descend; and that the sixth superadded, and all its derivative dissonances, should rise. This is a rule truly general, and without any exception. It is the same case with the rule of resolving dissonances. There are some dissonances which cannot be prepared; but there is by no means one which ought not to be resolved. With respect to the sensible note, improperly called a *major dissonance*, if it ought to ascend, this is less on account of the rule for resolving dissonances, than on account of that which prescribes a diatonic procedure, and prefers the shortest road; and, in reality, there are cases, as that of the interrupted cadence, in which this sensible note does not ascend. In chords by supposition, one single chord often produces two dissonances, as the seventh and ninth, the ninth and fourth, &c. Then these two dissonances ought to have been prepared, and both must likewise be resolved; it is because regard should be paid to every thing which is discordant, not only in the fundamental but even in the continued bass.

(5.) RESOLUTION, a bay on the W. coast of St Christina, one of the MARQUESA's islands, in the South Sea. It is under the highest land in the island. Lon. 139. 9. W. Lat. 9. 55. S.

(6.) RESOLUTION HARBOUR, a port in the island of Tanna, in the S. Pacific Ocean; ½ of a mile long, and not half a mile broad. As the coast abounds with wood and water it is extremely convenient for European ships. Lon. 169° 44′ 35″ W. Lat. 19° 32′ 25½″ S.

(7.) RESOLUTION ISLAND, one of the latest discovered SOCIETY Islands, in the S. Pacific Ocean. Lon. 141. 15. W. Lat. 17. 24. S.

(8.) RESOLUTION ISLAND, an island in the N. Atlantic Ocean, 60 miles in circumference, on the N. side of the entrance into Hudson's Straits. Lon. 65. 0. W. Lat. 51. 40. N.

(9.) RESOLUTION OF IDEAS. See LOGIC.

(10.) RESOLUTION PORT. See N° 6.

* RESOLUTIVE. *adj.* [*resolutus*, Lat. *resolutif*, Fr.] Having the power to dissolve or relax.

(1.) * RESONANCE. *n. s.* [from *reſono*, Lat.] Sound; resound.—There were some famous lutes that attained not their full seasoning and best *resonance*, till they were about fourscore years old. *Boyle.*

(2.) RESONANCE, RESOUNDING, in music, &c. a sound returned by the air enclosed in the bodies of stringed instruments, such as lutes, &c. or even in those of wind instruments, as flutes, &c.

* RESONANT. *adj.* [*reſonant*, Fr. *reſonans*, Lat.] Resounding.—

His volant touch
Fled and pursu'd transverse the *resonant* fugue. *Milton.*

* RESORT. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. Frequency; assembly; meeting.—

Unquestion'd in that thick *resort*. *Dryden.*

2. Concourse; confluence.—The like places of *resort* are frequented by men out of place. *Swift.*

3. Act of visiting.—

Join with me to forbid him her *resort*. *Shak.*

4. [*Reſſort*, Fr.] Movement; active power; spring: a gallicism.—Some know the *resorts* and falls of business. *Bacon's Essays.*—

We wander after pathless destiny,
Whose dark *resorts* since prudence cannot know,
In vain it would provide. *Dryden.*

* *To* RESORT. *v. n.* [*reſſortir*, Fr.] 1. To have recourse.—The king thought it time to *resort* to other counsels, and to provide force to chastise them, who had so much despised all his gentler remedies. *Clarendon.* 2. To go publickly.—

Thither shall all the valiant youth *resort*. *Milt.*
Hither the heroes and the nymphs *resort*. *Pope.*

3. To repair to.—Our Saviour himself *resorted* unto them. *White.*—

The sons of light
Hasted, *resorting* to the summons high. *Milton.*
To Argos' realms the victor god *resorts*. *Pope.*

4. To fall back. In law.—The inheritance of the son never *resorted* to the mother or to any of her ancestors. *Hale.*

* RESORTER. *n. s.* [from *resort*.] One that frequents, or visits.

(1.) * *To* RESOUND. *v. a.* [*reſono*, Lat. *reſonner*, Fr.] 1. To echo; to sound back; to return as sound.—

With other echo late I taught your shades,
To answer and *resound* far other song. *Milton.*
And Albion's cliffs *resound* the rural lay. *Pope.*

2. To celebrate by sound.—The sweet singer of Israel with his psaltery loudly *resounded* the innumerable benefits of the Almighty Creator. *Peach.*

The sound of hymns, wherewith thy throne
Incompass'd shall *resound* thee ever. *Milton.*

3. To sound; to tell so as to be heard far.—

The man, for wisdom's various arts renown'd
Long exercis'd in woes, oh muse! *resound*. *Pope.*

(2.) * *To* RESOUND. *v. n.* 1. To be echoed back.—What is common fame, which sounds from all quarters of the world, and *resounds* back to them again, but generally a loud, rattling, impudent lye? *South.* 2. To be much and loudly mentioned.—

What *resounds* in fable or romance. *Milton.*

RESOUNDING. *part. n. s.* See RESONANCE § 2.

* RESOURCE. *n. s.* [It is commonly written RESSOURCE, which see: *reſſource*, Fr. *Skinner* derives it from *reſoudre*, Fr. to spring up.] Some new or unexpected means that offer; resort; expedient.—

Pallas view'd
His foes pursuing, and his friends pursu'd;
Us'd threatnings, mix'd with pray'rs, his last *resource*. *Dryden.*

RESOUZE, a river of France, which runs into the Saone; near Pont de Vaux, in the department of the Ain.

* *To* RESOW. *v. a.* [*re* and *ſow*.] To sow

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new.—Over wet at sowing time breedeth much dearth, insomuch as they are forced to *resow* summer corn. *Bacon.*

* *To* RESPEAK. *v. n.* [*re* and *speak.*] To answer.—

The great cannon to the clouds shall tell,
And the king's rowse the heav'n shall bruit again,
Respeaking earthly thunder. *Shak. Hamlet.*

* RESPECT. *n. s.* [*respect*, Fr. *respectus*, Latin.] 1. Regard; attention.—

You have too much *respect* upon the world. *Shak.*

I love
My country's good with a *respect* more tender
Than mine own life. *Shak. Coriolanus.*

2. Reverence; honour.—

Let me not shame *respect*; but give me leave
To take that course. *Shak. sp.*

—Eneas must be drawn a suppliant to Dido, with *respect* in his gestures. *Dryden.*—

I found the king abandon'd to neglect;
Seen without awe, and serv'd without *respect*.
Prior.

—The same men treat the Lord's day with little *respect*. *Nelson.* 3. Awful kindness.—He, that will have his son have a *respect* for him, must have a great reverence for his son. *Locke.* 4. Goodwill.

Pembroke has got
A thousand pounds a-year, for pure *respect*. *Shak.*

—The Lord had *respect* unto Abel and his offering. *Gen.* iv. 5. Partial regard.—It is not good to have *respect* of persons in judgment. *Prov.* 6. Reverend character.—

Many of the best *respect* in Rome. *Shak.*

7. Manner of treating others.—You must use them with fit *respects*. *Bacon.*—The duke's carriage was to the gentlemen of fair *respect*. *Wotton.* 8. Consideration; motive.—Whatsoever secret *respects* were likely to move them, for contenting of their minds, Calvin returned. *Hooker.*—

The love of him, and this *respect* beside. *Shak.*
Since that *respects* of fortune are his love,
I shall not be his wife. *Shak.*

9. Relation; regard.—In *respect* of the suitors which attend you, do them what right in justice you may. *Bacon.*—There have been always monsters amongst them, in *respect* of their bodies. *Wilkins.*—I have represented to you the excellency of the Christian religion, in *respect* of its clear discoveries of the nature of God, and in *respect* of the perfection of its laws. *Tillotson.*—Every thing which is imperfect, as the world must be acknowledged in many *respects*, had some cause which produced it. *Tillotson.*—They believed but one supreme deity, which, with *respect* to the various benefits men received from him, had several titles. *Tatler.*

* *To* RESPECT. *v. a.* [*respectus*, Lat.] 1. To regard; to have regard to.—

Claudio, I quake,
Let thou should'st fewer winters more *respect*
Than a perpetual honour. *Shak.*

The best gods doe not love
Ungodly actions; but *respect* the right. *Chapm.*

—In orchards and gardens we do not so much *respect* beauty as variety of ground for fruits, trees, and herbs. *Bacon.*—In judgment-seats, not men's qualities, but causes only ought to be *respected*. *Kettleworth.* 2. [*Respecter*, Fr.] To consider with a lower degree of reverence.—There is nothing more terrible to a guilty heart, than the eye of a *respected* friend. *Sidney.*—

Whoever tastes, let him with grateful heart
Respect that ancient loyal house. *Philips.*

—I always loved and *respected* Sir William. *Swift.* 3. To have relation to: as, the allusion *respects* an ancient custom. 4. To look toward.—The needle doth vary, as it approacheth the pole; whereas, were such direction from the rocks, upon a nearer approachment, it would more directly *respect* them. *Brown.*—Palladius adviseth, the front of his house should so *respect* the South, that in the first angle it receive the rising rays of the winter sun. *Brown.*

* RESPECTABLE. *adj.* [*respectable*, Fr.] Venerable; meriting respect.

* RESPECTER. *n. s.* [from *respect*.] One that has partial regard.—Neither is any condition more honourable in the sight of God than another; otherwise he would be a *respecter* of persons. *Swift.*

* RESPECTFUL. *adj.* [*respect* and *full*.] Ceremonious; full of outward civility.—

From this dear bosom shall I ne'er be torn?
Or you grow cold, *respectful*, or forsworn? *Prior.*
With humble joy, and with *respectful* fear,
The list'ning people shall his story hear. *Prior.*

* RESPECTFULLY. *adv.* [from *respectful*.] With some degree of reverence.—

Let common meats *respectfully* give way. *Dryd.*

* RESPECTFULNESS. *n. s.* [from *respectful*.] The quality of being respectful.

* RESPECTIVE. *adj.* [from *respect*.] 1. Particular; relating to particular persons or things.—Moses mentions the immediate causes, and St Peter the more remote and fundamental causes, that constitution of the heavens and the earth, in reference to their *respective* waters, which made that world obnoxious to a deluge. *Burnet.*—When so many present themselves before their *respective* magistrates to take the oaths, it may not be improper to awaken a due sense of their engagements. *Addison.* 2. [*Respectif*, Fr.] Relative; not absolute.—The medium intended is not an absolute, but a *respective* medium. *Rogers.* 3. Worthy of reverence. Not in use.—

What should it be, that he respects in her,
But I can make *respective* in myself? *Shak.*

4. Careful; cautious; attentive to consequences. Obsolete.—*Respective* and wary men had rather seek quietly their own, than with hazard make themselves advisers for the common good. *Hooker.*—He was exceeding *respective* and precise. *Raleigh.*

* RESPECTIVELY. *adv.* [from *respective*.] 1. Particularly; as each belongs to each.—The interruption of trade between the English and Flemish began to pinch the merchants of both nations, which moved them to dispose their sovereigns *respectively* to open the intercourse again. *Bacon.*—The impressions from the objects of the senses do mingle *respectively* every one with his kind. *Bacon.*—Good and evil are in morality, as the East and West are in the frame of the world, founded in and divided by that fixed and unalterable situation, which they have *respectively* in the whole body of the universe. *South.*—The principles of those governments are *respectively* disclaimed and abhorred by all men of sense and virtue in both

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both parties. *Addiſon.* 2. Relatively; not abſolutely.—If there had been no other choice, but that Adam had been left to the univerſal, Moſes would not then have ſaid, eaſtward in Eden, ſeeing the world hath not Eaſt nor Weſt, but *reſpectively*. *Raleigh.* 3. Partially; with reſpect to private views. Obſolete.—The voices of the reſt were likely to be given for the moſt part *reſpectively* with a kind of ſecret dependency. *Hooker.* 4. With great reverence. Not in uſe.—Honeſt Flaminius, you are very *reſpectively* welcome. *Shak.*

* RESPERSION. *n. ſ.* [*reſperſio*, Lat.] The act of ſprinkling.

(1.) * RESPIRATION. *n. ſ.* [*reſpiration*, Fr. *reſpiratio*, from *reſpiro*, Lat.] 1. The act of breathing.—Apollonius of Tyana affirmed, that the ebbing and flowing of the ſea was the *reſpiration* of the world, drawing in water as breath, and putting it forth again. *Bacon.*—Syrups or other expectoratives do not advantage in coughs, by ſlipping down between the epiglottis; for that muſt neceſſarily occaſion a greater cough and difficulty of *reſpiration*. *Harvey.*—The author of nature foreknew the uſes of *reſpiration* to animals; and therefore created thoſe correſpondent properties in the atmoſphere. *Bentley.* 2. Relief from toil.—

Till the day
Appear of *reſpiration* to the juſt. *Milton.*

(2.) RESPIRATION. See ANATOMY, *Index*: and PHYSIOLOGY, *Sect.* I. Though the muſcles of reſpiration, having a mixed motion, are in ſome meaſure dependent on the will, yet no human being, after having once reſpired, can live many moments without it. In an attempt to hold one's breath, the blood ſoon begins to diſtend the veins, which cannot empty their contents into the heart, (See BLOOD, § 7.) and we are able only during a very little time to reſiſt the ſtimulus to inſpiration. In drowning, the circulation ſeems to be ſtopped upon this principle; and in hanging, the preſſure made on the jugular veins co-operates with the ſtoppage of reſpiration in bringing on death. No animal can live without air; but all do not require it equally pure. Birds, as well as men, and moſt quadrupeds, require a very pure air; but thoſe which live in the earth, or in a ſtate of ſtupefaction during winter, can ſubſiſt by a leſs pure air. The manner of reſpiring the air is different in the ſeveral animals. In general, all animals have an organ, which by its involuntary dilatation and contraction receives and expels the fluid in which the animal moves and exiſts. This organ is more or leſs perfect, more or leſs concealed and defended from external injury, according to its importance and influence upon the life of the creature, as Mr Brouſſonnet has obſerved. Amphibious animals reſpire by means of lungs: but they can ſuſpend their motion even whilſt they are in the air; as has been obſerved with regard to frogs, which ſtop their reſpiration at pleaſure. The manner of reſpiration in fiſhes is very different; theſe animals come from time to time to inhale the air at the ſurface of the water, where they fill their veſicle, and digeſt it afterwards at their eaſe. Inſects with tracheæ exhibit organs ſtill more remote from ours in their conſtruction. In theſe animals, reſpiration is effected by the tracheæ diſtributed along the body. They accompany all the veſſels, and terminate in inſenſible pores at the ſurface of the ſkin.

(3.) RESPIRATION OF FISHES. See ICHTHYOLOGY, *Sect.* III.

* *To* RESPIRE. *v. n.* [*reſpiro*, Lat. *reſpirer*, Fr.] 1. To breathe.—

The ladies gaſp'd, and ſcarcely could *reſpire*:
The breath they drew, no longer air. *Dryden.*

2. To catch breath.—

Their cruel tuſks they whet,
And trample th' earth the whiles they may *reſpire*. *Spenſer.*
The breath of heav'n freſh blowing, pure, and ſweet,
With day-ſpring born; here leave me to *reſpire*. *Milton.*

3. To reſt; to take reſt from toil.—

Hark! he ſtrikes the golden lyre;
And ſee! the tortur'd ghoſts *reſpire*. *Pope.*

(1.) * RESPITE. *n. ſ.* [*reſpit*, Fr.] 1. Reprieve; ſuſpenſion of a capital ſentence.—

I had hope to ſpend
Quiet, though ſad, the *reſpite* of that day,
That muſt be mortal to us both. *Milton.*
Wiſdom and eloquence in vain would plead
One moment's *reſpite* for the learned head. *Prior.*

2. Pauſe; interval.—

The fox then counſel'd th' ape, for to require
Reſpite till morrow t' anſwer his deſire. *Spenſ.*
—This cuſtomary war, which troubleth all the world, giveth little *reſpite* or breathing time of peace. *Raleigh.*—
Some pauſe and *reſpite* only I require. *Denh.*

(2.) RESPITE, in law, ſignifies a delay, forbearance, or prolongation of time, granted to any one for the payment of a debt or the like.

* *To* RESPITE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To relieve by a pauſe.—

From the heat of noon retir'd,
To *reſpite* his day-labour with repaſt,
Or with repoſe. *Milton's Par. Loſt.*

2. [*Reſpiter*, old Fr.] To ſuſpend; to delay.—They were promiſed payment, in November following; till which time they were to *reſpite* it. *Clarendon.*

* RESPLENDENCE. } *n. ſ.* [from *reſplendent*.]
* RESPLENDENCY. } Luſtre; brightneſs; ſplendour.—

Son! thou in whom my glory I behold
In full *reſplendence*. *Milton.*

—To neglect that ſupreme *reſplendency*, that ſhines in God, for thoſe dim repreſentations of it in the creature, is as abſurd as it were for a Perſian to offer his ſacrifice to a parhelion inſtead of adoring the ſun. *Boyle.*

* RESPLENDENT. *adj.* [*reſplendens*, Lat.] Bright; ſhining; having a beautiful luſtre.—Rich in commodities, *reſplendent* in all glory. *Camden.*—

There all within full rich array'd he found,
With royal arras and *reſplendent* gold. *Spenſ.*

—The ancient electrum had in it a fifth of ſilver to the gold, and made a compound metal, as fit for moſt uſes as gold, and more *reſplendent*. *Bacon.*

Empreſs of this fair world, *reſplendent* Eve! *Milton.*

—Cinnaber in the homogeneal light is moſt *reſplendent*, in the green light it is manifeſtly leſs *reſplendent*,

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lent, in the blue light ſtill leſs. *Newton's Opticks.*—*Reſplendent* braſs, and more *reſplendent* dames. *Pope.*

* RESPLENDENTLY. *adv.* [from *reſplendent.*] With luſtre; brightly; ſplendidly.

* †. RESPOND. *v. n.* [*reſpondeo*, Lat. *reſpondre*, Fr.] 1. To anſwer. Little uſed. 2. To correſpond; to ſuit.—

To ev'ry theme *reſponds* thy various lay;
Here rowls a torrent. *Broome.*

(1.) * RESPONDENT. *n. ſ.* [*reſpondens*, Lat.] 1. An anſwerer in a ſuit.—In giving an anſwer, the *reſpondent* ſhould be in court. *Ayliffe.* 2. One who's province, in a ſet diſputation, is to refute objections.—How becomingly does Philopolis exerciſe his office, and ſeaſonably commit the opponent with the *reſpondent*? *More.*—The *reſpondent* may eaſily ſhew, that though wine may do all this, yet it may be finally hurtful to the ſoul and body of man. *Watts.*

(2.) RESPONDENT, in the ſchools. See § 1. *def.* 2.

RESPONDENTIA. See BOTTOMRY.

* RESPONSE. *n. ſ.* [*reſponſum*, Lat.] 1. An anſwer; commonly an oraculous anſwer.—Mere natural piety has taught men to receive the *reſponſes* of the gods with all poſſible veneration. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—The oracles, which had before flouriſhed, began to droop, and from giving *reſponſes* in verſe, deſcended to proſe, and within a while were utterly ſilenced. *Hammond.* 2. [*Reſpons*, Fr.] Anſwer made by the congregation, ſpeaking alternately with the prieſt in publick worſhip.—To make his pariſhioners kneel and join in the *reſponſes*, he gave every one of them a haſſock and common prayer book. *Spectator.* 3. Reply to an objection in a formal diſputation.—Let the reſpondent not turn opponent; except in retorting the argument upon his adverſary after a direct *reſponſe*; and even this is allowed only as a confirmation of his own *reſponſe*. *Watts.*

* RESPONSIBLE. *adj.* [from *reſponſus*, Lat.] 1. Anſwerable; accountable.—Heathens, who have certainly the talent of natural knowledge, are *reſponſible* for it. *Hammond.*—All this while he has his account ſecure, and ſtands not *reſponſible* for the truth of his relations. *Gov. of the Tongue.* 2. Capable of diſcharging an obligation.—The bill, I receive from one man, will not be accepted as ſecurity by another, he not knowing that the bill is legal, or that the man bound is honeſt or *reſponſible*. *Locke.*

* RESPONSIBLENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *reſponſible.*] State or being obliged or qualified to anſwer.

* RESPONSION. *n. ſ.* [from *reſponſio*, Lat.] The act of anſwering.

* RESPONSIVE. *adj.* [*reſponſif*, Fr. from *reſponſum*, Lat.] 1. Anſwering; making anſwer.—A certain is a *reſponſive* letter. *Ayliffe.* 2. Correſpondent; ſuited to ſomething elſe.—

Sing of love and gay deſire,
Reſponſive to the warbling lyre. *Fenton.*

The vocal lay *reſponſive* to the ſtrings. *Pope.*

* RESPONSORY. *adj.* [*reſponſorius*, Lat.] Containing anſwer.

RESSAVA, a town of European Turkey, in Servia; 46 miles SE. of Belgrade.

RESSEL, or ROSSEL, a town of Pruſſia, in Ermeland, with a caſtle; 44 miles S. of Konigſberg.

RESSIUS, Rutger, a learned profeſſor of Greek at Louvain, of the 16th century. Eraſmus gives him a high character. He publiſhed many works, particularly a correct edition of Hippocrates's Aphoriſms. He died in 1545.

RESSONS, a town of France in the department of the Oiſe; 10 miles WSW. of Noyon.

RESSORT, *n. ſ.* a French word, ſometimes uſed by Engliſh authors to ſignify the juriſdiction of a court, and particularly one from which there is no appeal. Thus it is ſaid that the houſe of lords judge *en dernier reſſort*, or in the laſt reſſort.

RESSOURCE, *n. ſ.* a French word referred to by Dr Johnſon under RESOURCE, but omitted in its order. M. Prieur, in his Abridged edition of Boyer's Dict. explains it, "ſhift, remedy, help, refuge, after-game."

(1.) * REST. *n. ſ.* [*reſt*, Saxon; *ruſte*, Dutch.] 1. Sleep; repoſe.—

All things retir'd to *reſt*. *Milton.*
My teſt limbs are wearied into *reſt*. *Pope.*

2. The final ſleep; the quietneſs of death.—

David left him, when he went to *reſt*,
His lyre. *Dryden's Pa ſons.*

3. Stilneſs; ceſſation or abſence of motion.—Putrefaction aſketh *reſt*; for the ſubtle motion, which putrefaction requireth, is diſturbed by any agitation. *Bacon.*—

What cauſe mov'd the Creator, in his holy *reſt*,
So late to build? *Milton.*

—All things paſt are equally and perfectly at *reſt*. *Locke.*—4. Quiet; peace; ceſſation from diſturbance.—Learn of me, and ye ſhall find *reſt* unto your ſouls. *Matt.* xi. 29.—He giveth you *reſt* from all your enemies. *Deut.* xii. 10.—

'Scap'd from ſuch ſtorms of pow'r, holding it beſt
To be below herſelf to be at reſt. *Daniel.*
The root cut off from whence theſe tumults roſe,
He ſhould have *reſt*. *Daniel.*
Thus fenc'd, but not at *reſt*. *Milton.*
Shall a ſhort life enjoy a little *reſt*? *Fanſhaw.*
Never, never, can I hope for *reſt*. *Dryden.*

—It knew no *reſt* but in motion. *South.*—

Thither, where ſinners may have *reſt* I go. *Pope.*
The grave where ev'n the great find *reſt*. *Pope.*

5. Ceſſation from bodily labour.—There the weary be at *reſt*. *Job*, iii. 17.—The Chriſtian chuſeth for his day of *reſt* the firſt day of the week. *Nelſon.*
6. Support; that on which any thing leaps or reſts.

Forth prick'd Clhorinda from the throng
And 'gainſt Tancredie ſet her ſpear in *reſt*. *Fairf.*

—A man may think, that a muſket may be ſhot off as well upon the arm, as upon a *reſt*. *Bacon.*

Their vizors clos'd, their lances in the *reſt*,
Or at the helmet pointed, or the creſt. *Dryd.*

—Take the handle in your right hand, and claſping the blade of it in your left lean it ſteady upon the *reſt*, holding the edge a little aſlant over the work, ſo as a corner of the thin ſide of the chiſſel may bear upon the *reſt*, and the flat ſide of the chiſel may make a ſmall angle with the *reſt*. *Moxon.* 7. Place of repoſe.—

Suſtain'd by him with comforts, till we end
In duſt, our final *reſt* and native home. *Milton.*

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8. Final hope.—Such flights have been final to the war but this, where princes set up their *reſt* upon the battle. *Bacon.*—They resolved to set up their *reſt* upon the cause. *Clarendon.* 9. [*Reſte*, Lat. *reſter*, Fr.] Remainder; what remains.—Reaping more part of its reward in hand, the present comfort of having done our duty; and for the *reſt*, it offers us the best security that heaven can give. *Atterbury.*

The pow'r in glory shone,
By her bent bow and her keen arrows known
The *reſt* a huntress. *Dryden's Knight's Tale.*

(2.) * REST. *adj.* [*reſtus*, Fr. *quod reſtat*, Lat.] Others; those not included in any proposition.—Many themes may be learned concerning the *reſt* of the ministrants. *Ailiffe.*—The *reſt*, who had larger hearts and more publick rights, would extend their labour, activity, and advice only to secure the empire at home. *Clarendon.*—Plato, and the *reſt* of the philosophers, acknowledged the unity, power, wisdom, goodness and providence of the supreme God. *Stillingfleet.*—

Arm'd like the *reſt*, the Trojan prince appears,
And by his pious labour urges theirs. *Dryd.*

—No one had a fairer pretence of right than the *reſt*. *Wotton.*

(3.) REST is the continuance of a body in the same place, or its continual application or contiguity to the same parts of the ambient or contiguous bodies; and therefore is opposed to motion. See MOTION.

(4.) REST, in poetry, is a short pause of the voice in reading, being the time with the cæsura, which, in Alexandrine verses, falls on the sixth syllable; but, in verses of 10 or 11 syllables, falls on the fourth. See POETRY.

(1.) * *To* REST. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To sleep; to be asleep; to slumber.—

Every thing retires
Into her private cell, when nature *reſts*. *Milton.*

2. To sleep the final sleep; to die.—

Τὸν νεκρὸν
Κυφαται δ' ἀκλαυτὸν μὴ λαχὸν τὸν κρυπτόν.

Glad I'd lay me down,
As in my mother's lap; there I should *reſt*,
And sleep secure. *Milton.*

3. To be at quiet; to be at peace; to be without disturbance.—

Thither let us tend
From off the tossing of these fiery waves,
There *reſt*, if any rest can harbour there. *Milt.*

4. To be without motion; to be still.—

Over the tent a cloud shall *reſt* by day. *Milt.*

5. To be fixed in any state or opinion.—He will not *reſt* content. *Prov.* vi. 35.—Every creature should *reſt* well satisfied with its proportion. *L'Estrange.*—

After such a lord I *reſt* secure. *Dryden.*
I *reſt* assur'd to see you pale with fear. *Dryd.*

6. To cease from labour.—On the seventh day thou shalt *reſt*. *Exod.* xxiii. 12.—The ark went before, to search out a *reſting* place for them. *Numb.* x. 33.—

Reſting, he bless'd the seventh day. *Milton.*—When you enter into the regions of death, you *reſt* from all your labours and your fears. *Taylor.*

7. To be satisfied; to acquiesce.—

Not to *reſt* in heaven's determination. *Addiſ.*

8. To lean; to recline for support or quiet.—

On him I *reſted*. *Dryden.*

—Sometimes it *reſts* upon testimony. *Locke.*—The philosophical use of words conveys the precise notions of things, which the mind may *reſt* upon. *Locke.* 9. [*Reſter*, Lat. *reſter*, Fr.] To be left; to remain.—

What *reſts*, but that the mortal sentence pass
On his transgression? *Milton.*

—There *reſts* the comparative. *Bacon.*

(2.) * *To* REST. *v. a.* 1. To lay to rest.—

Your piety has paid
All needful rites, to *reſt* my wand'ring shade.
Dryden.

2. To place as on a support.—

England now doth, with like toil opprest,
Her weary head upon your bosom *reſt*. *Waller.*

—The protestants having well studied the fathers, were now willing to *reſt* their cause, not upon scripture only, but rather too; so far at least as the three first centuries. *Wheatland.*—

Here *reſts* his head upon the lap of earth.
Gray.

* RESTAGNANT. *adj.* [*reſtagnans*, Latin.] Remaining without flow or motion.—Upon the tops of high mountains, the air which bears against the *reſtagnant* quicksilver, is less pressed by the less ponderous incumbent air. *Boyle.*

* *To* RESTAGNATE. *v. n.* [*re* and *stagnate*.] To stand without flow.—The blood returns thick, and is apt to *reſtagnate*. *Wiseman.*

* RESTAGNATION. *n. s.* [from *reſtagnate*.] The state of standing without flow, course, or motion.

RESTALRIG, a village, ancient barony, and parish of Scotland, in Mid Lothian, about a mile E. of Edinburgh. The parish is now united to that of SOUTH LEITH. The only remains of the old church are a beautiful Gothic window, and part of the N. wall. In the churchyard is a spacious vault, the family burying-place of Stuart Earl of Moray.

(1.) * RESTAURATION. *n. s.* [*reſtauratio*, Lat.] The act of recovering to the former state.—Adam is not an original cause of that corruption of nature which causeth death; Christ is the cause original of *reſtauration* to life. *Hooker.*—

O my dear father! *reſtauration* hang
Thy medicine on my lips. *Shak.*

—Spermatic parts will not admit a regeneration much less will they receive so high a *reſtauration*. *Brown.*

(2.) RESTAURATION, is better defined the act of reſtablishing or setting a thing or person in its former good state.

* *To* RESTEM. *v. a.* [*re* and *stem*.] To force back against the current.—

How they *reſtem*
Their boist'rous course. *Shak. Othello.*

RESTENET, or LOCH RESTENET, a lake of Scotland, in Angus-shire, in the parish of Forfar belonging to George Dempster, Esq. of Dunnichen; who caused it to be drained a few years ago for the sake of an almost inexhaustible quantity of marl in its bottom. On its brink are the remains of a church and priory which were dependent on the monastery of Arbroath; whose valuable possessions

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pers and effects were lodged in it, as a place of security from the depredations of the English borderers.

* RESTFUL. *adj.* [*reſt* and *full.*] Quiet; being at reſt.—

Is not my arm of length,
That reacheth from the *reſtful* Engliſh court,
As far as Calais to my uncle's head? *Rich.* III.

(1.) * REST-HARROW. *n. ſ.* A plant.

(2.) REST-HARROW, or CAMMOCK. See ONONIS. A decoction of this plant has been much recommended to horſes labouring under a ſtoppage of urine. It is the peſt of ſome corn fields; but in its younger ſtate, before the plant has acquired its thorns, it is a moſt acceptable food to ſheep.

* RESTIFF. *adj.* [*reſtif*, Fr. *reſtivo*, Ital.] 1. Unwilling to ſtir; reſolute againſt going forward; obſtinate; ſtubborn. It is originally uſed of an horſe, that, though not wearied, will not be driven forward.—

Ill, who before him did aſcend the throne,
Labour'd to draw three *reſtive* nations on. *Roſc.*

—This *reſtiff* ſtubbornneſs is never to be excuſed. *L'Eſtrange.*—

Some, with ſtudious care,
Their *reſtiff* ſteeds in ſandy plains prepare. *Dryd.*

—The archangel, when diſcord was *reſtive*, and would not be drawn from her beloved monaſtery with fair words, drags her out with many ſtripes. *Dryden.*—

So James the drowſy genius wakes
Of Britain, long entranc'd in charms,
Reſtif, and ſlumb'ring on its arms. *Dryden.*

Impatient of the laſh, and *reſtiff* to the rein. *Dryden.*

2. Being at reſt; being leſs in motion. Not uſed.—Piſces oftener happen upon the left ſide; the moſt vigorous part protecting itſelf, and protruding the matter upon the weaker and *reſtive* ſide. *Brown.*

* RESTIFNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *reſtiff.*] Obſtinate reluctance.—Secret virtues bring forth fortune: certain deliveries of a man's ſelf, which the Spaniſh name deſemboltura, partly expreſſeth, where there be not ſtands nor *reſtiveneſs* in a man's nature; but the wheels of his mind keep way with the wheels of his fortune. *Bacon.*—It gave occaſion to ſome men's further *reſtiveneſs*. *King Charles.*

RESTINCLIERES, a town of France, in the dep. of Herault: 44 miles NW. of Lune, and 9 NE. of Montpelier.

* RESTINCTION. *n. ſ.* [*reſtinctus*, Lat.] The act of extinguiſhing.

RESTIO, in botany; a genus of the triandria order, belonging to the dioecia claſs of plants. The male calyx is an ovate ſpike of membranaceous ſcales; the corolla is proper, hexapetalous, and perſiſtent. The female calyx and corolla are as in the male; the germen is roundiſh, and ſex-fulcated; there are three erect and perſiſtent ſtyles; the capſule is roundiſh, with ſix plaits, and is roſtrated and trilocular; the ſeeds are oblong and cylindrical.

RESTITUTED, *part. adj.* Reſtored.

(1.) * RESTITUTION. *n. ſ.* [*reſtitutio*, Lat.] 1. The act of reſtoring what is loſt or taken away.—To ſubdue an uſurper, ſhould be no unjuſt enterpriſe or wrongful war, but a *reſtitution* of ancient rights unto the crown of England. *Spenſer.*—

He would pawn his fortunes
To hopeleſs *reſtitution*. *Shak. Coriolanus.*

He *reſtitution* to the value makes. *Sandys.*

—Whoſoever is an effective real cauſe of doing a neighbour wrong, is bound to make *reſtitution*. *Taylor.*—In caſe our offence againſt God hath been complicated with injury to men, it is but reaſonable we ſhould make *reſtitution*. *Tillotſon.*—A great man, who has never been known willingly to pay a juſt debt, ought not all of a ſudden to be introduced, making *reſtitution* of thouſands. *Arbuthnot.*

2. The act of recovering its former ſtate or poſture.—In the woody parts of plants, the principles are ſo compounded, as to make them flexible without joints, and alſo elaſtick; that ſo their roots may yield to ſtones, and their trunks to the wind, with a power of *reſtitution*. *Grew.*

(2.) RESTITUTION OF MEDALS, or RESTITUTED MEDALS, or rather COINS, is a term uſed by antiquaries for ſuch coins and medals as were ſtruck by the emperors, to retrieve the memory of their predeceſſors. Hence, in ſeveral medals, we find the letters REST. This practice was firſt begun by Claudius, by his ſtriking afreſh ſeveral medals of Auguſtus. Nero did the ſame; and Titus, after his father's example, ſtruck reſtitutions of moſt of his predeceſſors. Gallienus ſtruck a general reſtitution of all the preceding emperors on two medals; the one bearing an altar, the other an eagle, without the reſt.

RESTIVE, *adj.* in the manege. See RESTIFF.

* RESTLESS. *adj.* [from *reſt.*] 1. Being without ſleep.—

Reſtleſs he paſs'd the remnant of the night. *Dryden.*

2. Unquiet; without peace.—

Eaſe to the body ſome, none to the mind
From *reſtleſs* thoughts. *Milton.*

Could we not wake from that lethargick dream,
But to be *reſtleſs* in a worſe extreme? *Denh.*

—We find our ſouls diſordered and *reſtleſs*, toſſed and diſquieted by paſſions. *Atterbury.*—

What tongue can ſpeak the *reſtleſs* monarch's woes. *Prior.*

3. Unconſtant; unſettled.—

Bold was his heart, and *reſtleſs* was his ſpright. *Fairfax.*

Reſtleſs at home, and ever prone to range. *Dryd.*

4. Not ſtill; in continual motion.—

Such *reſtleſs* revolution, day by day
Repeated. *Milton.*

* RESTLESSLY. *adv.* [from *reſtleſs.*] Without reſt; unquietly.—The mind caſts and turns itſelf *reſtleſsly* from one thing to another. *South.*

* RESTLESSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *reſtleſs.*] 1. Want of ſleep.—*Reſtleſſneſs* and intermiſſion from ſleep, grieved perſons are moleſted with. *Harvey.*

2. Want of reſt; unquietneſs.—

Let him keep the reſt,
But keep them with repining *reſtleſſneſs*! *Herbert.*

Reſtleſſneſs was miſtreſs of my mind. *Harte.*

3. Motion; agitation.—The trembling *reſtleſſneſs* of the needle, in any but the north point of the compaſs, manifeſts its inclination to the pole. *Boyle.*

* RESTORABLE. *adj.* [from *reſtore.*] What may be reſtored.—By cutting turf without any regularity, great quantities of *reſtorable* land are made utterly deſperate, *Swift.*

(1.) * RE-

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(1.) * RESTORATION. *n. f.* [from *reſtore*; *reſtauration*, Fr.] 1. The act of replacing in a former ſtate. This is properly *reſtauration*.—

Behold the different climes agree,
Rejoicing in thy *reſtoration*. *Dryden's Albion.*

—The Athenians repent of their raſhneſs, and endeavour in vain for his *reſtoration*. *Swift.* 2. Recovery.—The change is great in this *reſtoration* of the man, from ſpiritual darkneſs to divine truth. *Rogers.*

(2.) RESTORATION is the ſame with reſtauration. See RESTAURATION. In England the return of king Charles II. in 1660, is, by way of eminence, called the *Reſtoration*; and the 29th of May is kept as an anniverſary feſtival, in commemoration of that event, by which the regal and epiſcopal government was reſtored. See ENGLAND, § 54, 55.

(1.) * RESTORATIVE. *adj.* [from *reſtore*.] That which has the power to recruit life.—

Sweet *reſtoratives* delight. *Milton.*

(2.) * RESTORATIVE. *n. ſ.* [from *reſtore*.] A medicine that has the power of recruiting life.—

I will kiſs thy lips;
Haply ſome poiſon yet doth hang on them,
To make me die with a *reſtorative*. *Shak.*

—To make the weakneſs of the fleſh, the phyſick and *reſtorative* of the ſpirit. *South.*—Aſſes milk is an excellent *reſtorative* in conſumptions. *Mortimer.*—He preſcribes an Engliſh gallon of aſſes milk, eſpecially as a *reſtorative*. *Arbuthnot.*

(3.) RESTORATIVE, in medicine, is a remedy proper for reſtoring and retrieving the ſtrength and vigour both of the body and animal ſpirits. All under this claſs, ſays Quincy, are rather nutrimental than medicinal; and are more adminiſtered to repair the waſtes of the conſtitution, than to alter and rectify its diſorders.

* *To* RESTORE. *v. a.* [*reſtaurer*, Fr. *reſtauro*, Lat.] 1. To give back what has been loſt or taken away.—*Reſtore* the man his wife. *Gen.* xx. 7.—He ſhall *reſtore* in the principal. *Lev.* vi. 5.—

She lands him on his native ſhores,
And to his father's longing arms *reſtores*. *Dryd.*

2. To bring back.—

The father baniſh'd virtue ſhall *reſtore*. *Dryd.*
Thus pencils can, by one ſlight touch, *reſtore*
Smiles to that changed face, that wept. *Dryd.*

3. To retrieve; to bring back from degeneration, declenſion or ruin, to its former ſtate.—

Loſs of Eden, till one greater man
Reſtore it, and regain the bliſsful ſeat. *Milton.*
Th' archangel paus'd
Between the world deſtroy'd and world *reſtor'd*. *Milton.*

—Theſe artificial experiments are but ſo many eſſays, whereby men attempt to *reſtore* themſelves from the firſt general curſe. *Wilkins.*—The hardeſt difficulties may be overcome by labour, and our fortune *reſtored* after the ſevereſt afflictions. *Prior.* 4. To cure; to recover from diſeaſe.—

Garth, faſter than a plague deſtroys, *reſtores*. *Granville.*

5. To recover paſſages in books from corruption.

* RESTORER. *n. ſ.* [from *reſtore*.] One that reſtores; one that recovers the loſt; or repairs the decayed.—

Deſtin'd *reſtorer* of mankind, by whom
New heav'n and earth ſhall to the ages riſe. *Milt.*

I foretel you, as the *reſtorer* of poetry. *Dryd.*—Here are ten thouſand perſons reduced to the neceſſity of a low diet and moderate exerciſe, who are the only great *reſtorers* of our breed, without which, the nation would in an age become one great hoſpital. *Swift.*

RESTOW, a town of Auſtrian Poland, in Galicia, and ci-devant palatinate of Lemberg: 72 miles W. of Lemberg.

* RESTRAIN. *v. a.* [*reſtreinder*, Fr. *reſtringo*, Lat.] 1. To withhold; to keep in.—

If the *reſtrain'd* the riots of your followers,
'Tis to ſuch wholeſome end as clears her. *Shak.*
Thou *reſtrain'ſt* from the duty, which
To a mother's part belongs. *Shak. Coriol.*

2. To repreſs; to keep in awe.—To execute that law, and thereby preſerve the innocent and *reſtrain* offenders. *Locke.*—That all men may be *reſtrained* from doing hurt to one another the execution of the law of nature is in that ſtate put into every man's hand. *Locke.* 3. To ſuppreſs; to hinder; to repreſs.—

Reſtrain in me the curſed thoughts, that nature
Gives way to in repoſe. *Shak. Macbeth.*
Compaſſion gave him up to tears
A ſpace, till firmer thoughts *reſtrain'd* exceſs. *Shak.*

4. To abridge.—

Me of my lawful pleaſure ſhe *reſtrain'd*. *Shak.*—They two were committed, at leaſt *reſtrained* of their liberty. *Clarendon.* 5 To pull tight.—A headſtall of ſheep's leather, which being *reſtrained* to keep him from ſtumbling, hath been often burſt. *Shak.* 6. To limit; to confine.—We *reſtrain* it to thoſe only duties, which concern all men. *Hooker.*—Upon what ground can a man promiſe himſelf a future repentance, who cannot promiſe himſelf a futurity; whoſe life depends upon his breath, and is ſo *reſtrained* to the preſent, that it cannot ſecure for itſelf the reverſion of the very next minute? *South.*—Not only a metaphyſical or natural, but a moral univerſality alſo is to be *reſtrained* by a part of the predicate: as all the Italians are politicians. *Watts's Logick.*

* RESTRAINABLE. *adj.* [from *reſtrain*.] Capable to be reſtrained.—Therein we muſt not deny a liberty; nor is the hand of the painter more *reſtrainable*, than the pen of the poet. *Brown.*

* RESTRAINEDLY. *adv.* [from *reſtrained*.] With reſtraint; without latitude.—World is a word of the wideſt extent, and although it be ſometimes uſed more *reſtrainedly*, yet never doth ſignify a far ſmaller diſproportionable part of the world. *Hammond.*

* RESTRAINER. *n. ſ.* [from *reſtrain*.] One that reſtrains; one that withholds.—If nothing can relieve us, we muſt with patience ſubmit unto that reſtraint, and expect the will of the *reſtrainer*. *Brown.*

* RESTRAINT. *n. ſ.* [from *reſtrain*; *reſtreint*, Fr.] 1. Abridgement of liberty.—

About evening come yourſelf alone,
To know the reaſon of this ſtrange *reſtraint*. *Shak.*
Th' enfranchiſement of Arthur, whoſe *reſtraint*
Doth move the murm'ring lips of diſcontent. *Sha.*

—It is to no purpoſe to lay *reſtraints* or give privileges to men, in general terms. *Locke.*—I think it a great *reſtraint* upon us. *Felton.* 2. Prohibition.

What

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What mov'd our parents to tranſgreſs his will
For one *reſtraint?* *Milton.*

3. Limitation; reſtriction.—It muſt be maintained within any bold *reſtraints*, far otherwiſe than it is received. *Brown.* 4. Repreſſion; hindrance of will; act of withholding; ſtate of being withheld.—There is no *reſtraint* to the Lord to ſave. 1 *Sam.* xiv. 6.—

Reſtraint ſhe will not brook. *Milton.*

—Is there any thing, which reflects a greater luſtre upon a man, than a ſevere *reſtraint* of himſelf from vicious pleaſures? *South.*

* *To* RESTRICT. *v. a.* [*reſtrictus*, Lat.] To limit: to confine. A word ſcarce Engliſh.—In the enumeration of conſtitutions in this chapter, there is not one that can be limited and *reſtricted* by ſuch a diſtinction. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) * RESTRICTION. *n. ſ.* [*reſtriction*, Fr.] Confinement; limitation.—This is to have the ſame *reſtriction* with all other recreations. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—Iron manufacture, of all others, requires the moſt *reſtriction* to certain places. *Temple.*—All duties are matter of conſcience; with this *reſtriction*, that a ſuperior obligation ſuſpends the force of an inferior. *L'Eſtrange.*—

Each other gift, which God on man beſtows,
Its proper bounds and due *reſtriction* knows.
Prior.

—Celſus's rule, with the proper *reſtrictions*, is good for people in health. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) RESTRICTION, among logicians, is limiting a term, ſo as to make it ſignify leſs than it uſually does.

* RESTRICTIVE. *adj.* [from *reſtrict.*] 1. Expreſſing limitation.—They, who would make the *reſtrictive* particle belong to the latter clauſe, and not to the firſt, do not attend to the reaſon. *Stillingfleet.* 2. [*Reſtrictif*, Fr.] Styptick; aſtringent.—I applied a plaiſter over it, made up with my common *reſtrictive* powder. *Wiſeman.*

* RESTRICTIVELY. *adv.* [from *reſtrictive.*] With limitation.—All ſpeech, tending to the glory of God or the good of man, is aright directed; which is not to be underſtood ſo *reſtrictively*, as if nothing but divinity may lawfully be brought into diſcourſe. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

* *To* RESTRINGE. *v. a.* [*reſtringo*, Lat.] To confine; to contract; to aſtringe.

(1.) * RESTRINGENT. *n. ſ.* [*reſtringens*, Lat. *reſtringent*, Fr.] That which hath the power of contracting; ſtyptick.—The two latter indicate phlebotomy for revulſion, *reſtringents* to ſtanch, and incraſſatives to thicken the blood. *Harvey.*

(2.) RESTRINGENT, in medicine, is the ſame with aſtringent. See ASTRINGENTS.

* RESTY. *adj.* [*reſtiff*, Fr.] Obſtinate in ſtanding ſtill. See RESTIFF.—

Reſty ſloth
Finds the down pillow hard. *Shak.*

—Have not other hands been tried and found *reſty? Davenant.*—Men of diſcretion find them neither *reſty* nor vicious. *Swift.*

* *To* RESUBLIME. *v. a.* [*re* and *ſublime.*] To ſublime another time.—When mercury ſublimate is *reſublimed* with freſh mercury, it becomes mercurius dulcis, which is a white taſteleſs earth ſcarce diſſolvable in water, and mercurius dulcis *reſublimed* with ſpirit of ſalt returns into mercury ſublimate. *Newton.*

(1.) * RESULT. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Reſilience; act of flying back.—Sound is produced between the ſtring and the air, by the return or the *reſult* of the ſtring. *Bacon.* 2. Conſequence; effect produced by the concurrence of co-operating cauſes.—Did my judgment tell me, that the propoſitions ſent to me, were the *reſults* of the major part of their votes, I ſhould then not ſuſpect my own judgment. *King Charles.*—

Nor this part muſk or civet can we call,
Or amber, but a rich *reſult* of all. *Dryden.*

—Buying of land is the *reſult* of a full and ſatiated gain. *Locke.* 3. Inference from premiſes.—

—Theſe things are a *reſult* or judgment upon fact. *South.* 4. Reſolve; deciſion. Improper.—Rude, paſſionate, and miſtaken *reſults* have, at certain times, fallen from great aſſemblies. *Swift.*

(2.) RESULT is alſo uſed for what is gathered from a conference, inquiry, meditation, or the like; or the concluſion and effect of a ſet of philoſophical experiments.

* *To* RESULT. *v. n.* [*reſulter*, Fr. *reſulto*, Lat.] 1. To fly back.—

The huge round ſtone, *reſulting* with a bound,
Thunders impetuous down, and ſmoaks along the ground. *Pope.*

2. [*Reſulter*, Fr.] To riſe as a conſequence; to be produced as the effect of cauſes jointly concurring.—Rue proſpers much, if ſet by a fig tree; which is cauſed, not by reaſon of friendſhip, but by extraction of a contrary juice; the one drawing juice fit to *reſult* ſweet, the other bitter. *Bacon.*—

Such huge extremes, when nature doth unite,
Wonder from thence *reſults*, from thence delight. *Denham.*

—Upon the diſſolution of the firſt earth, this very face of things would immediately *reſult*. *Burnet.*—Pleaſure and peace do naturally *reſult* from a holy and good life. *Tillotſon.*—The horror of an object may overbear the pleaſure *reſulting* from its greatneſs. *Addiſon.*—Their effects are often very diſproportionable to the principles and parts that *reſult* from the analyſis. *Baker.* 3. To ariſe as a concluſion from premiſes.

* RESULTANCE. *n. ſ.* [*reſultance*, Fr.] The act of reſulting.

* RESUMABLE. *adj.* [from *reſume.*] What may be taken back.—This was but an indulgence, and therefore *reſumable* by the victor. *Hale.*

* *To* RESUME. *v. a.* [*reſumo*, Latin.] 1. To take back what has been given.—

The ſun, like this, from which our ſight we have,
Gaz'd on too long, *reſumes* the light he gave.
Denham.

Sees not my love, how time *reſumes*
The glory which he lent theſe flow'rs? *Waller.*

2. To take back what has been taken away.—

That opportunity,
Which then they had to take from's, to *reſume*
We have again. *Shak.*

—They *reſume* what has been obtained fraudulently. *Davenant.* 3. To take again.—

He'll enter into glory and *reſume* his ſeat. *Milt.*

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Reaſon

Reaſon *reſum'd* her place, and paſſion fled. *Dryden.*

4. *Dryden* uſes it with *again*, but improperly, unleſs the reſumption be repeated.—

To him our common grandſire of the main
Had giv'n to change his form, and chang'd, *reſume again.* *Dryden.*

5. To begin again what was broken off; as, *to reſume a diſcourſe.*

* RESUMPTION. *n. ſ.* [*reſomption*, Fr. *reſumptus*, Lat.] The act of reſuming.—If there be any fault, it is the *reſumption* or the dwelling too long upon his arguments. *Denham.*—The univerſal voice of the people ſeeming to call for ſome kind of *reſumption*, the writer of theſe papers thought it might not be unſeaſonable to publiſh a diſcourſe upon grants. *Davenant.*

* RESUMPTIVE. *adj.* [*reſumptus*, Lat.] Taking back.

* RESUPINATION. *n. ſ.* [*reſupino*, Latin.] The act of lying on the back.

(1.) * RESURRECTION. *n. ſ.* [*reſurrection*, Fr. *reſurrectum*, Lat.] Revival from the dead; return from the grave.—The Sadducees were grieved, that they taught, and preached through Jeſus the *reſurrection* from the dead. *Acts*, iv. 2.—

Nor after *reſurrection* ſhall he ſtay
Longer on earth, than certain times t' appear
To his diſciples. *Milton.*

—The ſoul leaves the body with an expectation of being remitted to her in a glorious and joyful *reſurrection*. *Addiſon.*—Perhaps there was nothing ever done in all paſt ages, and which was not a publick fact, ſo well atteſted as the *reſurrection* of Chriſt. *Watts.*

(2.) RESURRECTION, in theology, is that event, the belief of which conſtitutes one of the principal articles in the Chriſtian creed: and of which the wiſeſt of the heathen philoſophers had not the moſt diſtant conception. Among the Jews, the belief of a future and ſeparate exiſtence for a long time was deemed no eſſential article of their creed; but from different paſſages in Iſaiah, Daniel, Ezekiel, and Job, many inferred the reality of a general reſurrection. This reſurrection appears to have been a general opinion among the Phariſees; for although the Sadducees believed that there was no reſurrection, neither angel nor ſpirit, yet the Phariſees confeſſed both. This reſurrection of the dead to judgment, is now generally, and almoſt univerſally, maintained by Chriſtians. Numberleſs fanciful conjectures have been made reſpecting the *manner* in which the reſurrection is to be accompliſhed; the *identity* of the *matter* of the bodies raiſed, with that of thoſe which died; the *place* and *ſtate* of the *ſouls* during their ſeparation from the body, &c.; but as no deciſive opinion can be formed on theſe ſubjects, we think it totally unneceſſary to take up room with mere unſupported hypotheſes.

* *To* RESURVEY. *v. a.* [*re* and *ſurvey*.] To review; to ſurvey again.—

Appoint ſome of your counſel preſently
To ſit with us, once more with better heed
To *reſurvey* them. *Shak.*

* *To* RESUSCITATE. *v. a.* [*reſuſcito*, Latin.] To ſtir up anew; to revive.—We have beaſts and birds for diſſections, though divers parts, which you account vital, be periſhed and taken forth, *reſuſcitating* of ſome that ſeem dead in appearance. *Bacon.*

(1.) * RESUSCITATION. *n. ſ.* [from *reſuſcitate*.] The act of ſtirring up anew; the act of reviving, or ſtate of being revived.—Your very obliging manner of enquiring after me, at your *reſuſcitation*, ſhould have been ſooner anſwered. *Pope.*

(2.) RESUSCITATION, the ſame with reſurrection and revivification. See REANIMATION, and RESURRECTION.

(3.) RESUSCITATION is particularly uſed by chemiſts for the reproducing a mixed body from its aſhes; an art to which many have pretended, as to reproduce plants, &c. from their aſhes.

(1.) * RETAIL. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] Sale by ſmall quantities, or at ſecond hand.—The author, to prevent ſuch a monopoly of ſenſe, is reſolved to deal in it himſelf by *retail*. *Addiſon.*—

We force a wretched trade by beating down
the ſale,
And ſelling baſely by *retail*. *Swift.*

(2.) RETAIL, in commerce. See TRADE.

* *To* RETAIL. *v. a.* [*retailler*, Fr.] 1. To ſell in ſmall quantities; in conſequence of ſelling at ſecond hand.—Thoſe who make, ſhould alſo vend and *retail* their commodities. *Locke.* 2. To ſell at ſecond hand.—

The ſage dame,
By names of toaſts, *retails* each batter'd jade. *Pope.*

3. To tell in broken parts, or at ſecond hand.—

He is furniſh'd with no certainties,
More than he haply may *retail* from me. *Shak.*
Bound with triumphant garlands will I come,
And lead thy daughter to a conqu'ror's bed;
To whom I will *retail* my conqueſt won,
And ſhe ſhall be ſole victreſs, Cæſar's Cæſar. *Shak.*

* RETAILER. *n. ſ.* [from *retail*.] One who ſells by ſmall quantities.—From theſe particular we may gueſs at the reſt, as *retailers* do of the whole piece, by taking a view of its ends. *Hakewill.*

(1.) * *To* RETAIN. *v. a.* [*retineo*, Lat. *retiner*, Fr.] 1. To keep; not to loſe.—

Where is the patience now,
That you ſo oft have boaſted to *retain*? *Shak.*
Th' immortal part its knowledge did *retain*. *Denham.*
That my wonted proweſs I *retain*,
Witneſs theſe heaps of ſlaughter. *Dryden.*
The place your armour and your name *retains*. *Dryden.*

—Whatever ideas the mind can receive and contemplate without the help of the body, it is reſonable to conclude, it can *retain* without the help of the body too. *Locke.* 2. To keep; not to lay aſide.—

Let me *retain*
The name and all the addition to a king. *Shak.*

—They did not like to *retain* God in their knowledge. *Rom.* i. 22.—

Be obedient and *retain*
Unalterably firm his love entire. *Milton.*

—Although they *retain* the word mandrake in the text, yet they retract it in the margin. *Brown.*

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The

They, who have reſtored painting in Germany, have *retained* much of that barbarous method. *Dryden.* 3. To keep; not to diſmiſs.—Receive him that is mine own bowels; whom I would have *retained* with me. *Philem.* 13.—

Hollow rocks *retain*
The ſound of bluſt'ring winds. *Milton.*

4. To keep in pay; to hire.—A Benedictine convent has now *retained* the moſt learned father of their order to write in its defence. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * *To* RETAIN. *v. n.* 1. To belong to; to depend on.—Theſe betray upon the tongue no heat nor corroſiveneſs, but coldneſs mixed with a ſomewhat languid reliſh *retaining* to bitterneſs. *Bacon.*—In animals many actions, though they wholly ſeem to *retain* to the body, depart upon diſſolution. *Brown.* 2. To keep; to continue. Not in uſe. Perhaps it ſhould be *remain.*—

No more can impure man *retain* and move
In the pure region of that worthy love. *Donne.*

(1.) * RETAINER. *n. ſ.* [from *retain.*] 1. An adherent; a dependant; a hanger-on.—

You now are mounted,
Where pow'rs are your *retainers.* *Shak.*

—One daring inclination of mankind affects to be a *retainer* to religion. *Swift.*—A combination of honeſt men would endeavour to extirpate all the profligate immoral *retainers* to each ſide. *Addiſon.* 2. In common law, *retainer* ſignifieth a ſervant not menial nor familiar, that is not dwelling in his houſe; but only uſing or bearing his name or livery. *Cowel.* 3. The act of keeping dependants, or being in dependance.—The king's officers and farmers were to forfeit their places and holds, in caſe of unlawful *retainer.* *Bacon.*

(2.) *A* RETAINER, in law, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) is a ſervant, who only attends upon ſpecial occaſions.

RETAINING FEE, the firſt fee given to a ſerjeant or counſellor at law, in order to make him ſure, and prevent his pleading on the contrary ſide.

* *To* RETAKE *v. a.* [*re* and *take.*] To take again.—A day ſhould be appointed, when the remonſtrance ſhould be *retaken* into conſideration. *Clarendon.*

* *To* RETALIATE. *v a.* [*re* and *talio*, Lat.] To return by giving like for like; to repay; to requite: it may be uſed of good or evil.—It is very unlucky, to be obliged to *retaliate* the injuries of authors, whoſe works are ſo ſoon forgotten. *Swift.*—If a miniſter of ſtate had uſed me as you have done, *retaliating* would be thought a mark of courage. *Swift.*

* RETALIATION. *n. ſ.* [from *retaliate.*] Reſentful return of like for like.—They thought it no irreligion to proſecute the ſevereſt *retaliation* or revenge. *South.*—God graciouſly takes what is done to others as done to himſelf, and by promiſe engages himſelf to full *retaliation.* *Calamy.*

(1.) * *To* RETARD. *v. a.* [*retardo*, Latin; *retarder*, Fr.] 1. To hinder; to obſtruct in ſwiftneſs of courſe.—

The one *retarded* was
By feeble age, the other by a wound. *Denham.*

2. To delay; to put off.—

Nor king nor nations
One moment can *retard* th' appointed hour.
Dryden.

—It is as natural to delay a letter at ſuch a ſeaſon, as to *retard* a melancholy viſit to a perſon one cannot relieve. *Pope.*

(2.) * *To* RETARD. *v. n.* To ſtay back.—Some years it hath alſo *retarded.* *Brown.*

(1.) * RETARDATION. *n. ſ.* [*retardation*, Fr. from *retard.*] Hinderance; the act of delaying.—Out of this a man may deviſe the *retardation* of hoary hairs. *Bacon.*

(2.) RETARDATION, in phyſics, the act of diminiſhing the velocity of a moving body. See GUNNERY, MECHANICS, PNEUMATICS, and PROJECTILES.

* RETARDER. *n. ſ.* [from *retard.*] Hinderer; obſtructer.—This diſputing way of enquiry is ſo far from advancing ſcience, that it is no inconſiderable *retarder.* *Glanville.*

* *To* RETCH. *v. n.* [*hræcan*, Saxon:] To force up ſomething from the ſtomach. It is commonly written *Reach.*

RETCHANI, a town of Ruſſia, in the province of Pſkov; 16 miles S. of Tropez.

* RETCHLESS. *adj.* [ſometimes written *wretcheleſs*, properly *recheleſs.* See RECKLESS] Careleſs.—

Retcheleſs of laws, affects to rule alone. *Dryd.*

RETCHNA, a province of Hindooſtan, between Chunaub, and the river Rauvee.

RETE, [Lat.] a net, in anatomy, gives name to ſeveral parts from their reſemblance to network: as,

1. RETE MIRABILE, a ſmall plexus or net-work of veſſels in the brain, ſurrounding the pituitary gland.

2. RETE MUCOSUM. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

* RETECTION. *n. ſ.* [*retectus*, Lat.] The act of diſcovering to the view. This is rather a reſtoration of a body to its own colour, or a *retection* of its native colour, than a change. *Boyle.*

RETEH, a diſtrict of Africa, in Seidmeſſi.

(1.) * RETENTION. *n. ſ.* [*retention*, Fr. *retentio*, from *retentus*, Lat.] 1. The act of retaining; the power of retaining.—

No woman's heart
So big to hold ſo much; they lack *retention.*
Shak.

—A froward *retention* of cuſtom, is as turbulent a thing, as an innovation. *Bacon.* 2. *Retention* and retentive faculty is that ſtate of contraction in the ſolid parts, which makes them hold faſt their proper contents. *Quincy.* 3. Memory.—The backward learner makes amends another way, expiating his want of docility with a deeper and more rooted *retention.* *South.*—*Retention* is the keeping of thoſe ſimple ideas, which from ſenſation or reflection the mind hath received. *Locke.* 4. The act of withholding any thing.—

His life I gave him, and did thereto add
My love without retention or reſtraint. *Shak.*

5. Cuſtody; confinement; reſtraint.—

I ſent the old and miſerable king,
To ſome *retention* and appointed guard. *Shak.*

(2.) RETENTION, (§ 1. *def.* 3.) See METAPHYSICS, *Sect* VII.

(3.) RETENTION, in medicine, &c. (§ 1, *def.* 2.) is oppoſed to EVACUATION and EXCRETION.

* RETENTIVE. *adj.* [*retentus*, Lat. *retentif*, Fr.] 1. Having the power of retention.—It keeps

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eth ſermons in memory, and doth help the *retentive* force of that ſtomach of the mind. *Hooker.*—

Have I been ever free, and muſt my houſe
Be my *retentive* enemy, my gaol? *Shak.*

From *retentive* cage
When ſullen Philomel eſcapes, her notes
She varies. *Philips.*

Long Chancery-lane *retentive* rolls the ſound,
And courts to courts return it round and round. *Pope.*

2. Having memory.—To remember a ſong or tune, our ſouls muſt be an harmony continually running over in a ſilent whiſper thoſe muſical accents, which our *retentive* faculty is preſerver of. *Glanville.*

* RETENTIVENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *retentive.*] Having the quality of retention.

RETFORD, a borough of Nottinghamſhire, with a market on Sat. 30 miles N. of Nottingham, and 144 N. by W. of London. Lon. 0. 48. W. Lat. 53. 22. N.

RETHEL, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ardennes, and ci-devant province of Champagne: ſeated on a mountain, near the Aiſne; 20 miles NE. of Rheims, and 108 NE. of Paris. Lon. 4. 26. E. Lat. 49. 30. N.

RETHEM, a town of Germany, in Lunenburg Zell, on the Aller: 12 miles SW. of Verdun, and 32 W. of Zell. Lon. 26. 52. E. Ferro. Lat. 52. 51. N.

RETHIGEN. See REUTLINGEN.

RETHONDES, a town of France, in the dep. of the Oiſe; 4½ miles NE. of Compiegne.

RETHWISCHE, a town of Holſtein; 16 miles W. of Lubeck, and 25 NE. of Hamburg.

* RETICENCE. *n. ſ.* [*reticence*, Fr. *reticentia*, from *reticeo*, Lat.] Concealment by ſilence. *Dict.*

* RETICLE. *n. ſ.* [*reticulum*, Latin.] A ſmall net. *Dict.*

(1.)* RETICULAR. *adj.* [from *reticulum*, Lat.] Having the form of a ſmall net.

(2.) RETICULAR BODY, } in anatomy, a very
RETICULARE CORPUS, } fine membrane, perforated, in the manner of a net, with a multitude of foramina. It is placed immediately under the cuticle; and when that is ſeparated from the cutis, whether by art or accident, this adheres firmly to it, and is ſcarce poſſible to be parted from it, ſeeming rather to be its inner ſuperficies than a diſtinct ſubſtance. In regard to this, we are to obſerve, firſt, the places in which it is found, being all thoſe in which the ſenſe of feeling is moſt acute, as in the palms of the hands, the extremities of the fingers, and on the ſoles of the feet. The tongue, however, is the part where it is moſt accurately to be obſerved: it is more eaſily diſtinguiſhable there than anywhere elſe, and its nature and ſtructure are moſt evidently ſeen there. Its colour in the Europeans is white; but in the negroes and other black nations it is black; in the tawny it is yellowiſh: the ſkin itſelf in both is white; and the blackneſs and yellowneſs depend altogether on the colour of this membrane. The uſe of the corpus reticulare are to preſerve the ſtructure of the other parts of the integuments, and keep them in their determinate forms and ſituation. Its apertures give paſſage to the hairs and ſweat through the papillæ and excretory ducts of the ſkin: it retains theſe in a certain and determinate order, that they cannot be removed out of their places, and has ſome ſhare in preſerving the ſoftneſs of the papillæ, which renders them fit for the ſenſe of feeling. See ANATOMY, § 232.

* RETICULATED. *adj.* [*reticulatus*, Latin.] Made of network; formed with interſtitial vacuities.—The intervals of the cavities, riſing a little, make a pretty kind of *reticulated* work. *Woodw.*

RETICULUM, [Latin, *i. e.* a *little* or *caſting net.*] was applied by the Romans to a particular mode of conſtructing their buildings. In the city of Salino (ſee SALINO) are ſtill to be ſeen remains of ſome walls, evidently of Roman origin from the *reticulum*. This ſtructure conſiſts of ſmall pieces of baked earth cut lozengewiſe, and diſpoſed with great regularity on the angles, ſo as to exhibit to the eye the appearance of cut diamonds; and was called *retinda*, from its reſemblance to fiſhing nets. The Romans always concealed it under a regular coating of other matter; and Mr Houel informs us, that this was the only ſpecimen of it which he ſaw in all his travels through Sicily, Malta, and Lipari. It appears to be the remains of ſome baths, which have been built for the convenience of ſea-bathing.

RETIERS, a town of France, in the dept. of Ille and Vilaine; 6 miles WSW. of Guerche, and 17 SE. of Rennes.

* RETIFORM. *adj.* [*retiformis*, Lat.] Having the form of a net.—If any rays be by the *retiform* coat reflected, they are ſoon choaked in the black infide of the uvea. *Ray.*

RETIMO, the ancient RHITYMNIA of Stephen the geographer, called by Ptolemy RHITYMNA, a fine city, lying at one end of a rich and fertile plain, on the coaſt of the iſland of Candia. It contains about 6000 inhabitants; is a biſhop's ſee, and the harbour is defended by a citadel, where a baſhaw reſides. It was taken by the Turks in 1647, and has been in their hands ever ſince. The citadel, which ſtands on a rock jutting out into the ſea, would be ſufficient for the defence of the city, were it not ſituated at the foot of an high hill, from which it might be cannonaded with great advantage. The harbour is now almoſt filled with ſand, and is no longer acceſſible to ſhipping, through the indolence of the Turks. The French had formerly a vice-conſul at Retimo, to which ſhips repaired for cargoes of oil; but they have been long unable to get into the harbour. The plains around the city abound in a variety of productions. Great quantities of oil, cotton, ſaffron, and wax, are produced here; and they would be produced in ſtill greater quantities if the inhabitants could export their commodities. The gardens of Retimo bear the beſt fruits in the iſland; excellent pomegranates, almonds, piſtachio nuts, and oranges. The apricot-tree, bearing the michmich, the juice of which is ſo delicious, and its flavour ſo exquiſite, is found here. It is a kind of early peach, but ſmaller and more juicy than thoſe of France. Retimo is 45 miles from Candia. Lon. 24. 45. E. Lat. 35. 22. N.

(1.) RETINA, in anatomy, the expanſion of the optic nerves over the bottom of the eye, where the ſenſe of viſion is firſt received. See ANATOMY, and OPTICS, *Indexes.*

(2.) RE-

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(2.) RETINA, in ancient geography, a ſmall town of Italy, near Miſenum. *Plin.* vi. c. 16.

* RETINUE. *n. ſ.* [*retenue*, Fr.] A number attending upon a principal perſon; a train; a meiny.

Other of your inſolent *retinue*,
Do hourly carp and quarrel. *Shak.*

What followers, what *retinue* can'ſt thou gain?
Milton.

The long *retinue* of a proſperous reign. *Dryd.*—Neither pomp nor *retinue* ſhall be able to divert the great. *Rogers.*

RETIRADE, *n. ſ.* in fortification, a kind of retrenchment made in a body of a baſtion, or other work, which is to be diſputed, inch by inch, after the defences are diſmantled. It uſually conſiſts of two faces, which make a re-entering angle. When a breach is made in a baſtion, the enemy may alſo make a retirade or new fortification behind it.

* RETIRE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Retreat; receſſion. Not in uſe.—

I heard his praiſes in purſuit,
But ne'er, till now, his ſcandal of *retire*. *Shak.*

Thou haſt talk'd
Of ſallies and *retires*, of trenches. *Shak.*

—The battle and the *retire* of the Engliſh ſuccours were the cauſes of the loſs of that dutchy. *Bacon.* 2. Retirement; place of privicy. Not in uſe.—

Eve, who unſeen
Yet all had heard, with audible lament
Diſcover'd ſoon the place of her *retire*. *Milton.*

(1.)* *To* RETIRE. *v. n.* [*retirer*, Fr.] 1. To retreat; to withdraw; to go to a place of privacy.—

To herſelf ſhe gladly doth *retire*. *Davies.*—The more I will *retire* to God and my own heart. *King Charles.*—

Thou open'ſt wiſdom's way,
And gir'ſt acceſs, tho' ſecret ſhe *retire*. *Milton.*—The parliament diſſolved, and gentlemen charged to *retire* to their country habitations. *Hayw.*

What could he more but decently *retire*?
Swift.

2. To retreat from danger.—Set up the ſtandard towards Zion, *retire*, ſtay not. *Jer.*—

From each hand with ſpeed *retir'd*. *Milton.*

3. To go from a publick ſtation.—

You, my lord, the rural ſhades admire,
And from Britannia's public poſts *retire*. *Addiſ.*

4. To go off from company.—The old fellow ſhuffled out of the room, and *retired*. *Arbuthnot.*

5. To withdraw for ſafety.—He, that had driven many out of their country, periſhed in a ſtrange land, *retiring* to the Lacedemonians. 2 *Mac.* v.

(2.)* *To* RETIRE. *v. a.* To withdraw; to take away.—He brake up his court, and *retired* himſelf, his wife and children, into a foreſt thereby. *Sidney.*—

He, our hope, might have *retir'd* his power.
Shak.

I will thence *retire* me to my Milan. *Shak.*—There may be as great a vanity in *retiring* and withdrawing men's conceits in the world, as in obtruding them. *Bacon.*—

The ſun is preſent all the year,
And never doth *retire* his golden ray. *Davies.*

Theſe actions in her cloſet, all alone,
Retir'd within herſelf ſhe doth fulfill. *Davies.*—He *retired* himſelf into the caſtle of Farnham. *Clarendon.*—

Scarce the wealthy can one half *retire*. *Dryd.*

* RETIRED. *part. adj.* [from *retire*.] 1. Secret; private.—It ſprings out of the moſt *retired* and inmoſt parts of us. *Ben Jonſon.*—Some accuſtomed to *retired* ſpeculations, run natural philoſophy into metaphyſical notions. *Locke.*—He was admitted into the moſt ſecret and *retired* thoughts and counſels of his royal maſter. *Addiſon.* 2. Withdrawn.—You find the mind in ſleep *retired* from the ſenſes. *Locke.*

* RETIREDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *retired*.] Solitude; privacy; ſecrecy.—

Herſelf a nun, ty'd to *retiredneſs*. *Donne.*—How could he have the leiſure and *retiredneſs* of the cloiſter. *Atterb.*

* RETIREMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *retire*.] 1. Private abode; ſecret habitation.—Caprea had been the *retirement* of Auguſtus. *Addiſon.*—He has erected a charitable *retirement*, for ancient poor people. *Law.* 2. Private way of life.—My *retirement* there tempted me to divert thoſe melancholy thoughts. *Denham.*—

An elegant ſufficiency, content,
Retirement, rural quiet, friendſhip. *Thomſon.*

3. Act of withdrawing.—

Short *retirement* urges ſweet return. *Milton.*

4. State of being withdrawn.—In this *retirement* of the mind from the ſenſes, it retains yet a more incoherent manner of thinking, which we call dreaming. *Locke.*

RETMANSDORF, or RADOVELZA, a town of Germany, in Carniola, on the Save: 22 miles S. of Clagenfurt, and 52 W. of Cilley.

* RETOLD. part. paſſ. of *retell*. Related or told again.—

Whatever Harry Percy then had ſaid
At ſuch a time, with all the reſt *retold*,
May reaſonably die. *Shak.*

Upon his dead corpſe there was ſuch miſuſe
By thoſe Welchwomen done, as may not be
Without much ſhame *retold* or ſpoken of. *Shak.*

RETONVILLER, a town of France, in the dep. of the Somme; 4 miles NE. of Roye.

RETORBIO, a town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Oiona, diſtrict of Pavia, and late territory of the Paveſan; 14 miles S. of Pavia.

(1.)* RETORT. *n. ſ.* [*retorte*, Fr. *retortum*, Lat.] 1. A cenſure or incivility returned.—I ſaid his beard was not cut well; he was in the mind it was: this is called the *retort* courteous. *Shak.* 2. A chymical glaſs veſſel with a bent neck to which the receiver is fitted.—In a laboratory, where the quickſilver is ſeparated by fire, I ſaw an heap of 16,000 *retorts* of iron. *Brown.*—What remains at the bottom of the *retort*, is not acid nor alkaline. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) RETORT, in chemiſtry, an oblong or globular veſſel with its neck bent, proper for diſtillation. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*. In the *Tranſ. of the Lond. Society for Encouragement of Arts*, vol. 5, p. 96. we find a paper containing a method for preventing ſtone retorts from breaking; or ſtopping them when cracked, during any chemical operation, without loſing any of the contained ſubject. "I have always found it neceſſary (ſays the

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writer) to uſe a previous coating for filling up the interſtices of the earth or ſtone, which is made by diſſolving two ounces of borax in a pint of boiling water, and adding to the ſolution as much ſlaked lime as will make it into a thin paſte; this, with a common painter's bruſh, may be ſpread over ſeveral retorts, which when dry are then ready for the proper preſerving coating. The intention of this firſt coating is, that the ſubſtances thus ſpread over, readily vitrifying in the fire, prevent any of the diſtilling matters from pervading the retort, but do in nowiſe prevent it from cracking. Whenever I want to uſe any of the above coated retorts, after I have charged them with the ſubſtance to be diſtilled, I prepare a thin paſte, made with common linſeed oil and ſlaked lime well mixed, and perfectly plaſtic, that it may be eaſily ſpread: with this let the retorts be covered all over except that part of the neck which is to be inſerted into the receiver; this is readily done with a painter's bruſh: the coating will be ſufficiently dry in a day or two, and they will then be fit for uſe. With this coating I have for ſeveral years worked my ſtone retorts, without any danger of their breaking, and have frequently uſed the ſame retort four or five times; obſerving particularly to coat it over with the laſt mentioned compoſition every time it is charged with freſh materials: Before I made uſe of this expedient, it was an even chance, in conducting operations in ſtone and earthen retorts, whether they did not crack every time, by which means great loſs has been ſuſtained. If at any time during the operation the retort ſhould crack, ſpread ſome of the oil compoſition thick on the part, and ſprinkle ſome powder of ſlacked lime on it, and it immediately ſtops the fiſſure, and prevents any of the diſtilling matter from pervading; even that ſubtile penetrating ſubſtance the ſolid phoſphorus will not penetrate through it. It may be applied without any danger, even when the retort is red hot; and when it is made a little ſtiffer, is more proper for luting veſſels than any I ever have tried; becauſe if properly mixed it will never crack, nor will it indurate ſo as to endanger the breaking the necks of the veſſels when taken off."

* *To* RETORT. *v. a.* [*retortus*, Latin.] 1. To throw back; to rebound.—

His virtues, ſhining upon other,
Heat them, and they *retort* that heat. *Shak.*

2. To return any argument, cenſure, or incivility. His proof will eaſily be *retorted*, and the contrary proved. *Hammond.*—

With *retorted* ſcorn his back he turn'd. *Milt.*—The opponent's argument may be *retorted* againſt himſelf. *Watts.* 3. To curve back.—A trumpet is a line *retorted*. *Bacon.*

* RETORTER. *n. ſ.* [from *retort.*] One that retorts.

* RETORTION. *n. ſ.* [from *retort.*] The act of retorting.

* *To* RETOSS. *v. a.* [*re* and *toſs.*] To toſs back.—

Toſt and *retoſt* the ball inceſſant flies. *Pope.*

* *To* RETOUCH. *v. a.* [*retoucher*, Fr.] To improve by new touches.—He furniſhed me with all the paſſages in Ariſtotle and Horace, uſed to explain the art of poetry by painting; which, if ever I *retouch* this eſſay, ſhall be inſerted. *Dryden.*

Lintot, dull rogue! will think your price too much:

"Not, Sir, if you reviſe it and *retouch*." *Pope.*

RETOW, a town of Samogitia; 12 miles W of Medniki.

* *To* RETRACE. *v. a.* [*retracer*, Fr.] To trace back; to trace again.—

Then if the line of Turnus you *retrace*,
He ſprings from Inachus of Argive race. *Dryden.*

(1.) * *To* RETRACT. *v. a.* [*retractus*, Lat. *retracter*, Fr.] 1. To recall; to recant.—

Paris ſhould ne'er *retract* what he hath done
Nor faint in the purſuit. *Shakſ.*

—If his ſubtilties could have ſatisfied me, I would as freely have *retracted* this charge of idolatry, as I ever made it. *Still.* 2. To take back; to reſume.—The exceſs of fertility, which contributed ſo much to their miſcarriages, was *retracted* and cut off. *Woodward.*

(2.) * *To* RETRACT. *v. n.* To unſay; to withdraw conceſſion.—

She will, and ſhe will not, ſhe grants, denies
Conſent, *retracts*, advances, and then flies.
Granville.

* RETRACTATION. *n. ſ.* [*retractation*, Fr. *retractatio*, Lat.] Recantation; change of opinion declared.—Theſe words are David's *retractation*. *South.*

* RETRACTION. *n. ſ.* [from *retract.*] 1. A of withdrawing ſomething advanced, or changing ſomething done.—They make bold with the deity, when they make him do and undo, go forward and backwards by ſuch countermarches as *retractions*, as we do not repute to the Almighty. *Woodw.* 2. Recantation; declaration of change of opinion.—There came into her head certain verſes, which if ſhe had had preſent commodity ſhe would have adjoined as a *retraction* to the other. *Sidney.* 3. Act of withdrawing a claim. Other men's inſatiable deſire of revenge has wholly beguiled both church and ſtate, of the benefit of all my either *retractions* or conceſſions. *King Charles.*

RETRACTS, *n. ſ.* among horſemen, pricks in a horſe's feet, ariſing from the fault of the farrier in driving nails that are weak, or in driving the ill-pointed or otherwiſe amiſs.

* RETRAICT. } *n. ſ. Spenſer.* [*retraitte*, Fr.
* RETRAIT } 1. Retreat. Obſolete.—The earl of Lincoln, ſeeing the buſineſs paſt *traict*, reſolved to make on where the king was, and gave him battle. *Bacon.* 2. *Retrait*, Fr. *tratto*, Italian.] A caſt of the countenance.—Obſolete.—

Working bellgards and amorous *retraite*.
Spenſer.

(1.) * RETREAT. *n. ſ.* [*retraitte*, Fr.] 1. Act of retiring.—

But beauty's triumph is well-tim'd *retreat*
Pr

2. State of privacy; retirement.—

Here in the calm ſtill mirror of *retreat*,
I ſtudied Shrewſbury the wiſe and great. *P*

3. Place of privacy; retirement.—He ſpared coſt to make a delicious *ret eat*. *L'Eſtrange.*—

Holy *retreat*, ſithence no female thither
Muſt dare approach. *Pr*

4. Pl

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4. Place of security.—

This place our dungeon, not our safe *retreat*
Beyond his potent arm. *Milton.*

That pleasing shade they sought, a soft *retreat*
From sudden April showers. *Dryden.*

—Legions of obscure and undefined words, make these *retreats* more like the dens of robbers, than the fortresses of fair warriors. *Locke.* 5. Act of retiring before a superior force. Retreat is less than flight.—Honourable *retreats* are no ways inferior to brave charges; as having less of fortune, more of discipline, and as much of valour. *Bacon.*

Unmov'd
With dread of death to flight or foul *retreat.*
Milton.

No thought of flight,
None of *retreat.* *Milton.*

(2.) RETREAT, in a military sense, (§ 1. *def.* 5.) An army or body of men are said to retreat when they turn their backs upon the enemy, or are retiring from the ground they occupied: hence every march in withdrawing from the enemy is called a *retreat.* That which is done in sight of an active enemy, who pursues with a superior force, is the most important part of the subject; and is, with reason, looked upon as the glory of the profession. It is a manœuvre the most delicate and the properest to display the prudence, genius, courage, and address, of an officer who commands. The most famous retreat in ancient history was that of Xenophon. See PERSIA, § 12.

(3.) RETREAT, is also a beat of the drum, at the firing of the evening gun; at which the drum-major, with all the drums of the battalion, except such as are upon duty, beats from the camp-colours on the right to those on the left, on the parade of the encampment: the drums of all the guards beat also; the trumpets at the same time sounding at the head of their respective troops. This is to warn the soldiers to forbear firing, and the centinels to challenge, till the break of day that the reveille is beat. The retreat is likewise called *setting the watch.*

* *To* RETREAT. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To go to a private abode.—

Others more mild
Retreated in a silent valley. *Milton.*

2. To take shelter; to go to a place of security. 3. To retire from a superior enemy. 4. To go back out of the former place.—

The rapid currents drive
Towards the *retreating* sea. *Milton.*

—My subject does not oblige me to look after the water, or point forth the place whereunto it is now *retreated. Woodw.*—He *retreated* with his eye fixed upon her. *Arbuthnot.*

* RETREATED. *part. adj.* [from *retreat.*] Retired; gone to privacy.—

Others more mild
Retreated in a private valley, sing. *Milton.*

(1.) * *To* RETRENCH. *v. a.* [*retrencher*, Fr.] 1. To cut off; to pare away.—

The pruner's hand must quench
The heat, and thy exub'rant parts *retrench.*
Denham.

—Nothing can be added to the wit of Ovid's Metamorphoses; but many things ought to have been *retrenched. Dryden.*—We ought to *retrench* those superfluous expences. *Atterbury.* 2. To confine. Improper. In some reigns, they are for a prowess and obedience that is unlimited; and in others, are for *retrenching* within the narrowest bounds, the authority of the princes. *Addison.*

(2.) * *To* RETRENCH. *v. n.* To live with less magnificence or expence.—

Can I *retrench?* yes mighty well
Shrink back to my paternal cell. *Pope.*

(1.) * RETRENCHMENT. *n. f.* [*retrenchment*, Fr. from *retrench.*] 1. The act of lopping away.—I had studied Virgil's design, his judicious management of the figures, the sober *retrenchments* of his sense. *Dryden.*—The want of vowels in our language has been the general complaint of our politest authors, who nevertheless have made these *retrenchments*, and consequently encreased our former scarcity. *Addison.*—I would rather be an advocate for the *retrenchment*, than the encrease of this charity. *Atterbury.* 2. Fortification.

(2.) RETRENCHMENT, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) is the same with *subtraction*, *diminution*, &c.

(3.) RETRENCHMENT, in the art of war, any kind of work raised to cover a post, and fortify it against the enemy, such as fascines loaded with earth, gambions, barrels of earth, sand-bags, and generally all things that can cover the men and stop the enemy. See FORTIFICATION and WAR.

* *To* RETRIBUTE. *v. a.* [*retribuo*, Latin; *retribuer*, French.] To pay back; to make repayment of.—Both the will and power to serve him are his upon so many scores, that we are unable to *retribute*, unless we do restore. *Boyle.*—In the state of nature, a man comes by no arbitrary power to use a criminal ill, but only to *retribute* to him what is proportionate to his transgression. *Locke.*

* RETRIBUTER. *n. f.* [from *retribute.*] One that makes retribution.

(1.) * RETRIBUTION. *n. f.* [*retribution*, Fr. from *retribute.*] Repayment; return accommodated to the action.—The king thought he had not remunerated his people sufficiently with good laws, which evermore was his *retribution* for treasure. *Bacon.*—In good offices and due *retributions*, we may not be pinching and niggardly. *Hall.*—

All who have their reward on earth,
Nought seeking but the praise of men, here find
Fit *retribution*, empty as their deeds. *Milton.*

—There is no nation, but has some awful sense of a deity, and a persuasion of a state of *retribution* to men after this life. *South.*—It is a strong argument for a state of *retribution* hereafter, that in this world virtuous persons are very often unfortunate, and vicious persons prosperous. *Addison.*

(2.) *A* RETRIBUTION is a handsome present, gratuity, or acknowledgment, given instead of a formal salary or hire, to persons employed in affairs that do not so immediately fall under estimation, nor within the ordinary commerce in money.

* RETRIBUTIVE. } *adj.* [from *retribute.*] Re-
* RETRIBUTORY. } paying; making repayment.—Something strangely *retributive* is working. *Clarissa.*

* RETRIEVABLE. *adj.* [from *retrieve.*] That may be retrieved.

* *To* RETRIEVE. *v. a.* [*retrouver*, Fr.] 1. To

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To recover; to reſtore.—By this conduct we may *retrieve* the publick credit of religion. *Rogers.* 2. To repair.—

Accept my ſorrow, and *retrieve* my fall,
Prior.

3. To regain.—

With late repentance now they would *retrieve*
The bodies they forſook, and with to live. *Dryd.*
Philomela's liberty *retriev'd*,
Cheers her ſad ſoul. *Philips.*

4. To recall; to bring back.—If one, like the old Latin poets, came among them, it would be a means to *retrieve* them from their cold trivial conceits. *Berkeley.*

* RETROACTION. *n. ſ.* Action backward.

* RETROCESSION. *n. ſ.* [*retroceſſum*, Lat.] The act of going back.

* RETROCOPULATION. *n. ſ.* [*retro* and *copulation*.] Poſt-coition.—From the nature of this poſition, there enſueth a neceſſity of *retrocopulation*. *Brown.*

* RETROGRADA'TION. *n. ſ.* [*retrogradation*, Fr. from *retrograde*.] The act of going backward.—As for the revolutions, ſtations, and *retrogradations* of the planets, obſerved conſtantly in certain periods of time, it ſufficiently demonſtrates, that their motions are governed by counſel. *Ray.*

* RETROGRADE. *adj.* [*retrograde*, Fr. *retro* and *gradior*, Lat.] 1. Going backward.—Princes, if they uſe ambitious men, ſhould handle it ſo, as they be ſtill progreſſive, and not *retrograde*. *Bacon.* 2. Contrary; oppoſite.—

It is moſt *retrograde* to our deſire. *Shak.*

3. In aſtronomy, planets are *retrograde*, when by their proper motion in the zodiack, they move backward, and contrary to the ſucceſſion of the ſigns; as from the ſecond degree of Aries to the firſt: but this retrogradation is only apparent and occaſioned by the obſerver's eye being placed on the earth; for to an eye at the ſun, the planet will appear always direct, and never either ſtationary or *retrograde*. *Harris.*—

Their wand'ring courſe, now high, now low, then hid,
Progreſſive, *retrogade*, or ſtanding ſtill,
In ſix thou ſee'ſt. *Milton.*

Two geomantick figures were diſplay'd;
One when direct, and one when *retrograde*.
Dryden.

* *To* RETROGRADE. *v. n.* [*retrograder*, Fr. *retro* and *gradior*, Lat.] To go backward.—The race and period of all things here is to turn things more pneumatical and rare, and not to *retrograde* from pneumatical to that which is denſe. *Bacon.*

* RETROGRESSION. *n. ſ.* [*retro* and *greſſus*, Latin.] The act of going backwards.—The account, eſtabliſhed upon the riſe and deſcent of the ſtars, can be no reaſonable rule unto diſtant nations, and by reaſon of their *retrogreſſion* but temporary unto any one. *Brown.*

* RETROMINGENCY. *n. ſ.* [*retro* and *mingo*, Lat.] The quality of ſtaling backwards.—The laſt foundation was *retromingency*, or piſſing backwards. *Brown.*

(1.) * RETROMINGENT. *adj.* [*retro* and *mingens*, Lat.] Staling backward.—By reaſon of the backward poſition of the feminine parts of quadrupeds, they can hardly admit the ſubſtitution of maſculine generation, except it be in *retromingents*. *Brown.*

(2.) RETROMINGENTS, in natural hiſtory, a claſs or diviſion of animals, whoſe characteriſtic is, that both ſexes ſtale backwards.

* RETROSPECT. *n. ſ.* [*retro* and *ſpecio*, Lat.] Look thrown upon things behind or things paſt.—As you arraign his majeſty by *retroſpect*, ſo you condemn his government by ſecond ſight. *Addiſon.*

* RETROSPECTION. *n. ſ.* [from *retroſpect*.] Act or faculty of looking backwards.—

Can'ſt thou take delight in viewing
This poor iſle's approaching ruin,
When thy *retroſpection* vaſt
Sees the glorious ages paſt? *Swift.*

* RETROSPECTIVE. *adj.* [from *retroſpect*.] Looking backwards.—

In vain the grave, with *retroſpective* eye,
Would from the apparent what conclude the why. *Pope.*

RETSCHISZ, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Bechin: 6 miles SE. of Tein.

RETTEN, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria: 12 miles W. of Friedberg.

RETTINGHERY, a town of Hindooſtan, in the Myſore: 38 miles E. of Chitteldroog, and 70 NNW. of Bangalore.

RETTLSTEIN, a town and mountain of Germany, in Stiria: the former 6 miles, the latter 8 E. of Pruck.

RETUERTO, a town of Spain, in Old Caſtile: 18 miles S. of Burgos.

* *To* RETUND. *v. a.* [*retundo*, Latin.] To blunt; to turn.—To quench and diſſipate the force of any ſtroke that ſhall be dealt it, and *retund* the edge of any weapon. *Ray.*

(1.) * RETURN. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Act of coming back to the ſame place.—

His *return* was now moſt neceſſary. *Shak.*
Takes little journies, and makes quick *returns*.
Dryden.

2. Retrogreſſion. 3. Act of coming back to the ſame ſtate.—At the *return* of the year, the king of Syria will come up. 1 *Kings*, xx. 22. 4. Revolution; viciſſitude.—Weapons hardly fall under rule; yet even they have *returns* and viciſſitudes; for ordnance was known in the city of the Oxydraces in India, and is what the Macedonians called thunder and lightning. *Bacon.* 5. Repayment of price laid out in commodities for ſale.—Ye ſhall have your *return* in merchandize or gold. *Bacon.*—As to roots accelerated in their ripening, there is the high price that thoſe things bear, and the ſwiftneſs of their *returns*; for, in ſome grounds, a radiſh comes in a month, that in others will not come in two, and ſo makes double *returns*. *Bacon.* 6. Profit; advantage.—The fruit, from many days of recreation, is very little; but from theſe few hours we ſpend in prayer, the *return* is great. *Taylor.* 7. Remittance; payment from a diſtant place.—

Within theſe two months, I expect *return*
Of thrice three times the value of this bond.
Shak.

—Brokers cannot have leſs money by them, than one twentieth part of their yearly *returns*. *Locke*

8. Re

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1. Repayment; retribution; requital.—

You made my liberty your late requeſt,
Is no *return* due from a grateful breaſt? *Dryden.*

—Theſe are ſome of the *returns* which we made to God after obtaining our ſucceſſes. *Atterbury.*—Nothing better becomes a perſon in a publick character, than ſuch a publick ſpirit; nor is there any thing likely to procure him larger *returns* of eſteem. *Atterbury.*—

Returns, like theſe, our miſtreſs bids us make. *Prior.*

Would'ſt thou invade my life, as a *return*
For proffer'd love? *Rowe.*

2. Act of reſtoring or giving back; reſtitution.—The other ground of God's ſole property in any thing, is the gift, or rather the *return* of it made by man to God. *South.* 10. Relapſe.—The remedy of an empirick, to riſle the preſent pain, but with certain proſpect of ſudden *returns*. *Swift.* 11. [*Retour*, French.] Either of the adjoining ſides of the front of an houſe, or ground-plot, is called a *return* ſide. *Moxon.*—Both theſe ſides are not only *returns*, but parts of the front. *Bacon.*

(4.) RETURN, [*returna*, or *retorna*], in law, is uſed in divers ſenſes. 1. Return of writs by ſheriffs and bailiffs is a certificate made by them to the court, of what they have done in relation to the execution of the writ directed to them. This is written on the back of the writ by the officer, who thus ſends the writ back to the court from whence it iſſued, to be filed. 2. Return of a commiſſion, a certificate or anſwer ſent to the court from whence the commiſſion iſſues, concerning what has been done by the commiſſioners. 3. Returns, or days in bank, are certain days in each term, appointed for the return of writs, &c. Thus Hilary term has four returns, viz. in the king's bench, on the day next after the octave, or eighth day after Hilary day: on the day next after the fifteenth day from St Hillary; on the day after purification; and on the next after the octave of the purification. In the common pleas, in eight days of St Hillary: from the day of St Hillary, in three days: on the day after the purification: in eight days of the purification. Eaſter term has five returns, viz. in the king's bench, on the day next after the fifteenth day from Eaſter: on the day next after the three weeks from Eaſter: on the day next after one month from Eaſter: on the day next after five weeks from Eaſter: and on the day next after the day following aſcenſion day. In the common pleas, in fifteen days from the feaſt of Eaſter: in three weeks from the feaſt of Eaſter: in one month from Eaſter day: in five weeks from Eaſter day: on the day after the aſcenſion day. Trinity term has four returns, viz. on the day following the ſecond day after Trinity: on the day following the eighth day after Trinity: on the day next after the fifteenth day from Trinity: on the day next after three weeks from Trinity. In the common pleas, on the day after Trinity: in eight days of Trinity: in fifteen days from Trinity: in three weeks from Trinity. Michaelmas term has ſix returns, viz. on the day next after three weeks from St Michael: on the day next after one month of St Michael: on the day following the ſecond day after All-ſouls: on the day next after the ſecond day after St Martin: on the day following the octave of St Martin: on the day next after fifteen days of St Martin. In the common pleas, in three weeks from St Michael: in one month from St Michael: on the day after All-ſouls: on the day after St Martin: on the octave of St Martin: in fifteen days from St Martin. It is to be obſerved, that, as in the king's bench, all returns are to be made on ſome particular day of the week in each term, care muſt be taken not to make the writs out of that court returnable on a non-judicial day; ſuch as Sunday, and All-ſaints, in Michaelmas term, the purification in Hillary, the aſcenſion in Eaſter, and Midſummer day, except it ſhould fall on the firſt day of Trinity term.

(5.) RETURNS, in a military ſenſe, are of various ſorts, but all tending to explain the ſtate of the army, regiment, or company; namely, how many capable of doing duty, on duty, ſick in quarters, barracks, infirmary, or hoſpital; priſoners, abſent with or without leave; total effective; wanting to complete the eſtabliſhment, &c.

(1.) * *To* RETURN. *v. a.* [*retourner*, Fr.] 1. To repay; to give in requital.—*Return* him a treſpaſs offering. 1 *Sam.* vi. 3.—Thy Lord ſhall *return* thy wickedneſs upon thine own head. 1 *Kings*, ii. 44.

What peace can we *return*? *Milton.*
When anſwer none *return'd*, I ſat me down. *Milton.*

2. To give back.—What counſel give ye to *return* anſwer to this people? 2 *Chr.* 3. To ſend back.

Reject not then what offer'd means, who knows
But God hath ſet before us, to *return* thee
Home to thy country? *Milton.*

4. To give account of.—Probably one fourth part more died of the plague than are *returned*. *Graunt.* 5. To tranſmit.—He ſhould levy money, and *return* the ſame to the treaſurer for his majeſty's uſe. *Clarendon.*

(2.) * *To* RETURN. *v. n.* [*retourner*, Fr.] 1. To come again to the ſame place.—Whoſo rolleth a ſtone, it will *return* upon him. *Prov.* xxvi.—

On their embattle'd ranks the waves *return*. *Milton.*

2. To come back to the ſame ſtate.—If they *returned* out of bondage, it muſt be into a ſtate of freedom. *Locke.* 3. To go back.—

Returning were as tedious as go o'er. *Shak.*

—To *return* to the buſineſs in hand. *Locke.* 4. To make anſwer.—

The thing of courage,
Returns to chiding fortune. *Shak.*

Thus the queen of heaven *return'd*. *Pope.*

5. To come back; to come again; to reviſit.—

Be good, and friendly ſtill, and oft *return*. *Milt.*

6. After a periodical revolution, to begin the ſame again.—

Seaſons *return*, but not to me *returns*
Day, or the ſweet approach of ev'n or morn. *Milton.*

7. To retort; to recriminate.—You *return* upon me, that I affect to be thought more impartial than I am. *Dryden.*

* RETURNABLE. *adj.* Allowed to be reported back. A law term.—It may be decided in that court, where the verdict is *returnable*. *Hale.*—He ſhall have an attachment againſt the ſheriff, directed

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directed to the coroner, and *returnable* into the king's bench. *Ayliffe.*

* RETURNER. *n. f.* [from *return.*] One who pays or remits money.—Thoſe are the *returners* of our money. *Locke.*

* RETURNLESS. *adj.* Admitting no return; irremeable.—

Of this thine owne returne, though all my friends,
I knew as well ſhould make *returnleſſe* ends.
Chapman.

RETUSARI, an iſland of Ruſſia, a long ſlip of land, or rather ſand, through the middle of which runs a ridge of granite. It is 20 miles W. of Peterſburg by water, 4 from the ſhore of Ingria, and 9 from the coaſt of Carelia. It is about 10 miles in circumference, and was overſpread with firs and pines, when Peter firſt conquered it from the Swedes. It contains about 30,000 inhabitants, including the ſailors and garriſon, the former of whom amount to about 12,000, the latter to 1500 men. It affords paſture, vegetables, and fruits, ſuch as apples, currants, gooſeberries, and ſtrawberries. Cronſtadt is the chief town. Lon. 47. 0. E. of Ferro. Lat. 60. 0. N.

(1.) RETZ, a town of Germany, in Bavaria, 22 m. SE. of Amberg, and 26 NNE. of Ratiſbon.

(2.) RETZ, Cardinal DE. See GONDI.

RETZIA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants, and to the 29th natural order, *Campanaceæ.* The capſule is bilocular, and corolla cylindrical, and villous without; the ſtigma bifid.

RETZSTAT, UNDER, and UPPER, } two ſmall rivers of Germany, in Franconia, which unite about 4 miles S. of Roth, and form the REDNITZ.

REU, the ſon of Peleg, father of Serug, and great-grand-father of Abraham. He was born about the time of the diviſion of the earth, and died in his 207th year.

REVA, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in Natalia, 10 miles E. of Conſtantinople.

REUCHLIN, or CAPNIO, John, LL.D. a learned German, born at Pforzheim, in 1450, who contributed much to the reſtoration of letters in Europe. He went to Paris with the Bp. of Utrecht, where he ſtudied Grammar under John De Lapide, rhetoric under Gaguinus, Greek under Tiphernus, and Hebrew under Weſſelus. He became Dr of Philoſophy at Baſil in 1749, and LL.D. at Orleans; where he taught Greek, and publiſhed a grammar, lexicon, and vocabularies in that language. He next went to Rome, where Hermolaus Barbarus perſuaded him to change his name to *Capnio*, which in Greek means the ſame as *Reuchlin* in German, i. e. *ſmoke.* He was made ambaſſador to Frederick III. who granted him many favours, but after that emperor's death, he was baniſhed, and went to Worms, where the elector Palatine employed him to defend his cauſe at Rome, where he made a celebrated oration before the Pope on the rights of the German princes and churches. He revived the ſtudy of Hebrew; and died in 1522. The *Epiſtolæ Obſcurorum Virorum* are aſcribed to him.

REUDEN, a town of Germany, in the electorate of Saxony, 5 miles NW. of Bitterfeld.

REUDZEL, a town of European Turkey which runs into the Reut, 18 miles W. of Fioreſzti, in Moldavia.

(1.) * REVE. *n. f.* The bailiff of a franchiſe or manour.—The *reve*, the miller, and the mincing lady prioreſs ſpeak in character. *Dryden.*

(2.) REVE, REEVE, or GREVE. From this word are derived *ſhire-reeve*, *ſheriff*, *port-greve*, &c.

* *To* REVEAL. *v. a.* [*revelo*, Lat. *reveler*, Fr. 1. To ſhow; to diſcover; to lay open; to diſcloſe a ſecret.—Speaking again that which thou haſt heard, and *revealing* of ſecrets. *Eccluſ.* xli. 23.

She might not, would not yet *reveal* her own.
Waller.

—The anſwer to one who aſked what time was *ſi non rogas intelligo*; that is the more I think of time, the leſs I underſtand it; might perſuade one, that time, which *reveals* all other things, is itſelf not to be diſcovered. *Locke.*—

O teach me to believe thee thus conceal'd,
And ſearch no further than thyſelf *reveal'd.*
Dryden.

2. To import from heaven.—The ſufferings of this life are not to be compared with the glory which ſhall be *revealed* in us. *Romans* viii. 18.

* REVEALER. *n. f.* [from *reveal.*] 1. Diſcoverer; one that ſhows or makes known.—The habit of faith in divinity is a ſtable aſſent unto things inevident, upon the authority of the divine *revealer*. *Brown.*—The lives of the *revealers* may be juſtly ſet over againſt the revelation, to find whether they agree. *Atterbury.* 2. One that diſcovers to view.—

He brought a taper; the *revealer* light
Expos'd both crime and criminal to ſight. *Dryden.*

REVEILLE, *n. f.* [French.] A beat of drum about break of day, to give notice that it is time for the ſoldiers to ariſe, and that the ſentries are to forbear challenging.

(1.) REVEL, a ſea port town of Ruſſia, in the ci-devant Livonia, capital of the province of REVELSKOI, ſituated at the S. entrance of the gulf of Finland, partly on a plain and partly on a mountain; 133 miles SW. of Peterſburg, and 8 SE. of Abo. It was built by Waldemar II. king of Denmark, in 1218. It is a place of great trade and holds two fairs yearly, which are viſited by merchants from all countries, but particularly by thoſe of England and Holland. It is a ſtrong and a rich city, with a capital harbour. It is ſurrounded with high walls and deep ditches, and defended by a caſtle and ſtout baſtion. It was confirmed to the Swedes at the peace of Oliva; but conquered by Peter the Great, who reſtored its privileges, in 1710; and ceded to Ruſſia in 1721. The conqueſt of it was again attempted by the Swedes, in 1790, under the duke of Sudermania, but without ſucceſs, though there was a dreadful carnage on both ſides. It is 144 miles N. of Riga. Lon. 23. 57. E. Lat. 59. 20. N.

(2.) REVEL, or REVELSKOI, a province of Ruſſia, of which the above city is the capital, and anciently called ESTHONIA. See REVELSKOI.

(3.) REVEL, a town of France, in the department of the Iſere, 15 miles SE. of Vienne.

(4.) REVEL, a town of France in the dep. of Upper Garonne, 21 miles NW. of Carcaſſone and 27 ESE. of Toulouſe.

(5.) * REVEL

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(5.) * REVEL. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A feast with loose and noisy jollity.—

Ask him, why, that hour of fairy *revel*,
In their so sacred paths he dares to tread? *Shak.*

They could do no less but, under your fair conduct,
Crave leave to view these ladies, and intreat
An hour of *revels* with them. *Shak.*

(6.) REVELS, are entertainments of dancing, masking, acting comedies, farces, &c. and anciently very frequent in the inns of court and in noblemen's houses, but now much disused. The officer who has the direction of the revels at court is called the MASTER OF THE REVELS.

(1.) * *To* REVEL. *v. a.* [*revello*, Lat.] To retract; to draw back.—Those, who miscarry, escape by their blood, *revelling* the humours from their lungs. *Harvey.*—Venesection in the left arm does more immediate *revel*, yet the difference is minute. *Friend.*

(2.) * *To* REVEL. *v. n.* [*Skinner* derives it from *reveiller*, Fr. to awake; Mr *Lye* from *raveleen*, Dutch, to rove loosely about, which is much countenanced by the old phrase, *revel-rout.*] To feast with loose and clamorous merriment.—

Will we return unto thy father's house,
And *revel* it as bravely as the best? *Shak.*

Tybalt being slain so late,
It may be thought we held him carelessly,
Being our kinsman, if we *revel* much: *Shak.*

Antony, that *revels* long o'nights,
Is un. *Shak.*

We shall have *revelling* to-night. *Shak.*

He can report you more odd tales
Of our outlaw Robin Hood,
That *revell'd* here in Sherewood,
Though he ne'er shot in his bow. *Ben Jonson.*

Every part to dance and *revel* goes. *Donnel.*

I *revel'd* in the women's bow'rs. *Prior.*

(1.) * REVELATION. *n. s.* [from *revelation*, Fr.] 1. Discovery; communication; communication of sacred and mysterious truths by a teacher from heaven.—When the divine *revelations* were committed to writing, the Jews were such scrupulous reverers of them, that they numbered even the letters of the Old Testament. *Decay of Piety.*—As the gospel appears in respect of the law to be a clearer *revelation* of the mystical part, so it is a far more benign dispensation of the practical part. *Spratt.* 2. [*Revelations.*] The apocalypse; the prophecy of St John, revealing future things.

(1.) REVELATION is the act of revealing or making a thing public that was before unknown; it is also used for the discoveries made by God to his prophets, and by them to the world; and more particularly for the books of the Old and New Testament. See BIBLE, CHRISTIANITY, MIRACLE, PAUL, N°1. PROPHECY, RELIGION, and THEOLOGY. The principal tests of the truth of any revelation, are the tendency of its practical doctrines; its consistency with itself, and with the known attributes of God; and some satisfactory evidence that it cannot have been derived from a human source. In every revelation confirmed by this evidence, many doctrines are to be looked for which human reason cannot fully comprehend; and these are to be believed on the testimony of God, and suffered to produce their practical consequences. This kind of belief has place in arts and sciences, as well as in religion. Whoever avails himself of the demonstrations of Newton, Bernoulli, and others, respecting the resistance of fluids, and applies their conclusions to the art of ship-building, is as implicit a believer, if he understand not the principles of fluxions, as any Christian; and yet no man will say that his faith is not productive of important practical consequences.

(3.) REVELATION OF ST JOHN. See APOCALYPSE.

* REVELLER. *n. s.* [from *revel.*] One who feasts with noisy jollity.—

Fairies, black, grey, green and white,
You moonshine *revellers* attend your office.
Shak.

Unwelcome *revellers*, whose lawless joy
Pains the sage ear, and hurts the sober eye.
Pope.

REVELLO, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and ci-devant marquisate of Saluzzo, in the late Piedmontese, near the Po, on the top of a high mountain, fortified by nature and art. It was anciently the residence and refuge of the marquisses of Saluzzo; but was taken by the French under the prince of Malso; and in 1588, by Charles Emanuel I. duke of Savoy. It has a castle, a palace, and 4 churches, and is 3 miles NW. of Saluzzo.

* REVEL-ROUT. *n. s.* 1. A mob; an unlawful assembly of a rabble. 2. Tumultuous festivity.—

For this his minion, the *revel-rout* is done.
Rowe.

* REVELRY. *n. s.* [from *revel.*] Loose jollity; festive mirth.—

Forget this new-fall'n dignity,
And fall into our rustick *revelry*. *Shak.*

There let Hymen oft appear
In saffron robe with taper clear,
And pomp, and feast, and *revelry*. *Milton.*

REVEL'S ISLAND, an island of Virginia, near the E. coast of Northampton County.

REVELSKOI, a province of Russia, one of the 41 governments into which that empire was divided by Catherine II. It is bounded on the W. by the Baltic, N. by the Gulf of Finland, E. by the province of Petersburg or Ingria, and S. by that of Riga or Livonia. It is about 144 miles long and from 16 to 60 broad; and comprehends the ancient duchy of ESTHONIA. It was long an object of bloody contention, between the Russians, Poles, and Swedes; but was at last confirmed to Russia, in 1721. (See REVEL, N°.1.) It is divided into 6 districts, called, *Harrien*, *Wireland*, *Alentakin*, *Wich*, *Jerven*, and *Odepoa*. The chief towns are REVEL, Weisenberg, Borcholm, Pernau, and Roderswyck.

REVELY, Willey, an English architect, who travelled into the East, and resided for some time at Athens. He published *Athenian Stuart's Antiquities of Greece*. He died in 1799.

(1.) * REVENGE. *n. s.* [*revenche*, *revanche*, Fr.] 1. Return of an injury.—May we, with the witness of a good conscience, pursue him with

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further *revenge*. *Shak.*—From the beginning of *revenges* upon the enemy. *Deut.* xxxii. 42.—Being void of natural affection, they have their *revenge* of nature. *Bacon.*—

What will not ambition and *revenge* descend to? *Milton.*

The satyr in a rage
Forgets his bus'nefs is to laugh and bite,
And will of death and dire *revenges* write. *Dryd.*

—Draco, the Athenian lawgiver, granted an impunity to any perſon that took *revenge* upon an adulterer. *Broome.* 2. The paſſion of vengeance; deſire of hurting one from whom hurt has been received.—

Revenges burn in them. *Shak. Macbeth.*

3. *Revenge* is an act of paſſion; *vengeance* of juſtice. Injuries are *revenged*, crimes are *avenged*. This diſtinction is perhaps not always preſerved.

(2.) REVENGE. See ANGER, and DUELLING.

* *To* REVENGE. *v. a.* [*revencher*, *revancher*, Fr.]

1. To return an injury.—

Who leaves a brother to *revenge* his fate. *Pope.*

2. To vindicate by puniſhment of an enemy.—

The gods are juſt, and will *revenge* our cauſe. *Dryden.*

3. To wreak one's wrongs on him that inflicted them. With the reciprocal pronoun, or in a paſſive ſenſe.—

Come, Antony and young Octavius,
Revenge yourſelves alone on Caſſius. *Shak.*
It is a quarrel moſt unnatural,
To be *reveng'd* on *him* that loveth thee. *Shak.*
Northumberland ſlew thy father;
And thine, lord Clifford; and you vow'd revenge.
If I be not, heav'n be *reveng'd* on *me*! *Shak.*

—Edom hath *reveng'd* himſelf upon Judah. *Ezek.* xxv. 12.—O Lord, viſit me, and *revenge me* of my perſecutors. *Jer.*—Who ſhall come to ſtand againſt thee, to be *revenged* for the unrighteous man? *Wiſdom*, xii. 12.—

Your fury of a wife,
Not yet content to be *reveng'd* on *you*,
The agents of your paſſion will purſue. *Dryd.*

* REVENGEFUL. *adj.* [from *revenge*.] Vindictive; full of revenge; full of vengeance.—

May my hands
Never brandiſh more *revengeful* ſteel
Over the glitt'ring helmet of my foe. *Shak.*
If thy *revengeful* heart cannot forgive,
Lo! here I lend thee this ſharp-pointed ſword,
Which hide in this true breaſt. *Shak.*
My *revengeful* brother ſcales the walls. *Denh.*
Repenting England, this *revengeful* day,
To Philip's manes did an off'ring bring. *Dryd.*

* REVENGEFULLY. *adv.* [from *revengeful*.] Vindictively.—

He ſmil'd *revengefully*. *Dryd. and Lee's Oedip.*

* REVENGER. *n. ſ.* [from *revenge*.] 1. One who revenges; one who wreaks his own or another's injuries.—

May be, that better reaſon will aſſuage
The raſh *revenger's* heat. *Spenſ.*
I do not know,
Wherefore my father ſhould *revengers* want,
Having a ſon and friends. *Shak. Ant. & Cleop.*
So ſhall the great *revenger* ruinate
Him and his iſſue. *Sandys's Paraph.*
The injur'd world's *revenger* and his own. *Waller.*

2. One who puniſhes crimes.—A religious oath ſuppoſes an omniſcient being, as conſcious to its falſehood or truth, and a *revenger* of perjury. *Bentley.*

* REVENGEMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *revenge*.] Vengeance; return of an injury.—

It may dwell
In her ſon's fleſh to mind *revengement*. *Spenſ.*

—Vagabond is underſtood for ſuch a one as travelleth in fear of *revengement*. *Raleigh.*

* REVENGINGLY. *adv.* [from *revenging*.] With vengeance; vindictively.—

I've bely'd a lady,
The princeſs of this country; and the air on't
Revengingly enfeebles me. *Shak. Cymb.*

(1.) * REVENUE. *n. ſ.* [*revenu*, Fr. Its accent is uncertain.] Income; annual profits received from lands or other funds.—They privily ſend over unto them the *revenues* wherewith they are there maintained. *Spenſer's State of Ireland.*—

She bears a duke's *revenues* on her back. *Shak.*
The ſway, *revenue*, beloved ſons, be yours. *Shakeſp.*

—Many offices are of ſo ſmall *revenue*, as not to furniſh a man with what is ſufficient for the ſupport of his life. *Temple.*—If the woman could have been contented with golden eggs, ſhe might have kept that *revenue* on ſtill. *L'Eſtrange.*—

Not ſo a nation's *revenues* are paid. *Swift*
When men grew great from their *revenue* ſpent
And fly from bailiffs into parliament. *Young*

(2.) REVENUE, in hunting, a fleſhy lump formed chiefly by a cluſter of whitiſh worms on the head of the deer, ſuppoſed to occaſion the caſting of their horns by gnawing them at the root.

(3.) REVENUE, ROYAL, that which the Britiſh conſtitution hath veſted in the king to ſupport his dignity and maintain his power; being a portion which each ſubject contributes of his property, to ſecure the remainder. This revenue is either *ordinary* or *extraordinary*. I. The king's *ordinary* revenue is ſuch as has either ſubſiſted time out of mind in the crown; or elſe has been granted by parliament, by way of purchaſe or exchange for ſuch of the king's inherent hereditary revenues as were found inconvenient to the ſubject.—In ſaying that it has ſubſiſted time out of mind in the crown, we do not mean that the king is at preſent in the actual poſſeſſion of the whole of his revenue. Much (I ſay the greateſt part) of it is at this day in the hands of ſubjects; to whom it has been granted out from time to time by the kings of England, which has rendered the crown in ſome meaſure dependent on the people for its ordinary ſupport and ſubſiſtence. So that we muſt be obliged to recount, as part of the royal revenue, what lords of manors and other ſubjects frequently look upon to be their own abſolute rights; becauſe they and their anceſtors are and have been veſted in them for ages, though in reality originally derived from the grants of our ancient princes. 1. The firſt of the king's ordinary revenues, which may be taken notice of, is of an eccleſiaſtical kind (as are alſo the three ſucceeding ones), viz. the cuſtody of the temporalities of biſhops. See TEMPORALITIES.

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2. The king is entitled to a CORODY, as the law calls it, out of every bishopric; that is, to send one of his chaplains to be maintained by the bishop, or to have a penſion allowed him till the biſhop promotes him to a benefice. It is ſuppoſed to be now fallen into total diſuſe; though Sir Matthew Hale ſays, that it is due of common right, and that no preſcription will diſcharge it. 3. The king alſo is entitled to all the tithes ariſing in extraparochial places: though perhaps it may be doubted how far this article, as well as the laſt, can be properly reckoned a part of the king's own royal revenue; ſince a corody ſupports only his chaplains, and theſe extraparochial tithes are held under an implied truſt that the king will diſtribute them for the good of the clergy in general. 4. The next branch conſiſts in the firſt-fruits and tenths of all ſpiritual preferments in the kingdom. See TENTHS. 5. The next branch of the king's ordinary revenue (which as well as the ſubſequent branches, is of a lay or temporal nature) conſiſts in the rents and profits of the demeſne lands of the crown. Theſe demeſne lands, *terræ dominicales regis*, being either the ſhare reſerved to the crown at the original diſtribution of landed property, or ſuch as came to it afterwards by forfeitures or other means, were anciently very large and extenſive; comprifing divers manors, honours, and lordſhips; the tenants of which had very peculiar privileges, when we ſpeak of the tenure in ancient demeſne. At preſent they are contracted within a very narrow compaſs, having been almoſt entirely granted away to private ſubjects. This has occaſioned the parliament frequently to interpoſe; and particularly after King William III. had greatly impoveriſhed the crown, an act paſſed, whereby all future grants or leaſes from the crown for any longer term than 31 years or three lives, are declared to be void; except with regard to houſes, which may be granted for 50 years. And no reverſionary leaſe can be made, ſo as to exceed, together with the eſtate in being, the ſame term of three lives or 31 years; that is, when there is a ſubſiſting leaſe, of which there are 20 years ſtill to come, the king cannot grant a future intereſt, to commence after the expiration of the former, for any longer term than 11 years. The tenant muſt alſo be made liable to be puniſhed for committing waſte: and the uſual rent muſt be reſerved, or, where there has uſually been no rent, one 3d of the clear yearly value. The misfortune is, that this act was made too late, after almoſt every valuable poſſeſſion of the crown had been granted away for ever, or elſe upon very long leaſes; but may be of benefit to poſterity, when thoſe leaſes come to expire. 6. Hither might have been referred the advantages which were uſed to ariſe to the king from the profits of his military tenures, to which moſt lands in the kingdom were ſubject, till the ſtatute 12 Car. II. c. 24. which in great meaſure aboliſhed them all. Hither alſo might have been referred the profitable prerogative of purveyance and pre-emption; which was a right enjoyed by the crown of buying up proviſions and other neceſſaries, for the uſe of his royal houſehold, at an appraiſed valuation, in preference to all others, and even without conſent of the owner; and alſo of forcibly impreſſing the carriages and horſes of the ſubject, to do the king's buſineſs on the public roads, in the conveyance of timber, baggage, and the like, however inconvenient to the proprietor, upon paying him a ſettled price. But the powers of purveyance having fallen into diſuſe during the ſuſpenſion of monarchy, Charles II. at his reſtoration, conſented, by the ſame ſtatute, to reſign entirely thoſe branches of his revenue and power: and the parliament, in part of recompenſe, ſettled on him, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, for ever, the hereditary exciſe of 15d. per barrel on all beer and ale ſold in the kingdom, and a proportionable ſum for certain other liquors. 7. A ſeventh branch might alſo be computed to have riſen from wine-licences; or the rents payable to the crown by ſuch perſons as are licenſed to ſell wine by retail throughout Britain, except in a few privileged places. Theſe were firſt ſettled on the crown by the ſtatute 12 Car. II. c. 25. and, together with the hereditary exciſe, made up the equivalent in value for the loſs ſuſtained by the prerogative in the abolition of the military tenures, and the right of pre-emption and purveyance; but this revenue was aboliſhed by the ſtatute 30 Geo. II. c. 19. and an annual ſum of upwards of L. 7000 *per annum*, iſſuing out of the new ſtamp-duties impoſed on wine-licences, was ſettled on the crown in its ſtead. 8. An eighth branch of the king's ordinary revenue is uſually reckoned to conſiſt in the profits ariſing from his foreſts. See FOREST, § 5, 6. Theſe conſiſt principally in the amercements or fines levied for offences againſt the foreſt-laws. 9. The profits ariſing from the king's ordinary courts of juſtice make a ninth branch of his revenue. Theſe conſiſt not only in fines impoſed upon offenders, forfeitures of recognizances, and amercements levied upon defaulters; but alſo in certain fees due to the crown in a variety of legal matters, as, for ſetting the great ſeal to charters, original writs, and other forenſic proceedings and for permitting fines to be levied of lands in order to bar entails, or otherwiſe to aſſure their title. Theſe, in proceſs of time, have been almoſt all granted out to private perſons. 10. A tenth branch of the king's ordinary revenue, is the right to *royal fiſh*, which are whale and ſturgeon: and theſe, when either thrown aſhore, or caught near the coaſts, are the property of the king. 11. Another maritime revenue, and founded partly upon the ſame reaſon, is that of SHIPWRECKS. See WRECK. 12. A 12th branch of the royal revenue, the right to mines, has its original from the king's prerogative of coinage, in order to ſupply him with materials; and therefore thoſe mines which are properly royal, and to which the king is entitled when found, are only thoſe of ſilver and gold. See MINE, § III, 5, 6. 13. To the ſame original may in part be referred the revenue of treaſure-trove. See TREASURE-TROVE. 14. Waiſs. See WAIF. 15. Eſtrays. See ESTRAY. 16. The next branch of the king's ordinary revenue conſiſts in forfeitures of lands and goods for offences. (See DEODAND, and FORFEITURE.) 17. Another branch of the king's ordinary revenue ariſes from eſcheats of lands, which happen upon the defect of heirs to ſucceed to the inheritance. See ESCHEAT. 18. The laſt branch of the king's ordinary revenue, conſiſts in the cuſtody of idiots, from whence we

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ſhall be naturally led to conſider alſo the cuſtody of lunatics. See IDIOT and LUNATIC. This may ſuffice for a ſhort view of the king's *ordinary* revenue, but as the profits, ariſing from the *cenſus regalis*, are almoſt all alienated from the crown, to ſupply the deficiencies, we are now obliged to have recourſe to new methods of raiſing money, unknown to our anceſtors; which methods conſtitute II. The king's *extraordinary* revenue. Theſe extraordinary grants are uſually called by the ſynonymous names of *aids*, *ſubſidies*, and *ſupplies*; and are granted by the commons of Great Britain, in parliament aſſembled. See PARLIAMENT and TAX. For farther particulars reſpecting this important ſubject, we refer our readers to Sir John Sinclair's *Hiſtory of the Revenue of Great Britain*. The clear nett produce of the ſeveral branches of the revenue, after all charges of collecting and management paid, amounted in 1786 to about L. 15,397,000 Sterling, while the expenditure was found to be about L. 14,477,000. Theſe immenſe ſums are appropriated principally, to the payment of the intereſt of the national debt. See NATIONAL DEBT, and FUNDS.

* *To* REVERB. *v. a.* [*reverbero*, Lat.] To reſound; to reverberate. Not in uſe.—

Nor are thoſe empty hearted, whoſe loud ſound
Reverbs no hollowneſs, *Shak.*

* REVERBERANT. *adj.* [*reverberans*, Latin.] Reſounding; beating back. The reading in the following paſſage ſhould be, I think, *reverberant*.—

Hollow your name to the *reverberate* hills,
And make the babbling goſſip of the air
Cry out, Olivia! *Shak.*

(1.) * *To* REVERBERATE. *v. a.* [*reverbero*, Lat. *reverberer*, Fr.] 1. To beat back,—

Till he behold them formed in th' applauſe
Where they're extended; which, like an arch, *reverb'rates*
The ſound again. *Shak.*

—As the ſight of the eye is like a glaſs, ſo is the ear a ſinuous cave, with a hard bone, to ſtop and *reverberate* the ſound. *Bacon.*—We, to improve the nobler kinds of fruits, are at the expence of walls to receive and *reverberate* the faint rays of the ſun. *Swift.* 2. To heat in an intenſe furnace, where the flame is reverberated upon the matter to be melted or cleaned.—Crocus martis, that is ſteel corroded with vinegar or ſulphur, and after *reverberated* with fire, the loadſtone will not attract. *Brown.*

(2.) * *To* REVERBERATE. *v. n.* 1. To be driven back; to bound back.—The rays of royal majeſty *reverberated* ſo ſtrongly upon Viilerio, that they diſpelled all clouds. *Howel.* 2. To reſound.—

And ev'n at hand a drum is ready brac'd,
That ſhall *reverberate* all as well as thine, *Shak.*

REVERBERATING FURNACE. See CHEMISTRY, § 338—341.

(1.) * REVERBERATION. *n. ſ.* [*reverberation*, Fr. from *reverberate*.] The act of beating or driving back.—To the reflection of viſibles, ſmall glaſſes ſuffice; but to the *reverberation* of audibles, are required greater ſpaces. *Bacon.*—Two parallel walls beat the ſound back on each other, like the ſeveral *reverberations* of the ſame image from two oppoſite looking-glaſſes. *Addiſon.*

(2.) REVERBERATION, in chemiſtry, denotes a kind of circulation of the flame by means of a reverberatory furnace.

(3.) REVERBERATION, in phyſics, is the act of a body repelling or reflecting another after its impinging thereon.

(1.) * REVERBERATORY. *adj.* [*reverberatoire*, Fr.] Returning; beating back.—Flints are hard to burn, except in a *reverberatory* kiln. *Moxon.*

(2.) REVERBERATORY FURNACE. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*; FURNACE, § 15.; and METALLURGY, *Part* III. *Sect.* III. and IV.

* *To* REVERE. *v. a.* [*revérer*, Fr. *reverco*, Lat.] To reverence; to honour; to venerate; to regard with awe.—Lucius Verus would omit no opportunity of doing honour to Marcus Aurelius, whom he rather *revered* as his father, than treated as his partner in the empire. *Addiſon.*—

Jove ſhall again *revere* your pow'r,
And riſe a ſwan, or fall a ſhow'r. *Prior.*
Taught 'em how clemency made pow'r *rever'd*. *Prior.*

* REVERENCE. *n. ſ.* [*reverence*, Fr. *reverentia*, Lat.] 1. Veneration; reſpect; awful regard.—When quarrels and factions are carried openly, it is a ſign the *reverence* of government is loſt. *Bacon.*—

And with myſterious *reverence* I deem. *Milt.*—In your prayers, uſe reverent poſtures and the loweſt geſtures of humility, remembering that we ſpeak to God, in our *reverence* to whom we cannot exceed. *Taylor.*—A poet cannot have too great a *reverence* for readers. *Dryden.*—The fear, acceptable to God, is a filial fear; an awful *reverence* of the diving nature. *Rogers.* 2. Act of obeiſance; bow; courteſy.—

None ſo poor to do him *reverence*. *Shak.*
She *rev'rence* did, then bluſh'd as one diſmay'd. *Fairfax.*
Had not men the hoary heads rever'd,
Or boys paid *reverence* when a man appear'd,
Both muſt have dy'd, *Dryden.*
Up ſtarts the beldam,
And *reverence* made, *Dryden.*
She came; the ſenate roſe and paid
Becoming *rev'rence* to the royal maid. *Dryd.*

3. Title of the clergy.—

Many now in health
Shall drop their blood, in approbation
Of what your *reverence* ſhall incite us to. *Shak.*

4. Poetical title of a father.—

O my dear father! let this kiſs
Repair thoſe violent harms, that my two ſiſters
Have in thy *reverence* made. *Shak.*

* *To* REVERENCE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To regard with reverence; to regard with awful reſpect.—

Thoſe that I *rev'rence*, thoſe I fear, the wiſe;
At fools I laugh, not fear them. *Shak.*
While they pervert pure nature's healthful rules
To loathſome ſickneſs, worthily ſince they
God's image did not *reverence* in themſelves. *Milton.*
Arm'd as he was, he ſent him whole below,
And

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And *reverenc'd* thus the manes of his foe.
Dryden.

—As his goodneſs will forbid us to dread him as ſlaves, ſo his majeſty will command us to *reverence* him as ſons. *Rogers.*—He never thinks he can eſteem, *reverence*, or ſerve thoſe enough, for whom he implores ſo many mercies from God. *Law.*

* REVERENCER. *n. ſ.* [from *reverence.*] One who regards with reverence.—The Athenians were become great *reverencers* of crowned heads. *Swift.*

(1.) * REVEREND. *adj.* [*reverend*, Fr. *reverendus*, Lat.] 1. Venerable; deſerving reverence; enforcing reſpect by his appearance.—Let his lack of years be no impediment, to let him lack a *reverend* eſtimation. *Shak.*—

Reverend and gracious ſenators, *Shak.*

—Onias, who had been high prieſt, *reverend* in converſation, and gentle in condition, prayed for the Jews. 2 *Mac.* xv. 12.—

A pariſh prieſt was of the pilgrim train,
An awful, *reverend* and religious man. *Dryden.*

A *reverend* ſire among them came,
Who preach'd converſion and repentance.
Milton.

Rev'rend old man! ſo here confeſt he ſtands.
Pope.

2. The honorary epithet of the clergy. We ſtile a clergyman, *reverend*; a biſhop, right *reverend*; an archbiſhop, moſt *reverend.*

(2.) REVEREND, § 2. *def.* 2. The religious abroad are called *reverend fathers*, and abbeſſes, prioreſſes, &c. *reverend mothers.* In France, before the Revolution, their biſhops, archbiſhops, and abbots, were all alike *moſt reverend.* In Scotland the clergy individually are *reverend*, a ſynod is *very reverend*, and the general aſſembly is *venerable.*

* REVERENT. *adj.* [*reverens*, Latin.] Humble; expreſſive of ſubmiſſion; teſtifying veneration.—

They forthwith to the place
Repairing where he judg'd them, proſtrate fell
Before him *reverent.* *Milton.*

Meet then the ſenior, far renown'd for ſenſe,
With *rev'rent* awe. *Pope.*

* REVERENTIAL. *adj.* [*reverentielle*, Fr. from *reverent.*] Expreſſing reverence; proceeding from awe and veneration.—

Oaths made in *reverential* fear. *Donne.*

—The leaſt degree of contempt weakens religion; it properly conſiſting in a *reverential* eſteem of things ſacred. *South.*—The after-ages perverted it, ſuppoſing only a *reverential* gratitude paid to the earth as the common parent. *Woodward.*—

All look up, with *reverential* awe. *Pope.*

* REVERENTIALLY. *adv.* [from *reverential.*] With ſhow of reverence.—The Jews, *reverentially* declining the ſituation of their temple, place their backs from North to South. *Brown.*

* REVERENTLY. *adv.* [from *reverent.*] Reſpectfully; with awe; with reverence.—

Chide him for faults, and do it *reverently.*
Shak.

His diſciples here,
By their great maſter ſent to preach him every where,
Moſt *reverently* receiv'd. *Drayton.*

So *reverently* men quit the open air,
When thunder ſpeaks the angry gods abroad.
Dryden.

Low, *reverently* low,
Make thy ſtubborn knowledge bow:
To look to heav'n be blind to all below.
Prior.

* REVERER. *n. ſ.* [from *revere.*] One who venerates; one who reveres.—When the divine revelations were committed to writing, the Jews were ſuch ſcrupulous *reverers* of them, that it was the buſineſs of the Maſorites, to number not only the ſections and lines, but even the words and letters of the Old Teſtament. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

REVERIE. See REVERY.

(1.) REVERO, a diſtrict of the Italian republic, in the department of the Mincio, and ci-devant duchy of Mantua; which, by the general cenſus taken May 13th, 1801, contained 80,178 citizens. See ITALIAN REPUBLIC, § 6.

(2.) REVERO, a ſtrong town of the Italian Republic, capital of the above diſtrict, ſeated on the Po, oppoſite Oſtiglio; 10 miles NE. of Mirandola, and 20 SE. of Mantua. Lon. 12. 9. E. Lat. 44. 58. N.

(1.) * REVERSAL. *n. ſ.* [from *reverſe.*] Change of ſentence.—The king, in the *reverſal* of the attainders of his partakers, had his will. *Bacon.*

(2.) REVERSAL OF JUDGMENT, in law. A judgment may be falſified, reverſed, or voided, in the firſt place, *without a writ of error*, for matters foreign to or *debors* the record, that is, not apparent upon the face of it; ſo that they cannot be aſſigned for error in the ſuperior court, which can only judge from what appears in the record itſelf; and therefore, if the whole record be not certified, or not truly certified, by the inferior court, the party injured thereby (in both civil and criminal caſes) may allege a diminution of the record, and cauſe it to be rectified. 2dly, A judgment may be reverſed, *by writ of error*, which lies from all inferior criminal juriſdictions to the court of king's bench, and from the king's bench to the houſe of peers; and may be brought for notorious miſtakes in the judgment or other parts of the record. Laſtly, to reverſe the attainder by act of parliament, See ATTAINDER. The effect of falſifying or reverſing an outlawry is, that the party ſhall be in the ſame plight as if he had appeared upon the *capias*: and, if it be before plea pleaded, he ſhall be put to plead to the indictment; if, after conviction, he ſhall receive the ſentence of the law; for all the other proceedings, except only the proceſs of outlawry for his non-appearance, remain good and effectual as before. But when judgment, pronounced upon conviction, is falſified or reverſed, all former proceedings are abſolutely ſet aſide, and the party ſtands as if he had never been at all accuſed; reſtored in his credit, his capacity, his blood, and his eſtates: with regard to which laſt, tho' they be granted away by the crown, yet the owner may enter upon the grantee, with as little ceremony as he might enter upon a diſſeiſor.—But he ſtill remains liable to another proſecution for the ſame offence: for, the firſt being erroneous, he never was in jeopardy thereby.

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* REVERSE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Change; viciſſitude.—

The ſtrange *reverſe* of fate you ſee;
I pity'd you, now you may pity me. *Dryden.*

—By a ſtrange *reverſe* of things, Juſtinian's law, which for many ages was neglected, does now obtain. *Baker.* 2. A contrary; an oppoſite. This is a ſenſe rather colloquial than analogous.—Count Tariff appeared the *reverſe* of Goodman Fact. *Addiſon.*—The performances to which God has annexed the promiſes of eternity, are juſt the *reverſe* of all the purſuits of ſenſe. *Rogers.* 3. [*Revers*, Fr.] The ſide of the coin on which the head is not impreſſed.—As the Romans ſet down the image and inſcription of the conſul, afterward of the emperor on the one ſide, ſo they changed the *reverſe* always upon new events. *Camden.*—

Our guard upon the royal ſide;
On the *reverſe* our beauty's pride. *Waller.*

—Several *reverſes* are owned to be the repreſentations of antique figures. *Addiſon.*

(1.) * *To* REVERSE. *v. a.* [*reverſus*, Lat.] 1. To turn upſide down.—A pyramid *reverſed* may ſtand upon his point, if balanced by admirable ſkill. *Temple.* 2. To overturn; to ſubvert.—

Theſe can divide, and theſe *reverſe* the ſtate. *Pope.*

3. To turn back.—

Michael's ſword ſtay'd not;
But with ſwift wheel *reverſe*, deep entring ſhar'd
Satan's right ſide. *Milton.*

4. To contradict; to repeal.—The ſame authority, perceiving ſuch overſight, might afterwards correct or *reverſe* it. *Hooker.*—A decree was made, that they had forfeited their liberties; and albeit they made great moans, yet could they not procure this ſentence to be *reverſed*. *Hayward.*—

Death, his doom which I
To mitigate thus plead, not to *reverſe*,
To better life ſhall yield him. *Milton.*

—Grace may have *reverſed* the condemning ſentence. *South.*—To be judged of, by what they ſhall find in hiſtory to confirm or *reverſe* theſe imperfect obſervations. *Locke.* 5. To turn to the contrary.—

Affectations quite *reverſe* the ſoul. *Pope.*

6. To put each in the place of the other.—Cuſtom makes that reputable in one age, which was a vice in another, and *reverſes* even the diſtinctions of good and evil. *Rogers.* 7. To recall; to renew. Obſolete.—

To his freſh remembrance did *reverſe*
The ugly view of his deformed crimes. *Spenſer.*

(2.) * *To* REVERSE. *v. n.* [*revertere*, *reverſus*, Lat.] To return. *Spenſer.*

* REVERSIBLE. *adj.* [*reverſible*, Fr. from *reverſe*.] Capable of being reverſed.

(1.) * REVERSION. *n. ſ.* [*reverſion*, Fr. from *reverſe*.] 1. The ſtate of being to be poſſeſſed after the death of the preſent poſſeſſor.—

As were our England in *reverſion* his. *Shak.*

—A life in *reverſion* is not half ſo valuable, as that which may at preſent be entered on. *Hammond.* 2. Succeſſion to; right of ſucceſſion to.—He had out-lived moſt of his friends; many perſons of quality being dead, who had, for recompence of ſervices, procured the *reverſion* of his office. *Clarendon.*—Life depends upon breath, and is ſo reſtrained to the preſent, that it cannot ſecure to itſelf the *reverſion* of the very next minute. *South.*

In vain they crowd each other at the door;
For e'en *reverſions* are all begg'd before. *Dryd.*

Fame's a *reverſion* in which men take place,
O late *reverſion*! at their own deceaſe. *Young.*

(2.) REVERSION, in Scots law. See LAW, *Part* III. *Chap.* II. *Sect.* VIII. § 3—5.

(3.) REVERSION, in the law of England, has two ſignifications; the one of which is an eſtate left, which continues during a particular eſtate in being; and the other is the returning of the land, &c. after the particular eſtate is ended; and it is further ſaid to be an intereſt in lands, when the poſſeſſion of it fails, or where the eſtate which was for a time parted with, returns to the grantors, or their heirs. But, according to the uſual definition of a reverſion, it is the reſidue of an eſtate left in the granter, after a particular eſtate granted away ceaſes, continuing in the granter of ſuch an eſtate. The difference between a remainder and a reverſion conſiſts in this, that the remainder may belong to any man except the granter; whereas the reverſion returns to him who conveyed the lands, &c. To render the doctrine of reverſions eaſy, we ſhall give the following table; which ſhows the preſent value of one pound, to be received at the end of any number of years not exceeding 40; diſcounting at the rate of 5, 4, and 3 per cent compound intereſt.

Yrs.	Value at 5 per ct.	Value at 4 per ct.	Value at 3 per ct.
1	·9524	·9615	·9709
2	·9070	·9245	·9426
3	·8638	·8898	·9151
4	·8227	·8548	·8885
5	·7835	·8219	·8626
6	·7462	·7903	·8375
7	·7107	·7599	·8131
8	·6768	·7307	·7894
9	·6446	·7026	·7664
10	·6139	·6756	·7441
11	·5847	·6496	·7224
12	·5568	·6246	·7014
13	·5303	·6006	·6809
14	·5051	·5775	·6611
15	·4810	·5553	·6419
16	·4581	·5339	·6232
17	·4363	·5134	·6050
18	·4155	·4936	·5874
19	·3957	·4746	·5703
20	·3769	·4564	·5537
21	·3589	·4388	·5375
22	·3418	·4219	·5219
23	·3255	·4057	·5067
24	·3100	·3901	·4919
25	·2953	·3757	·4776
26	·2812	·3607	·4637
27	·2678	·3468	·4502
28	·2551	·3335	·4371
29	·2429	·3206	·4243
30	·2314	·3003	·4120

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Yrs.	Value at 5 per ct.	Value at 4 per ct.	Value at 3 per ct.
31	·2204	·2965	·4000
32	·2099	·2851	·3883
33	·1999	·2741	·3770
34	·1903	·2636	·3660
35	·1813	·2534	·5554
36	·1726	·2437	·3450
37	·1644	·2343	·3350
38	·1566	·2253	·3252
39	·1491	·2166	·3158
40	·1420	·2083	·3066

To find the present value of any sum to be received at the end of a given term of years, discounting at the rate of 3, 4, or 5 per cent compound interest. Find by the above table the present value of 1*l.* to be received at the end of the given term; which multiply by the number of pounds proposed, (cutting off four figures from the product on account of the decimals), then the result will be the value sought: For example, the present value of 10,000*l.* to be received 10 years hence, and the rate of interest 5 per cent is equal to ·6139×10,000=6139·0000*l.* or 6139*l.* Again, the present value of 10,000*l.* due in ten years, the rate of interest being 3 per cent, is ·7441×10,000=7441.

(4.) REVERSION OF SERIES, in algebra, a kind of reversed operation of an infinite series. See SERIES.

* REVERSIONARY. *adj.* [from *reversion.*] To be enjoyed in succession.—There are multitudes of *reversionary* patents and *reversionary* promises of preferments. *Arbuthnot.*

* REVERT. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Return: recurrence. A musical term.—Hath not musick her figures the same with rhetorick? what is a *revert* but her antistrophe? *Peacham.*

(1.) * *To* REVERT. *v. a.* [*reverto*, Latin.] 1. To change; to turn to the contrary.—

Wretched her subjects, gloomy sits the queen,
Till happy chance *revert* the cruel scene. *Prior.*

2. To reverberate.—

The stream boils
Around the stone, or from the hollow'd bank
Reverted plays in undulating flow. *Thomson.*

(2.) * *To* REVERT. *v. n.* [*revertier*, old Fr.] To return; to fall back.—

My arrows
Would have *reverted* to my bow again. *Shak.*

—The lands shall *revert* to the king. *Bacon.*

* REVERTIBLE. *adj.* [from *revert.*] Returnable.

* REVERY. *n. s.* [*resverie*, Fr.] Loose musing; irregular thought.—*Revery* is when ideas float in our mind, without any reflection or regard of the understanding. *Locke.*—If the minds of men were laid open, we should see but little difference between that of the wise man and that of the fool; there are infinite *reveries* and numberless extravagancies pass through both. *Addison.*—I am really so far gone, as to take pleasure in *reveries* of this kind. *Pope.*

* *To* REVEST. *v. a.* [*revestir*, *revetir*, French; *revestio*, Latin.] 1. To clothe again.—

Her, nathless,
Th' enchanter finding fit for his intents,
Did thus *revest.* *Spenser.*

The withered fields *revest* their chearful weeds. *Wotton.*

2. To reinvest; to vest again in a possession or office.

* REVESTIARY. *n. s.* [*revestiaire*, Fr. from *vestio*, Lat.] Place where dresses are repositied.—The impious Jews ascribed all miracles to a name; which was ingraved in the *revestiary* of the temple. *Camden.*

REVET, Edward, a dramatic writer in the reign of Charles II. He wrote a comedy called *Tom Shifts*, which Langbaine praises as entertaining.

(1.) REVEZ, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Dyle, and ci-devant prov. of Austrian Brabant: 8 miles N. of Charles Sur Sambre, and 20 S. of Brussels.

(2.) REVEZ, a town of Portugal, in the prov. of Tras los Montes, 10½ miles NE. of Lamego, and 18 SW. of Mirandela.

REUGNY, a town of France, in the dep. of Indre and Loire: 6 miles S. of Chateau Regnauld, and 9 NE. of Tours.

* REVICTION. *n. s.* [*victum*, Lat.] Return to life.—If the Rabbins prophecy succeed, we shall conclude the days of the phenix, not in its own, but in the last and general flames, without all hope of *reviction.* *Brown.*

* *To* REVICTUAL. *v. a.* [*re* and *victual.*] To stock with victuals again.—It hath been objected, that I put into Ireland, and spent much time there, taking care to *revictual* myself, and none of the rest. *Raleigh.*

REVICZ, a town and castle of Hungary: 12 miles SW. of Cremnitz.

(1.) * REVIEW. *n. s.* [*reveuë*, Fr. from the verb.] Survey; re-examination.—He with great indifference considered his *reviews* and subsequent editions. *Fell.*—We make a general *review* of the whole work, and a general *review* of nature. *Burnet.*—The works of natnre will bear a thousand views and *reviews.* *Atterbury.*

(2.) REVIEW, in military affairs, is the drawing out all or part of the army in line of battle, to be viewed by the king, or a general, that they may know the condition of the troops. The firings are generally 36 rounds; viz. by companies; by grand divisions; by sub-divisions; obliquely, advancing, retreating; by files; in the square; street firings, advancing and retreating; and lastly a volley.

(3.) REVIEW is also applied to Literary Journals, which give a periodical view of the state of literature;—as the *Monthly Review*, the *Critical Review*, &c.

(4.) REVIEW, COMMISSION OF, is a commission sometimes granted, in extraordinary cases, to revise the sentence of the court of delegates, when it is apprehended they have been led into a material error. This commission the king may grant, although the statutes 24 and 25 Hen. VIII. declare the sentence of the delegates definitive: because the pope, as supreme head by the canon law, used to grant such commission of review; and

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and ſuch authority as the pope heretofore exerted is now annexed to the crown, by ſtatutes 26 Hen. VIII. c. 1. and 1 Eliz. c. 1. But it is not matter of right, which the ſubject may demand *ex debito juſtitiæ*; but merely a matter of favour, and which therefore is often denied.

* *To* REVIEW. *v. a.* [*re* and *view.*] 1. To look back.—

So ſwift he flies, that his *reviewing* eye
Has loſt the chaſers, and his ear the cry. *Denh.*

2. To ſee again.—

I ſhall *review* Sicilia; for whoſe ſight
I have a woman's longing. *Shak. Wint. Tale.*

3. To conſider over again; to re-examine.—Segrais ſays, that the Æneis is an imperfect work, and that death prevented the divine poet from *reviewing* it. *Dryd.* 4. To trace.—

Shall I the long laborious ſcene *review*,
And open all the wounds of Greece anew? *Pope.*

5. To ſurvey; to overlook; to examine.

(1.) REVIEWER, *n. ſ.* One who reviews an army or a book.

(2.) REVIEWERS, a ſet of learned gentlemen in London. Edinburgh, and moſt other capital cities in Europe, who gratify the curioſity of the public, by giving critical and accurate reviews, periodically, of the principal publications of the various literati in Europe. That ſuch criticiſms ſhould be always *impartial*, would be to expect the reviewers to be more than men; but their moſt ſevere remarks are ſeldom without foundation, and are at all times well worthy the attention of young authors.

REVIGNY, or REVIGNY AUX VACHES, a town of France, in the depart. of the Meuſe; 7½ miles WNW. of Bar le Duc, and 16 S. of St Menehould.

* REVILE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] Reproach; contumely; exprobration. Not uſed, but elegant.

The gracious Judge, without *revile*, reply'd.
Milton.

* *To* REVILE. *v. a.* [*re* and *vile.*] To reproach; to vilify; to treat with contumely.—

Them to *revile* or ſnib. *Spenſer.*
His eye *revil'd*
Me as his abject object. *Shak.*

—Neither be afraid of their *revilings*. *Iſaiah*, li. 7. —She *revileth* him to his face, and raileth at him. *Swift.*

* REVILER. *n. ſ.* [from *revile.*] One who reviles; one who treats another with contumelious terms.—The bittereſt *revilers* are often half-witted people. *Gov. of Tongue.*

* REVILINGLY. *adv.* [from *revile.*] In an opprobrious manner; with contumely.—The love I bear to the civility of expreſſion will not ſuffer me to be *revilingly* abroad. *Maine.*

REUILLY, a town of France, in the department of Indre; 7 miles N. of Iſloudon, and 9 S. of Vierzon.

REVIN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ardennes, and diſtrict of Rocroy: 6 miles NE. of Rocroy, and 12 N. of Charleville.

REVINGHELN, a town of France, in the dep. of the North, and late prov. of French Flanders; 5 miles N. of Bailleul.

* REVISAL. *n. ſ.* [from *reviſe.*] Review; re-examination.—The *reviſal* of theſe letters has been a kind of examination of conſcience to me. *Pope.*

* REVISE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Review; re-examination.—The author is to be excuſed who never, in regard to his eyes and other impediments, gives himſelf the trouble of correction and *reviſes*. *Boyle.* 2. Among printers ſecond proof of a ſheet corrected.—He ſending them ſheet by ſheet when printed, and ſurveying the *reviſes*. *Fell.*

* *To* REVISE. *v. a.* [*reviſus*, Lat.] To review; to overlook.—

Lintot will think your price too much;
Not, Sir, if you *reviſe* it, and retouch. *Pope.*

* REVISER. *n. ſ.* [*reviſeur*, Fr. from *reviſe.*] Examiner; ſuperintendant.

* REVISION. *n. ſ.* [*reviſion*, Fr. from *reviſe.*] Review.

* *To* REVISIT. *v. a.* [*reviſiter*, Fr. *reviſo reviſito*, Lat.] To viſit again.—

Thee I *reviſit* ſafe,
And feel thy ſov'reign vital lamp; but thou
Reviſit'ſt not theſe eyes. *Milton.*
Let the pale fire *reviſit* Thebes. *Pope.*

* REVIVAL. *n. ſ.* [from *revive.*] Recall from a ſtate of languor, oblivion, or obſcurity; recall to life.

(1.) * *To* REVIVE. *v. n.* [*revivre*, Fr. *revivio*, Lat.] 1. To return to life.—The ſoul of the child came unto him again, and he *revived*. 1 *Kings.*

So he dies;
But ſoon *revives*. *Milton.*

2. To return to vigour or fame; to riſe from languor, oblivion, or obſcurity.—

I *revive*
At this laſt fight. *Milton.*

(2.) * *To* REVIVE. *v. a.* 1. To bring to life again.—

Spot more delicious, than thoſe gardens feign'd
Of *reviv'd* Adonis. *Milton.*

2. To raiſe from languor, inſenſibility, or oblivion.—

Noiſe of arms, or view of martial guiſe,
Might not *revive* deſire of knightly exerciſe.
Spenſer.

3. To renew; to recollect; to bring back to the memory.—The memory is the power to revive again in our minds thoſe ideas, which after imprinting have been laid aſide out of ſight. *Locke.* —The mind has a power in many caſes to *revive* perceptions, which it has once had. *Locke.* 4. To quicken; to rouſe.—

I ſhould *revive* the ſoldiers hearts. *Shak.*
What firſt Æneas in this place beheld,
Reviv'd his courage. *Dryden.*

Old Egeus only could *revive* his ſon. *Dryd.*

5. To recomfort; to reſtore to hope.—Give us a little *reviving* in our bondage. *Ezra*, ix. 8. 6. To bring again into notice.—

He'll uſe me as he does my betters,
Publiſh my life, my will, my letters,
Revive the libels born to die,
Which Pope muſt bear as well as I. *Swift.*

7. [In chemiſtry.] To recover from a mixed ſtate

* REVIVER. *n. ſ.* [from *revive.*] That which invigorates or revives

* *To*

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* *To* REVIVIFICATE. *v. a.* [*revivifier*, Fr. *re* and *vivifico*, Lat.] To recall to life.

(1.) * REVIVIFICATION. *n. f.* [from *revivificate*.] The act of recalling to life.—As long as an infant is in the womb of its parent, ſo long are theſe medicines of *revivification* in preparing. *Spect.*

(2.) REVIVIFICATION, in chemiſtry, is generally applied to the diſtillation of quickſilver from cinnabar.

* REVIVISCENCY. *n. f.* [*reviviſco*, *reviviſcentia*, Lat.] Renewal of life.—Scripture makes mention of a reſtitution and *reviviſcency* of all things at the end of the world. *Burnet.*

(1.) * REUNION. *n. f.* [*reunion*, Fr. *re* and *union*.] Return to a ſtate of juncture, coheſion, or concord.—

She, that ſhould all parts to *reunion* bow. *Donne.*

(2.) REUNION ISLAND, an iſland in the South Sea, diſcovered by the French on the 16th Dec. 1773; lying, according to M. de Pages, in Lat. 48° 21' S. and Lon. 66° 47' W. the variation of the needle being 30° always towards NW. The road and harbour are extremely good, and the latter from 16 to 8 fathoms deep at the very ſhore. The coaſt abounds with penguins, buſtards and ſea lions. The ſoil produces a kind of graſs, about five inches long, with a broad black leaf, and ſeemingly of a rich quality—but there was no veſtige of a tree or human habitation. See Pages's *Travels round the World*. Vol. III. chap. viii. and ix.

(1.) * *To* REUNITE. *v. a.* [*re* and *unite*.] 1. To join; to make one whole a ſecond time; to join what is divided.—

By this match the line of Charles the Great
Was *reunited* to the crown of France. *Shak.*

2. To reconcile; to make thoſe at variance one.

(2.) * *To* REUNITE. *v. n.* To cohere again.

* REVOCABLE. *adj.* [*revocable*, Fr. *revoco*, *revocabilis*, Lat.] 1. That may be recalled.—However you ſhew bitterneſs, do not act any thing that is not *revocable*. *Bacon.* 2. That may be repealed.

* REVOCABLENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *revocable*.] The quality of being revocable.

* *To* REVOCATE. *v. a.* [*revoco*, Lat.] To recall; to call back.—

His ſucceſſor, by order, nullifies
Many his patents, and did *revocate*
And re-aſſume his liberalities. *Daniel.*

(1.) * REVOCATION. *n. ſ.* [*revocation*, Fr. *revocatio*, Lat.] 1. Act of recalling.—One, that ſaw the people bent for the *revocation* of Calvin, gave him notice of their affection. *Hooker.* 2. State of being recalled.—Elaiana's king commanded Cleomedra to tell him that he had received advice of his *revocation*. *Howel.* 3. Repeal; reverſal.—A law may ceaſe to be in force, without an expreſs *revocation* of the lawgiver. *White.*—It is not neceſſary to pray a *revocation* of ſuch a grievance. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) REVOCATION OF THE EDICT OF NANTES. See DRAGOONING, and FRANCE, § 48.

* *To* REVOKE. *v. a.* [*revoquer*, Fr. *revoco*, Lat.] 1. To repeal; to reverſe.—When we abrogate a law as being ill made, do we not herein *revoke* our very own deed? *Hooker.*—What teſtſod is there, but that thoſe grants and privileges ſhould be *revoked*? *Spenſer.*

Revoke his doom, or elſe my ſentence give. *Dryden.*

2. To check; to repreſs.—

She ſtrove their ſudden rages to *revoke*. *Spenſ.*

3. To draw back.—

Shame were to *revoke*
The forward footing for an hidden ſhade. *Spenſ.*
Seas are troubled, when they do *revoke*
Their flowing waves into themſelves again. *Daviesi*

* REVOKEMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *revoke*.] Revocation; repeal; recall. Little in uſe.—

Through our interceſſion this *revokement*
And pardon comes. *Shak.*

REVOLSKOI, a town of Ruſſia, in the province of Viburg: 128 miles NW. of Povenetz.

* REVOLT. *n. ſ.* [*revolte*, Fr. from the verb.] 1. Deſertion; change of ſides.—He was greatly ſtrengthened, and the enemy as much enfeebled by daily *revolts*. *Raleigh.*—If all our levies are made in Scotland or Ireland, may not thoſe two parts of the monarchy be too powerful for the reſt, in caſe of a *revolt*? *Addiſon.* 2. A revolter; one who changes ſides. Not in uſe.—

You ingrate *revolts*. *Shak.*

3. Groſs departure from duty.—

Your daughter hath made a groſs *revolt*.
Shakeſp.

* *To* REVOLT. *v. n.* [*revolter*, Fr. *revoltare*, Italian.] 1. To fall off from one to another. It denotes ſomething of pravity or rebellion.—

All will *revolt* from me, and turn to him. *Shak.*

Our diſcontented counties do *revolt*. *Shak.*—This people hath a *revolting* and a rebellious heart; they are *revolted* and gone. *Jer.* v. 23. 2. To change. Not in uſe.—

You are already love's firm votary,
And cannot ſoon *revolt*. *Shak.*

* REVOLTED. *part.* [from *revolt*.] Having ſwerved from duty.—

Thou ſingle haſt maintain'd
Againſt *revolted* multitudes the cauſe
Of truth. *Milton.*

* REVOLTER. *n. ſ.* [from *revolt*.] One who changes ſides; a deſerter; a renegade.—

A murderer, a *revolter*, and a robber. *Milt.*—He was not a *revolter* from the truth. *Atterb.*—Thoſe, who are negligent or *revolters*, ſhall periſh. *Swift.*

(1.) * *To* REVOLVE. *v. a.* [*revolvo*, Lat.] 1. To roll any thing round.—

Then in the Eaſt her turn ſhe ſhines,
Revolv'd on heav'n's great axis. *Milton.*

2. To conſider; to meditate on.—

You may *revolve* what tales I told you. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* REVOLVE. *v. n.* [*revolvo*, Lat.] 1. To roll in a circle; to perform a revolution.—They do not *revolve* about any common centre. *Cheyne.*—If the earth *revolve* thus, each houſe near the equator muſt move a thouſand miles an hour. *Watts.*—

Each *revolving* year,
The teeming ewes a triple offſpring bear. *Pope.*

2. To fall back.—On the deſertion of an appeal,

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the jurisdiction does *ipso jure revolve* to the judge *a quo*. *Ayliffe*.

(I.) * REVOLUTION. *n. s.* [*revolution*, Fr. *revolutus*, Latin.] 1. Course of any thing which returns to the point at which it began to move.—

On their orbs impose
Such restless *revolution*, day by day
Repeated. *Milton's Paradise Lost*.

—They will be taught the diurnal *revolution* of the heavens. *Watts*. 2. Space measured by some revolution.—

At certain *revolutions* are they brought,
And feel by turns the bitter change. *Milton*.

—Meteors have no more time allowed them for their mounting, than the short *revolution* of a day. *Dryden*.—The Persian wept over his army, that within the *revolution* of a single age, not a man would be left alive. *Wake*. 3. Change in the state of a government or country. It is used among us κατ' ἐξοχην, for the change produced by the admission of king William and queen Mary.—The late *revolution*, justified by its necessity, and the good it had produced, will be a lasting answer. *Davenant*. 4. Rotation; circular motion. 5. Motion backward.—

Fear
Comes thund'ring back with dreadful *revolution*.
Milton.

(II.) REVOLUTION, in politics, (§ I, *def.* 3.) signifies a change in the constitution of a state; and is a word of different import from REVOLT, with which it is sometimes confounded. When a people withdraw their obedience from their governors for any particular reason, without overturning the government, or waging an offensive war against it, they are in a state of revolt; when they overturn the government and form a new one for themselves, they effect a *revolution*.

(III.) REVOLUTION OF AMERICA. Of the rise and progress of the American revolution, which is still fresh in the memory of our readers, a large detail is given under the article AMERICA, § 14, 26—52.

(IV.) REVOLUTION OF BRITAIN. That which is termed *the revolution* in Britain is the change which, in 1688, took place in consequence of the forced abdication of king James II. when the Protestant succession was established, and the constitution restored to its primitive purity. Of this important transaction, which confirmed the rights and liberties of Britons, we have studied to give an impartial account under ENGLAND, § 62—64.

(V.) REVOLUTION OF DENMARK. This revolution is unparalleled in history. It affords the singular instance of a free people voluntarily resigning their liberty into the hands of their sovereign, and rendering him despotic. See DENMARK, § 7.

(VI, 1.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, CAUSES OF THE. We now enter on the history of a revolution, the most beautiful and promising in its commencement, the most horrible and bloody in its progress; and the most contemptibly despotic in its conclusion;—in a word, the most extraordinary in every point of view, of any recorded in the annals of mankind. Several of the causes, that paved the way for this event, are mentioned under the article FRANCE, § 50—54: particularly the decided part taken by the French court in favour of the Americans; the various changes in the French ministry; the public discontents on account of the dismission of M. Necker; the failure of the *Caisse d'Escompte*; the low state of the French funds; the assembling and dismission of the *Notables*; the exile and recall of the Parliament of Paris; together with their spirited remonstrances; which ended at last in the restoration of the STATES GENERAL. To these causes may be added the general diffusion of political, philosophical, and infidel writings, by Messrs Voltaire, Rousseau, Helvetius, Raynal, Mirabeau, and many others of the first geniuses of the age, who levelled their wit equally at the pulpit and the throne, and thus unlooſed both the religious and political prejudices of the people. Long before this period France had been governed by a barbarous aristocracy, whose different members were feebly united by the authority of a succession of kings destitute of power or influence. The nobles, within their own territories, enjoyed privileges entirely royal: they made peace and war; they coined money; they were judges in the last resort; their vassals were their slaves, whom they bought and sold along with the lands; the inhabitants of cities, although freemen, were depressed and poor, depending for protection upon some tyrannical baron in their neighbourhood. At length, however, by the progress of the arts, the cities rose into considerable importance, and their inhabitants, along with such freemen of low rank as resided in the country, were considered as entitled to a representation in the states general of the kingdom, under the appellation of *tiers etat*, or *third estate*; the clergy and the nobles forming the two first estates. But the sovereign, having speedily become despotic, the meetings of the states general were laid aside. Yet, notwithstanding the vast assumption of power by Lewis XI, the kingdom of France, previous to the revolution, was never reduced to one homogeneous mass, but consisted of various provinces governed each by its own peculiar laws. The clergy formed the first estate in point of precedence. They amounted to 130,000. The higher orders of these had immense revenues, but the lower had only from 14 l. to 28 l. sterling a-year. The nobility ranked 2d in order, but were in reality the first. Their number was not less than 200,000, as the titles and rank descended *to all* the children of the family. Hence vast numbers of them were mere dependents on the court, and considered the useful arts as disgraceful. Both these orders were exempted from taxes. Next to the nobles, and possessing a peculiar kind of *secondary* nobility were the parliaments. These were large bodies of men appointed as courts of law for administering justice. The members purchased their places, which they held for life. Courts thus constituted consisted of a motely mixture of learning and ignorance. Justice was badly administered. The most flagrant corruption was openly practised. After the states general had fallen into disuse, however, the parliaments acquired a degree of political importance, by frequently checking the power of the crown, in refusing to register the royal edicts, without which they could not be put in force. This rendered them high in popular esteem; and, as their opposition to the court [illegible] induce

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induced Lewis XV. to abolish them, they were restored, as a popular measure, early in Lewis XVI's reign. The *tiers etat*, 3d estate, or commons, formed the lowest order, and they were most dreadfully oppressed. They bore the whole pecuniary burdens of the state. They alone were subject to taxation. An expensive and dissipated court; an army of 200,000 men in peace, and double that number in war: a great marine establishment, public roads, works, &c. were all supported exclusively by the common people. To add to the evil, the revenues were collected by farmers general, who made immense fortunes, by the most cruel exactions, under colour of revenue laws, which they obtained at pleasure. Over and above all these sources of oppression, the nobles retained all their ancient powers and privileges, whereby they treated the people as absolute slaves. While the commons thus suffered in every form, all ranks were kept in terror, by the bastile and *Letters de Cachet*. (See CACHET.) The system of ESPIONAGE was carried to the utmost extent, and such a host of spies were dispersed every where by the court police, that no man was safe. Mean time all ranks were jealous of each other. The inferior clergy, excluded from preferment, envied the superior clergy, and were ready to join the laity in any commotion. The inferior provincial nobility despised the vices of the courtiers, and the higher nobility wished to reduce the power of the crown. The lawyers, excluded from becoming judges, wished for a change, and accordingly became the first and most active supporters of the revolution. To add to the general discontent and calamity, an extraordinary storm of uncommonly large hail, or rather pieces of ice, some of them weighing from 8 to 10 oz. each, destroyed the crop, and produced an universal scarcity of grain. The damages occasioned by this storm were estimated at 80 millions of livres, or near 4 millions sterling. This calamity was the more severely felt, that the scarcity was general throughout Europe. Thus the year 1789, commenced in the midst of uncommon political and commercial anxiety and distress. The *tiers etat* demanded equal taxation, abolition of *lettres de cachet*, and in short a constitution like the British. M. Neckar, as well as the king wished, through their means, to overturn the unjust privileges of the higher orders. In this situation of things, the states general was assembled by royal authority.

(2.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, FROM THE ASSEMBLING OF THE STATES GENERAL, TILL THEIR ERECTION INTO A NATIONAL ASSEMBLY. The states had been summoned to meet at Versailles on the 27th of April, and most of the deputies arrived at that time; but the elections for Paris not being concluded, the king deferred the commencement of their sessions till the 4th of May. During this period, the members began to become acquainted with each other. Among others, a few members from Britany formed themselves into a club, into which they gradually admitted many other deputies, that were zealous for the popular cause, and also many who were not deputies. This society, thus originally established at Versailles, was called the *Comite Breton*; and soon became famous under the name of the JACOBIN CLUB. On the other side, the aristocratic party established conferences at the house of Madame Polignac, for the purpose of uniting the nobles and clergy. An event occurred at this time which all parties ascribed to some malicious motive. In the populous suburb of St Antoine, a M. Reveillon carried on a great paper manufactory. A false report was spread that he intended to reduce the wages of his workmen, and that he had declared bread was too good for them, and that they might subsist very well on potato flour. A commotion was raised, he was burnt in effigy, and his house was thereafter burnt and pillaged by the mob, who were not dispersed till the military had been called in, and much carnage ensued. The popular party asserted that the commotion had been artfully excited by the party of the queen and the Count D'Artois, to afford a pretence for bringing great bodies of the military to the neighbourhood, to overawe the states general, or induce the king more decisively to resolve on assembling that body at Versailles, in preference to Paris, where they and the popular minister M. Neckar wished it to be held. On the 4th of May the states general assembled at Versailles: and was opened by a short speech from the throne.—The popular minister, M. Neckar, next rose and spoke for 3 hours, upon the state of the finances. Next day the three orders assembled separately. The deputies of the *tiers etat* amounted to 600 in number, and those of the nobles and clergy to 300 each. During their first sittings much time was spent in unimportant debates about trifling points of form; but the first important question, that necessarily became the subject of their discussion, was the *verification of their powers*, or production of the commissions of the members, and investigation of their authenticity. The commons (*tiers etat*) laid hold of this as a pretext for opening the grand controversy, whether the states general should sit in one or in three separate chambers? They sent a deputation, inviting the nobles and the clergy to meet along with them in the common hall, for the purpose of *verifying their powers* in one common assembly. In the chamber of the clergy 114 members voted for the performance of this ceremony in the general assembly; and 133 against it. But in the more haughty order of the nobles, the resolution for the verification in their own assembly was carried by a majority of 188 against 47. The commons, determined to do no business till their desire was granted, suffered five weeks to pass away in total inactivity. During this period proposals were made on the part of the ministry for a pacification between the three orders. They admitted all persons promiscuously into the galleries, and even into the body of their hall. The new and bold notions of liberty, that were daily advanced by the leaders of the *tiers etat*, were received with acclamation by their hearers. In the mean time the nobles became rapidly more and more unpopular. Whoever adhered to them was branded with the odious appellation of *Aristocrate*. The clergy, from the influence of the parish *cures* or parsons, seemed ready to desert their cause. They were even opposed by a minority of their own body, which derived lustre from having at its

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head the duke of Orleans, the first prince of the blood. The leaders of the commons at length regarded the period as arrived, when they ought to emerge from their inactivity, and execute the daring project of seizing the legislative authority of their country. They declared that the representatives of the nobles and the clergy were only the deputies of particular incorporations, whom they would allow to sit and vote along with themselves; but who had no title in a collective capacity to act as the legislators of France. For conducting business with more facility, they appointed 30 committees. In consequence of a proposal by the Abbé Sieyes, a final message was sent to the privileged orders, requiring their attendance as individuals, and intimating that the commons, as the deputies of 96 out of every hundred of their countrymen, were about to assume the exclusive power of legislation. None of the nobles obeyed this summons; but three curés, Messrs Cesve, Ballard, and Jalot, presented their commissions, and were received with loud acclamations. They were next followed by five more, among whom were Messrs Gregoire, Dillon, and Bodineau. After some debate concerning the appellation which they ought to assume, they solemnly voted themselves the sovereign legislators of their country, under the name of the NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

(3.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE CAPTURE OF THE BASTILE. The first acts of the National Assembly were decisively expressive of its own sovereignty. All taxes imposed without the consent of the representatives of the people were declared to be null and void; but a temporary sanction was given to the present taxes, although illegal, till the dissolution of the assembly and no longer. The popular cause now gained ground so fast, that on the 19th of June a majority of the clergy voted for the verification of their powers in common with the national assembly, and they resolved to unite with them on the following day. Affairs were now come to a crisis, and the nobles perceived that they must instantly make a decisive stand, or yield up their cause as lost. Such was their alarm, that M. d'Esprémenil proposed, at one of their sittings to request the king to dissolve the states general. Hitherto Lewis had gone along with M. Neckar, in favouring the popular cause in opposition to the aristocracy. But every art was now used to alarm his mind upon the late assumptions of power by the commons, and these arts were at length successful. Repeated counsels were held; M. Neckar was absent, attending a dying sister, and the king was prevailed upon to act agreeably to the advice of the nobles. But the first measure which they adopted was so ill conducted as to afford little prospect of success. On the 20th of June, when the president and members were about to enter into their hall, they found it surrounded by a detachment of the guards, who refused them admission, while the heralds proclaimed a royal session. Alarmed by this event, and supposing that an immediate dissolution of the assembly was designed, they instantly retired to a neighbouring tennis-court, where, in the vehemence of their enthusiasm, they took a solemn oath "never to separate till the constitution of their country should be completed." On the 22d a new proclamation intimated, that the royal session was deferred till the following day. It was now said, that the assembly had been excluded from their hall because the workmen were occupied in preparing it for the intended solemnity. This reason did not excite favourable expectations of the measures to be adopted at a royal session, ushered in by such circumstances of disrespect for the representatives of the people. The assembly at length entered the church of St Louis, and were joined by the majority of the clergy, with the Abp. of Vienne at their head. Two nobles of Dauphiné, the marquis de Blacon and the count d'Agoult, presented their commissions at the same time. Encouraged by these events, and by the applauses of the multitude, the assembly now waited with firmness the measures about to be adopted. The royal session was held in the most splendid form, but entirely in the style of the ancient despotism. Soldiers surrounded the hall. The two superior orders were seated, while the representatives of the people, left standing a full hour in the rain, were in no humour, when at last admitted, to receive with much complacency the commands of their sovereign. The king read a discourse, in which he declared null and void the resolutions of the 17th, but at the same time presented the plan of a constitution for France. It contained many good and patriotic principles, but preserved the distinction of orders, and the exercise of *lettres de cachet*; it said nothing about any active share in the legislative power to be possessed by the states general, and was silent both about the responsibility of ministers and the liberty of the press. The king concluded by commanding the deputies immediately to retire, and to assemble again on the following day. He then withdrew, and was followed by all the nobles and a part of the clergy. The commons remained in gloomy silence on their seats. They were interrupted by the grand master of the ceremonies, who reminded the president of the intentions of the king. Instantly the count de Mirabeau exclaimed with indignation "The commons of France have determined in debate. We have heard the intentions that have been suggested to the king; and you, who can not be his agent with the states general, you who have here neither seat nor voice, nor a right to speak, are not the person to remind us of the speech. Go tell your master that we are here by the power of the people, and that nothing shall expel us but the bayonet." The applause of the assembly seconded the enthusiasm of the orator, and the master of the ceremonies withdrew. Camus then rose; and in a violent speech indignantly stigmatised the royal session by the obnoxious appellation of a *bed of justice*; he concluded by moving, that the assembly should declare their unqualified adherence to their former decrees. This motion was followed by another, pronouncing the persons of the deputies inviolable. It was supported by Messrs. Petion, Barnave, Grenzen, and the Abbés Gregoire, Sieyes, and many others, and were unanimously decreed. The assembly therefore continued their sittings in the usual form. On the following day the majo

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of the clergy attended as members; and on the 25th the duke of Orleans, with 49 of the deputies belonging to the order of nobles, joined them alſo. The remaining nobles, as well as the ſmall minority of the clergy, now found themſelves awkwardly ſituated. Whether on this account, or becauſe their leaders had by this time formed a plan for carrying their point, not by peaceable means but by the aid of a military force, the king, on the 27th, invited, by a preſſing letter, both orders to join the commons. This requeſt was immediately complied with, although many of the nobility diſapproved of the meaſure. The ſituation of France was now become truly alarming. When the king retired from the aſſembly after the royal ſeſſion, he was followed by more than 6000 citizens, from whom loud clamours and every mark of diſapprobation broke forth. All Verſailles was ſpeedily in an uproar. M. Neckar had repeatedly ſolicited his diſmiſſion, and the report of this had increaſed the popular clamour. The court was in conſternation. At 6 o'clock P. M. the queen ſent for M. Neckar. When he returned from the palace, he aſſured the crowd that waited for him that he would not abandon them; upon which they retired ſatisfied. At the ſame time the news of the royal ſeſſion had thrown all Paris into violent agitation. The peace of that capital was at this time endangered by various cauſes. A dreadful famine raged through the land, which in a great city is uſually moſt ſeverely felt. This prepared the people for receiving unfavourable impreſſions of their political ſtate. Every effort was alſo made to diſorganize the government, and produce a diſlike to the ancient order of things. The preſs poured forth innumerable publications, filled with new and ſeducing theories of liberty. Theſe were aſcribed to the D. of Orleans, who is even ſaid to have bribed ſome of the members of Aſſembly. The militia were alſo ſeduced, and imbibed the new opinions, from the popular harangues. In a caſe of a riot on the 23d June, they refuſed to fire on the mob. Some of them were apprehended, but were reſcued by the mob, and pardoned by the aſſembly. All theſe events, together with the tumultuous ſtate of the capital, which was daily increaſing, made the king call out the military force to reſtore the public peace. That his intentions were pure, the then ſtate of affairs will permit no honeſt man to doubt; but the ariſtocracy, with the Count d'Artois at their head, were bringing forward other meaſures, which ultimately contributed to the ruin of themſelves, the king, and the kingdom. Crowds of ſoldiers were collected from all parts of the kingdom around Paris and Verſailles. Theſe conſiſted chiefly of foreign mercenaries. Camps were traced out. Marſhal Broglio, a tried veteran, was ſent for and placed at the head of the army. The king was ſuppoſed to have entirely yielded to new counſel, and every thing bore the appearance of a deſperate effort to reſtore the energy of the ancient government. It was rumoured, that Paris was to be beſieged and bombarded; that the aſſembly was to be diſſolved, and its leaders put to death; but the criſis of French liberty was univerſally regarded as at hand. An able and eloquent addreſs to the king, againſt the aſſemblage of foreign troops in their neighbourhood, was brought forward by Mirabeau, and voted by the aſſembly. The king properly replied, that the ſtate of the capital was the cauſe of aſſembling troops, and offered to tranſfer the ſtates general to Noyons or Soiſſons "We will remove (ſaid Mirabeau) to neither. We will not place ourſelves between two hoſtile armies, &c." There were now ſtationed in the neighbourhood of Paris and Verſailles, 35,000 men. The poſts were occupied which commanded the city, and camps were marked out for a greater force. The Count d'Artois and his party regarded their plans as ripe for execution; and M. Neckar received a letter from the king requiring him to quit the kingdom in 24 hours. That popular miniſter took the rout of Bruſſels on the following day, when his departure was made public. In his diſmiſſion the popular, or as it was now called the *democratic* party, thought they ſaw the reſolution adopted to accompliſh their ruin. The aſſembly again addreſſed the throne; they requeſted anew the removal of the troops, offering to be reſponſible for the public peace, and to proceed in a body to Paris to encounter perſonally every danger that might occur. But they were coolly told, that the king was the beſt judge of the mode of employing the troops, and that the preſence of the aſſembly was neceſſary at Verſailles. On this, it was inſtantly decreed, on the motion of the marquis De la Fayette, that the late miniſtry had *carried with them* the confidence of the aſſembly; that the troops *ought* to be *removed;* that the miniſtry are reſponſible to the people for their conduct; that the aſſembly perſiſted in all its former decrees; and that as it had taken the public debt under the protection of the nation, no power in France was entitled to pronounce the infamous word *bankruptcy*. All Paris was thrown into conſternation by M. Neckar's retreat. His buſt and that of the duke d'Orleans were dreſſed in mourning, and carried through the ſtreets. The royal Allemand, a German regiment, broke the buſts, and diſperſed the mob. The prince De Lambeſq, grand ecuyer of France, was ordered to advance with his regiment of cavalry, and took poſt at the Thuilleries. Being a man of a violent temper, and enraged by the appearances of diſapprobation viſible around him, he furiouſly cut down with his ſword a poor old man who was walking peaceably. A ſhout of execration inſtantly aroſe; the cry *to arms* was heard; the military was aſſaulted on all ſides; the French guards joined their countrymen, and compelled the Germans to retire. All order was now at an end, and as night approached an univerſal terror was diffuſed through the city. Bands of robbers were collecting, and a general pillage was dreaded. The night paſſed in conſternation and tumult. In the morning, the hoſpital of St Lazare was found plundered. The alarm bells were rung; the citizens aſſembled at the Hotel de Ville, and enrolled themſelves as a militia for general defence, under the title of the *national guard*. This day and the ſucceeding night were ſpent in tolerable quietneſs. On the morning of the memorable 14th of July, it was diſcovered that the troops encamped in the Champs Eliſées

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had moved off, and an immediate aſſault was expected. The national guard now amounted to 150,000 men; but they were deſtitute of arms. They had aſſumed a green cockade; but this being the livery of Count Artois, they adopted one of red, blue, and white. M. De la Salle was named commander in chief, officers were choſen, and detachments ſent in queſt of arms. In the Hotel des Invalides upwards of 30,000 ſtand of arms were found, along with 20 pieces of cannon; a variety of weapons was alſo procured from the *garde meuble de la couronne*, and from the ſhops of armourers, cutlers, &c. The celebrated fortreſs of the BASTILE was an object of much jealouſy to the Pariſians. At 11 A. M. M. de la Roſier, with a numerous deputation, waited on M. De Launay the governor, who promiſed not to fire upon the city, unleſs attacked; inſtead of which, he ſoon after admitted a multitude of perſons into the Baſtile, and then treacherouſly maſſacred them. This fact was atteſted by the D. of Dorſet, then Britiſh ambaſſador in Paris. An immenſe and furious multitude inſtantly ruſhed into the outer court, and ſoon forced into the inner, where, after five hours ſevere firing, the fort and garriſon ſurrendered. The governor and his major became victims of the popular fury; but the French guards, who had affiſted the people, ſaved the garriſon. Only ſeven priſoners were found in the Baſtile, and the keys were ſent to M. Briſſot. A letter found in the governor's pocket, proved M. de Fleſſelles a traitor to the people, who immediately put him to death. The reſt of this day was ſpent in a mixture of alarm and triumph, and a general illumination laſted the whole night.

(4.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE DECREES ABOLISHING FEUDAL RIGHTS. The new miniſtry were now entering upon a difficult ſcene of action, where one falſe ſtep might lead to ruin, and where their own plan of conduct required to be maturely digeſted. Marſhall Broglio was made miniſter of war, the baron de Breteuil preſident of finance, M. De la Galeziere comptroller general, M. De la Porte intendant of the war department, and M. Foulon intendant of the navy; but theſe were only meant to act as official men under Count Artois, and the other leaders of the ariſtocracy. To theſe leaders no reſource was left, but that of overawing by military power the national aſſembly and the capital, and of riſking the deſperate meaſure of a national bankruptcy, which the court had not formerly dared to encounter, and to avoid which it had convoked the ſtates general. No trace remains, however, of any attempt to put this laſt reſource in execution. The evening after Neckar's departure was ſpent by the court in feaſting and joy, as if a victory had been gained. The courtiers of both ſexes went round among the ſoldiers, ſtriving to ſecure their fidelity by careſſes, largeſſes, and every ſpecies of flattering attention. The miniſtry not only failed to ſupport the prince de Lambeſq in the poſt he had been ſent to occupy, but they ſuffered the whole of the 13th to paſs in indeciſion, while the capital was in a ſtate of rebellion, while an army was formally muſtering within its walls, and the names of the principal nobility were put up in liſts of proſcriptions. They received the news of the capture of the Baſtile with diſmay, which was increaſed by information from M. Broglio, that the troops refuſed to act againſt Paris or the national aſſembly. In this perplexity they adopted the miſerable device of concealing from the king the ſtate of public affairs: and that unfortunate prince was thus perhaps the only perſon out of millions, who remained ignorant of the convulſions in which his capital was involved. At length, at midnight the Duke of Liancourt forced his way into the king's apartment, and told him of the revolt of his capital, of his army, and of the ſurrender of the fortreſs of the Baſtile. Artois, who was preſent, ſtill attempted to retain the monarch under his fatal deluſion; but Liancourt, turning round, exclaimed, "As for you, Sir, your life can only be ſaved by inſtant flight; I have ſeen with horror your name in the bloody liſt of the proſcribed." Accordingly the Count, with the members of his ſhort-lived adminiſtration and their adherents, fled to the frontiers. And thus an emigration commenced, the ſource of that terrible conteſt which has covered Europe with bloodſhed and mourning. But the perſon of the monarch was ſtill beloved.—Early next morning the king went to the aſſembly, but with none of the uſual ſolemnities. He "regretted the commotions of the capital, diſavowed any knowledge of an intention againſt the perſons of the deputies, and intimated that he had commanded the removal of the troops." A deep and expreſſive ſilence prevailed for a few moments; this was ſucceeded by vehement and univerſal ſhouts of applauſe. The king aroſe to depart, and inſtantly the whole aſſembly attended him to his palace. The queen appeared at a balcony with the dauphin in her arms; the muſic playing the pathetic air of *Ou peut-on être mieux qu'au ſein de ſa famille*. The enthuſiaſm of loyalty communicated itſelf to the ſurrounding multitudes, and nothing was heard but acclamations of joy. On the following day the king declared his reſolution to viſit the city of Paris in perſon. Accordingly he ſet out, attended by ſome members of the aſſembly and by the militia of Verſailles. He was met by the celebrated M. De la Fayette, at the head of a body of the national guard, of which he was now commander in chief. M. Bailly, in whoſe perſon the ancient office of mayor of Paris had been revived, received the king at the gates, and delivered to him the keys. All this while no ſhout was heard from the crowd of innumerable ſpectators, but that of *Vive la nation*. The king advanced to the Hotel de Ville, where the new cockade was preſented to him, which he put on, and preſented himſelf with it at a window. At the ſight of this badge of patriotiſm an univerſal ſhout of *Vive le Roi* burſt forth from every quarter; and he returned to Verſailles amidſt general triumph and applauſe. Much confuſion ſtill prevailed in Paris, but there was more appearance of regularity than could have been expected at the concluſion of ſuch important events. This aroſe from a caſual concurrence of circumſtances. To conduct with eaſe the elections to the ſtates general, Paris had been divided into 60 diſtricts, each of which had a ſeparate place of meeting. The people did not elect

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the members to the ſtates general; but they choſe delegates, who, under the name of electors, voted for the members. At the commencement of the diſturbances, the electors, at the requeſt of their fellow-citizens, aſſumed a temporary authority; of which, however, they were ſoon weary, and procured the public election of 120 perſons as municipal officers for the government of the city. The citizens having got the habit of aſſembling in their diſtricts, grew fond of it: they aſſembled frequently, made rules for their own government, and ſent commiſſioners to communicate with other diſtricts. Theſe meetings, however, gradually ripened into clubs, in which much dexterity and intrigue were exerted. The whole of the late miniſtry eſcaped excepting M. Foulon. His character was very unpopular: for he ſaid, that he would "make the people of Paris eat hay." He had retired to the country, but was ſeized by his own vaſſals, and brought to Paris with a bundle of hay tied to his back. In ſpite of every effort made by Bailly and Fayette to procure him a fair trial at leaſt, he was carried to the *Place de Greve*, and hanged at a lamp-iron by the enraged multitude. His ſon-in-law M. Berthier, attempting to defend himſelf againſt a ſimilar fate, fell, covered with wounds. Their heads were carried round on poles; and thus the populace became habituated to the ſight of blood and murder; they were even taught by popular ſongs to glory in ſuch actions, and particularly by the well known ſong CA IRA. In conſequence of an invitation from the king, M. Neckar returned to France. He was received by the aſſembly with great applauſe, and in Paris with infinite ſolemnity and triumph. He here, however, committed a political error. In deploring the late exceſſes and murders, and taking notice of the arreſt of M. Bezenval, an officer of the Swiſs guards, he requeſted of the electors at the Hotel de Ville, in a ſolemn harangue, that the paſt ſhould be forgotten; that proſcriptions ſhould ceaſe, and a general amneſty be proclaimed. In a moment of enthuſiaſm this was agreed to, but the electors decreed what unqueſtionably exceeded their powers. The diſtricts of Paris were inſtantly in commotion; the electors alarmed, declared that they only meant that "henceforth the people would puniſh no man but according to law;" and, at the ſame time, to prove that they themſelves were free from ambition, they formally renounced all their own powers. The aſſembly took up the queſtion. Meſſ. Lally, Tolendal, Mounier, Clermont, Tonnerre, Garat junior, and others, declared that no perſon ought to be arreſted without a formal accuſation. While Meſſ. Mirabeau, Robeſpierre, Barnave, and Gleizen, alleged, on the contrary, that the people were entitled to lay hold of any man who had publicly appeared at the head of their enemies. The debate ended, by admitting the explanation of the electors, and by a declaration, that it was the duty of the aſſembly to ſee juſtice executed in all caſes. The commotions and enthuſiaſm of the capital were ſpeedily communicated to the provinces. In every quarter the people ſeized upon all the arms that could be found, and the military uniformly refuſed to act againſt them. Many outrages were committed in Brittany, at Straſbourg, in the Linnois, and elſewhere, in which the nobility were the ſufferers. The miſchiefs that occurred were uſually magniſied at a diſtance; but that very circumſtance was an additional evil. It would be vain to ſtate all the idle rumours to which at this time the blind credulity of the multitude gave currency. One report was no ſooner proved to be falſe than another aroſe, and the whole nation was agitated by ſuſpicion and alarm. On the afternoon ſitting of the 4th of Auguſt, the Viſcount de Noailles, ſeconded by the Duke d'Aiguillon, opened one of the moſt important ſcenes in the French Revolution, or in the hiſtory of any country. Theſe noblemen ſtated, that the true cauſe of the commotions which convulſed the kingdom exiſted in the miſery of the people, who groaned under the double oppreſſion of public contributions and of feudal ſervices. "For three months (ſaid M. de Noailles) the people have beheld us engaged in verbal diſputes, while their own attention and their wiſhes are directed only to things. What is the conſequence? They are armed to reclaim their rights, and they ſee no proſpect of obtaining them but by force." He therefore propoſed to do juſtice as the ſhorteſt way of reſtoring tranquility, and for that purpoſe to decree, that henceforth every tax ſhould be impoſed in proportion to the wealth of the contributors, and that no order of the ſtate ſhould be exempted from the payment of public burdens; that feudal claims ſhould be redeemed at a fair valuation; but that ſuch claims as conſiſted of perſonal ſervices on the part of the vaſſal ſhould be aboliſhed without compenſation, as contrary to the impreſcriptible rights of man. The extenſive poſſeſſions of the noblemen who made theſe propoſals added much luſtre to the diſintereſted ſacrifice which they offered. Their ſpeeches were received with the moſt enthuſiaſtic applauſes by the Aſſembly and the galleries, and their propoſals were decreed by acclamation without a vote. No nation is ſo much led by the influence of ſudden emotions as the French. The patriotic contagion now ſpread faſt through every breaſt, and a conteſt of generoſity enſued. The hereditary juriſdictions poſſeſſed by the nobles within their own territories were next ſacrificed. All places and penſions granted by the Court were ſuppreſſed, unleſs granted as the reward of merit or of actual ſervices. The game laws, which condemned the huſbandman, under ſevere penalties, to leave his property a prey to infinite multitudes of animals reſerved for paſtime, had always been numbered among the ſevere grievances of the French peaſantry. Theſe were therefore renounced along with the excluſive rights of rabbit warrens, fiſheries, and dovecotes. The ſale of offices was aboliſhed, and the fees exacted from the poor, together with the privilege of holding a plurality of livings, were relinquiſhed by the clergy. The deputies of the *Pais d'Etat*, or privileged provinces, with the deputies of Dauphiné at their head, next came forward, and offered a ſurrender of their ancient privileges, requeſting that the kingdom might no longer remain parcelled out among Dauphinois, Bretons, Provençaux, &c. but that they ſhould all form one great maſs of French citizens. They were followed

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lowed by the repreſentatives of Paris, Marſeilles Lyons, Bourdeaux, Straſbourg, &c. who requeſted leave to renounce all their ſeparate privileges as incorporations, for the ſake of placing every man and every village in the nation upon a footing of equality. Thus the Aſſembly proceeded, till every member had exhauſted his imagination upon the ſubject of reform. To cloſe the whole, the duke of Liancourt propoſed that a ſolemn *Te Deum* ſhould be performed, that a medal ſhould be ſtruck in commemoration of the events of that night; and that the title of RESTORER OF GALLIC LIBERTY ſhould be beſtowed upon the reigning monarch. A deputation was accordingly appointed to wait upon the king, reſpectfully to inform him of theſe decrees.

(5.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE FIRST GRAND CONFEDERATION IN 1790. The Catholic clergy of France, though poſſeſſed of more property than they ever enjoyed, were terrified into a voluntary ſurrender of all that they and their predeceſſors had poſſeſſed for ages. As a ſhort ſeaſon of tranquillity in the Court and the National Aſſembly ſucceeded theſe great popular ſacrifices, the King laid hold of it as a fit opportunity for the appointment of a new miniſtry. They conſiſted of the Abps. of Vienne and Bourdeaux, M. Neckar, and the Counts de St Prieſt, Montmorin, la Luzerne, and de la Tour du Pin Paulin. M. Neckar, as miniſter of finance, having ſtated the diſtreſſed ſituation of the revenue, preſented the plan of a loan of thirty millions of livres. But M. Mirabeau prevailed with the aſſembly, to alter and to narrow the conditions of it to ſuch a degree, that very few ſubſcribers were found, and the loan could not be filled up. This failure involved the Aſſembly in a conſiderable degree of unpopularity; in conſequence of which they allowed M. Neckar to preſcribe his own terms for the purpoſe of obtaining a loan of eighty millions. But the happy inſtant of public confidence had been allowed to paſs away, and this loan was never more than half filled up. Recourſe was next had to patriotic contributions: and great numbers of gold rings, ſilver buckles, and pieces of plate, were preſented to the Aſſembly. The Royal family themſelves ſent their plate to the mint. The confuſion, into which the nation had been thrown by the late events, had produced a ſuſpenſion of the payment of all taxes. There exiſted, in fact, no efficient government. The buſineſs of government could not be tranſacted without money, and many vain efforts were made by the miniſtry to procure it. At length M. Neckar was driven to the deſperate reſource of propoſing a *compulſory loan*, or that every individual poſſeſſed of property ſhould advance to the ſtate a ſum equal to one 4th of his annual income. This bold propoſition was ſupported by Mirabeau, and adopted by the Aſſembly; but it does not appear to have ever been effectually executed. In the mean time, the Aſſembly was occupied in framing the celebrated declaration of the *Rights of Man*, which was afterwards prefixed to the new conſtitution. This was followed by the diſcuſſion of a point of much delicacy and difficulty; viz. What ſhare of legiſlative authority the king ought to poſſeſs under the new conſtitution; whether an abſolute negative or VETO, a ſuſpenſive *veto*, or no *veto* at all? The debates were vehement and tumultuous, and continued for many days. At laſt it was ſettled that the executive power could poſſeſs no negative againſt the decrees of the aſſembly, which had been nominated by the nation with ſupreme powers for the expreſs purpoſe of framing a conſtitution, which was to remain binding over all orders of men in the ſtate; and with regard to future legiſlatures, the king declared by a meſſage, that he wiſhed to poſſeſs no more than a *ſuſpenſive veto*. In the beginning of Sept. the queſtion was debated, whether the legiſlative body ſhould conſiſt of one or 2 chambers. But tho' the moderate party wiſhed for a conſtitution reſembling the Britiſh, out of 1000 who voted, only 89 were for the affirmative. Soon after this, the king gave his ſanction to the important decrees of the 4th of Auguſt, but not without expreſſing doubts of the wiſdom of ſome of them in a letter to the aſſembly. At the ſame time the *inviolability* of the perſon of the monarch was decreed, the indiviſiblity of the throne, and its hereditary deſcent from male to male in the reigning family.—From the period of the defection of the French guards, who were now in the pay of the city, the protection of the royal family had been entruſted to the national guard of Verſailles, together with the regiment of the *gardes du corps*, which was compoſed entirely of gentlemen. A report being circulated of the intended flight of the king, the French guards began to wiſh to be reſtored to their ancient employment of attending his perſon to prevent any attempt of this nature. This idea was eagerly cheriſhed by the capital; and, in ſpite of every effort uſed by M. De la Fayette, the appearance of approaching diſturbances could not be prevented. The popular party ſaw the advantages which they would derive from placing the aſſembly and the king in the midſt of that turbulent metropolis, which had given birth to the revolution, and upon the attachment of which they could moſt ſecurely depend. Every encouragement was therefore given by the moſt active leaders of the Democratic party to the eſtabliſhing the court at Paris. The miniſtry were under alarm and the count d' Eſtaing, who commanded the national guard of Verſailles, requeſted an additional regiment. The regiment of Flanders was accordingly ſent for: its arrival cauſed no ſmall degree of anxiety; and every effort was inſtantly made to gain over both officers and ſoldiers to the popular cauſe. On the 1ſt Oct. the Garde du Corps, invited the officers of that regiment to a public entertainment along with ſeveral officers of the national guard. Several loyal toaſts were drank, but when the popular toaſt, *the Nation* was given, it was rejected by the garde du corps. About this juncture the queen, king, and dauphin paid the company a viſit. French loyalty was inſtantly rouſed. The Flanders grenadiers, Swiſs chaſſeurs, and their officers, drank the health of the royal perſonages, who made a politic retreat. The muſic played up a favourite air expreſſive that the royal family were deſerted by the world. In this fit of loyalty, the national cockades were thrown aſide, and white ones quickly ſupp

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ſupplied by the court ladies. When theſe trifling circumſtances were next day reported at Paris with many exaggerations, they gave riſe to the moſt violent alarm. For four days no notice was taken in the aſſembly of what had paſſed at the entertainment given by the gardes du corps. On the 5th Oct. M. Petion mentioned it for the firſt time, and a violent debate enſued; during which Mirabeau roſe and exclaimed, "Declare that the king's perſon *alone* is ſacred, and I myſelf will bring forward an impeachment;" thereby alluding to the conduct of the queen. While this debate was proceeding at Verſailles, all Paris was in commotion. A vaſt multitude of women of the loweſt rank, with ſome men in women's clothes, had aſſembled at the *Hotel de Ville*, and were calling aloud for arms and bread. They reſolved to proceed inſtantly to Verſailles to demand bread from the king and the national aſſembly. La Fayette oppoſed them in vain; for his own ſoldiers refuſed to turn their bayonets againſt the women. Upon this one Staniſlaus Maillard, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf at the taking of the Baſtile, offered himſelf as a leader to the inſurgents. He had the addreſs to prevail with them to lay aſide ſuch arms as they had procured; and he ſet out for Verſailles about noon with as much order among his followers as could well be expected from ſuch an aſſemblage. Either becauſe the paſſion for going to Verſailles had ſuddenly become too infectious to be reſiſted, or becauſe the multitude already gone thither was now accounted dangerous, the mayor and municipality of Paris thought fit to give orders to la Fayette inſtantly to ſet out for that place at the head of the national guard. In the mean time, Maillard approached Verſailles with his tumultuous troop; he arranged them in three diviſions, and perſuaded them to behave with tolerable decency. The king was hunting in the woods of Mendon, when he was informed of the arrival of a moſt formidable band of women calling aloud for bread. Maillard entered the aſſembly accompanied by a deputation of his followers to ſtate the object of their journey. The aſſembly, to pacify them, ſent a deputation of their own number along with them to lay their complaints before the king. His majeſty received the whole with great politeneſs, and agreed to adopt any meaſures for the ſupply of the capital that could be ſuggeſted. This had ſuch an effect upon the multitude, that they began to diſperſe; but they were ſpeedily ſucceeded by another crowd not leſs numerous. A ſudden reſolution of flight ſeems now to have been propoſed by the court; for the king's carriages were brought to the gate of the palace which communicates with the Orangery; but the national guard of Verſailles refuſed to allow them to paſs; and the king himſelf refuſed to remove, or to allow any blood to be ſhed in his cauſe. La Fayette with his army at length arrived about 10 o'clock at night, and found the aſſembly in a very unpleaſant ſituation. Their hall and galleries were crowded by the Pariſian fiſh-women and others of the mob, who, at every inſtant, interrupted the debates. La Fayette waited upon the king, and informed him of the proceedings of the day, planted guards in every quarter; and after a ſcanty banquet had been procured for the multitude, he prevailed with the aſſembly to cloſe their ſitting for the night. All was quiet, however, till about ſix in the morning of the 6th, when a great number of women and deſperate perſons ruſhed forward to the palace, and attempted to force their way into it. Two of the gardes du corps were killed; the crowd aſcended the ſtair-caſe leading to the queen's apartment, but were bravely reſiſted by Miemandre a ſentinel, who gave the alarm, and defended his poſt till he fell covered with wounds, of which, however, he afterwards recovered. The ruffians, reeking with his blood, ruſhed into the queen's chamber, and pierced with bayonets and poniards the bed whence this perſecuted woman had but juſt time to fly almoſt naked, and, through ways unknown to the murderers, had eſcaped to ſeek refuge with the king, who was alarmed, and had gone to ſeek her. The tumult became more violent every moment, and ſudden death ſeemed to threaten the royal family; but la Fayette was by this time at the head of his troops, whom he beſeeched earneſtly to ſave the gardes du corps from maſſacre. In this he was ſucceſsful; ſome that had been taken priſoners were ſurrounded by the grenadiers of the French guards who protected them, and the retreat of the whole corps was eaſily ſecured. The crowd was ſpeedily driven from the different quarters of the palace, which they were already beginning to pillage; and the royal family ventured to ſhow themſelves at a balcony. A few voices now exclaimed, *the King to Paris*. The ſhout ſoon became general; and the king, after conſulting with la Fayette, declared that he would take up his reſidence at Paris, provided he was accompanied by the queen and his children. When the propoſal was reported to the aſſembly, the popular leaders expreſſed much ſatisfaction. They ordered a deputation of 100 members to attend the king thither; they voted the national aſſembly inſeparable from the king. He ſet out at two o'clock in the cuſtody of the mob. Two gentlemen were ſelected from his body guard, and, with all the parade of an execution, beheaded in the court of his palace. Their heads were ſtuck upon ſpears, and led the proceſſion; whilſt the royal captives who followed in the train, and beheld this ſpectacle, were conducted ſo ſlowly, that a ſhort journey of 12 miles was protracted to ſix hours. The king, the queen, and their children, were lodged in the old palace of the Louvre, while Monſieur went to reſide at the Luxemburg. The city was illuminated, and the evening ſpent in triumph by the Pariſians. The higher order of nobles conſidered this event as ruinous to their cauſe; and the D. of Orleans, being ſuſpected as the cauſe of the late diſturbances, went by La Fayette's advice to London, where he reſided ſeveral months. On the 19th Oct. the National Aſſembly held its firſt ſeſſion in Paris. The King was cloſely guarded in his own palace; and no apparent oppoſition now ſtood in the way to prevent the popular party from giving to their country ſuch a conſtitution as they might judge expedient. Much, however, was yet to be done, and

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many difficulties remained, resulting from old prejudices. Two days after the Assembly came to Paris, a baker was publickly executed by the mob, upon a false accusation of having concealed a quantity of bread.—While the Assembly was at a distance, events of this nature had been little attended to, and the leading party did not attempt to check these ebullitions of popular violence, from which they had derived so much advantage; but that party was now all powerful, and considered so flagrant an offence against the law as an insult upon the National Assembly. Two leaders of the mob were therefore tried and publicly executed, and a severe law was passed, of the nature of the British riot act, authorising the magistrates to act by military force against any multitude of persons that should refuse to disperse. Thus the peace of the capital was secured for several months; but in the country no small degree of confusion still subsisted. The suspicions which had prevailed at Paris agitated the provinces with the dread of plots and monopolies of grain. The nobleſſe in the country were not satisfied with the liberality with which their representatives had on the 4th of August voted away their privileges and their property. This produced violent jealousies between the peasants and their lords, and conveyed to every corner of the kingdom the political ferment which had commenced at Paris. The National Assembly being now, however, in tolerable security, proceeded in the arduous attempt of forming a free constitution for the great empire of France. The Abbe Sieyes presented a plan for dividing the kingdom into 83 *departments*, of about 324 square leagues, and of each department into several *districts*, and each district was subdivided into *cantons* of four square leagues in extent; and the whole ancient divisions were abolished. An attempt was also made to simplify the relative situation of individuals in civil life, by a decree which put an end to all distinction of orders and immunities, so far as any privilege was concerned. At the same time, the whole of the lands belonging to the church, were confiscated to supply the exigencies of the state: and ASSIGNATS, or assignments, were issued upon them. This measure was proposed by the Bp. of Autun, and Talleyrand Perigord. Next day a decree was passed, suspending the parliaments of the kingdom from the exercise of their functions. These decrees were opposed by the parliaments; who, after a few fruitless struggles, were all obliged to submit to their fate. When the parliament of Paris was abolished, the Chatelet was retained for trying royalists; yet this court had the courage to acquit Baron Bezenval, M. Broglio, and Pr. de Lambesq. During the whole of this winter the king is said to have been strictly watched by his guards. But on the 4th of Feb. he suddenly appeared in the National Assembly, where he complained of the attempts that had been made to shake the new constitution. He declared his wish, "that it should be universally known, that the monarch and the representatives of the nation were united, and their wishes were the same; that he would defend the constitutional liberty of the state; that, in conjunction with the Queen, he would early form the sentiments of his son for that new order of things which the circumstances of the empire had introduced." This declaration greatly dispirited the aristocratic party, and increased that unhappy tendency of looking for aid from foreign countries, which they had always been too apt to indulge. On the 13th Feb. monastic establishments were suppressed, and their lands confiscated; but the friars and nuns were allowed pensions for their subsistence, and to continue the observance of their monastic vows, if they thought fit. In consequence of the evacuation of the monasteries, about this time the *Breton* committee began to assume the appellation of the *Jacobin Club*, from the hall belonging to the Jacobin friars at Paris, in which their meetings were now held. An event occurred at this time which tended in no small degree to increase the odium under which the old government already laboured. This was the publication of the RED BOOK, or list of pensions and donations granted by the crown; which had been communicated by M. Neckar to a committee of the assembly, but under promise of *secrecy*. He was therefore highly displeased when they published it, which hurt his popularity, although it exposed the immense waste of the public money on court favourites. Indeed, at this time, fertile causes of alarm prevailed on all sides. The clergy were attempting to revive in the provinces the ancient animosities between the Roman Catholics and the Protestants, ascribing the late decrees of the Assembly to the latter. The German Princes who possessed property in the north of France complained loudly of the violation of their rights by the abolition of the feudal system, although the national assembly had voted to them a compensation. The most melancholy intelligence was received from their colonies in the West Indies. See HISPANIOLA, § 4. On the 14th of May, M. de Montmorency communicated to the national assembly the preparations for war in which England and Spain were engaged. This brought forward the constitutional question, "Who ought to possess the power of declaring peace and war?" Clermont Tonnerre, Serent, Virieu, and Dupont supported the royal prerogative; while on the other side, the exclusive right of the legislative body to exercise this important prerogative was supported by D'Aiguillon, Garat jun. Freteau, Jellin, Charles Lameth, Sillery, Petion, Robespierre, &c. Petion proposed a decree "that the French nation renounced for ever all idea of conquest, confining itself entirely to defensive war;" which was passed with universal acclamation. Mirabeau at length successfully proposed that peace and war should be declared by the king and the legislative body in conjunction; although the decree that was passed on the subject is a strange farrago of contradictions. On the 19th June, a very singular farce was acted in the Assembly. Anacharsis Clootz, a Prussian nobleman, (See CLOOTZ,) on an evening sitting, introduced to the assembly a number of persons dressed in the different habits of all the different countries that could be thought of. He told the assembly that he was come, as the *orator of the human race*, at the head of the representatives of all nations, to congratulate them upon the formation of their new constitution. He was answered by the President with abundance of learn-

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lensity, and retired with his motley groupe. Alexander Lameth propoſed, that the figures of different nations exhibited in chains at the feet of Lewis XIV. ſhould be deſtroyed as an inſult upon mankind. M. Lambel, a lawyer, inſtantly propoſed the *abolition of all hereditary titles*. He was ſupported by La Fayette, St Fargeau, and the Viſcount de Noailles. The decree was paſſed, with another, ſuppreſſing all armorial bearings. It is remarkable, that of all the King's miniſters, Neckar alone, a plebeian, a republican, born and bred in a democracy, adviſed Lewis XVI. to refuſe his aſſent to this decree, as a violent but uſeleſs encroachment upon the prejudices of a powerful order of the ſtate. In the mean time, the capital was entirely engroſſed by hurry and buſtle. M. Bailly had propoſed a plan for commemorating the anniverſary of the taking of the Baſtile. It was adopted, becauſe it flattered the vanity of the people, by preſenting them with a ſplendid ſpectacle in commemoration of their own exertions. —The army had been much diſorganized; and it was reſolved to attempt to unite all its branches, as well as the whole departments of the ſtate, in one common attachment to the new order of things, by collecting into one place deputations, for the purpoſe of ſwearing fidelity to the new conſtitution. In the middle of the Champ de Mars an altar was erected, at which the civic oath, or oath of fidelity to the nation, was to be taken. Around the altar an amphitheatre was thrown up capable of containing 400,000 ſpectators; 2000 workmen were employed in this operation; and the people of Paris, fearing leſt the plan might not be completed, aſſiſted in the labour. All ranks of perſons, the nobles, clergy, and even ladies, with the eagerneſs for novelty ſo peculiar to that people, united their efforts. Crowds of foreigners as well as natives hurried to the capital to be preſent at this ſolemnity, which was called the *Confederation*. The 14th of July at length arrived. At ſix o'clock in the morning the proceſſion was arranged on the Boulevards, and conſiſted of the electors of Paris, the repreſentatives of the commune, the adminiſtrators of the municipality, a battalion of children, with a ſtandard, inſcribed "The hopes of the nation;" deputies from the troops of France wherever quartered, and of every order, along with deputies from all the departments; to theſe were added immenſe detachments of the military, and of the national guards, along with an almoſt infinite multitude of drums, trumpets, and muſical inſtruments. The proceſſion was extremely ſplendid, as every diſtrict had its peculiar decorations. The national aſſembly paſſed through a grand triumphal arch, and the king and queen, attended by the foreign miniſters, were placed in a ſuperb box. After a ſolemn invocation to God, the king approached the altar, and, amidſt the deepeſt ſilence, took the following oath: "I the king of the French do ſwear to the nation, that I will employ the whole power delegated to me by the conſtitutional law of the ſtate, to maintain the conſtitution, and enforce the execution of the law." The preſident of the national aſſembly then went up to the altar, and took the civic oath, "I ſwear to be faithful to the nation, the law, and the king; and to maintain with all my powers the conſtitution decreed by the national aſſembly, and accepted by the king." Every member of the aſſembly ſtanding up, ſaid, "That I ſwear." La Fayette then advancing, took the oath for himſelf; the other deputies of the national guards pronouncing after him, "That I ſwear;" and theſe words were ſolemnly pronounced by every individual of this immenſe aſſembly. *Te Deum* was then ſung. The performance was ſublime beyond the powers of deſcription. Never perhaps before was there ſuch an orcheſtra, or ſuch an audience: their numbers baffled the eye to reckon, and their ſhouts in full chorus rent the ſkies. It is impoſſible to enumerate all the means which were employed to add ſplendor to this day. It ended with a general illumination, and no accident diſturbed the public tranquillity.

(6.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE FLIGHT AND ARRESTMENT OF THE KING. The aſſembly now proceeded in the formation of the conſtitution with conſiderable tranquillity; which, however, was diſturbed by an unhappy event at Nancy. Moſt of the officers of the army were very unfriendly to the late revolution, and every means had been employed by them to diſguſt the ſoldiers with it. At Nancy, in particular, neceſſaries had been denied them, and their pay was kept back, under pretence that this was the will of the national aſſembly. Driven to deſpair, the regiments in garriſon threw off their allegiance, and demanded loudly the regimental accounts. They ſeized at the ſame time the military cheſt, and ſent a deputation to ſtate their caſe at Paris to the national aſſembly. But the officers were before-hand, and prepoſſeſſed the miniſter of war againſt them; upon whoſe repreſentation a decree was paſſed, authoriſing the commander in chief of the province, M. Bouillé, to reduce the inſurgents by force. This was no ſooner known, than the national guard of Nancy aſſembled, and ſent a deputation to give a fair ſtatement of facts. But Bouillé, without waiting the reſult of an explanation, haſtened to Nancy at the head of all the troops he could ſuddenly collect; and having fallen upon the regiments of Chateauvieux and Meſtre de Camp, after putting an immenſe multitude to the ſword, he took 400 priſoners. The King's regiment was prevented from acting againſt Bouillé by the intrepidity of a young officer of the name of *Deſſilles*, who, however, died of the wounds which he received on the occaſion. The news of theſe events filled Paris with indignation. The aſſembly afterwards reverſed its own decrees againſt the inſurgents at Nancy. Public honours were decreed to the memory of Deſſilles; but Bouillé could not be puniſhed, becauſe he had only acted in obedience to authority. M. Neckar's popularity had been gradually declining, as he was unwilling to go all the lengths that the ruling party wiſhed. He gave in his reſignation on the 4th Sept. and ſoon after left the kingdom. He was regretted by no party. He was regarded, on the one ſide, as having conducted the kingdom to its ruin, by the conceſſions which he originally adviſed the king to make in favour of the *tiers etat*; while he was deſpiſed by the oppoſite party as a lukewarm politician, of narrow

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views, and a feeble mind. He preſerved, however, the unblemiſhed reputation of ſtrict integrity. He does not ſeem to have penetrated deeply into the characters of men, or to have had any conception of the effects of that terrible and reſtleſs energy, which is called forth in a nation, which attempts to make important changes in its manners and government. Having no conception of the important era which was about to open upon that country of which he was the miniſter, he was far from being qualified to direct or controul it amidſt the convulſions which it was deſtined to encounter. Unable to brook the loſs of his popularity, he retired to Swiſſerland, and publiſhed a work, wherein he ſhows the integrity of the French king, and the wicked projects of the leading democrates, whom he himſelf had armed with power. The remaining part of this year was occupied in attempts to introduce ſome degree of ſubordination into the navy of France, which had been much diſorganized, and in farther regulating the affairs of the clergy. It was now declared, that ſuch clergymen as ſhould not take the following oath, which had been preſcribed before, ſhould be conſidered as ejected from their benefices: "To be faithful to the nation, the law, and the king; and to maintain to the utmoſt of his power the new conſtitution of France, and particularly the decrees relative to the civil conſtitution of the clergy." This decree rendered the ſituation of conſcientious men very perplexing; eſpecially as the pope diſapproved of the oath. The people were reduced to the dilemma of chooſing between their new political and their old religious prejudices, and the reſult was very unfavourable to religion. The aſſembly commenced the year 1791 with a decree announcing the termination of its ſeſſion, which was to take place as ſoon as it ſhould have finiſhed the diſcuſſion of a liſt of conſtitutional articles. In the mean time, on the ſide of Germany, Spain, Italy, and Savoy, hoſtile appearances began to be exhibited, and bodies of troops advanced around the French frontier. Leopold II. was, however, too cautious to announce his intentions; and the King ſoon communicated a letter from him, containing proteſtations of amicable diſpoſitions, but adding, that "the innovations occaſioned by the decrees of the 4th of Auguſt ought to be done away." The King treated this merely as an official meaſure on the part of the Emperor, that he might not appear to renounce the claims of certain German princes connected with Lorraine and Alſace. But the aſſembly expreſſed ſome alarm, and voted an augmentation of the national force. About this period ſeveral new efforts were made by the diſaffected clergy in various parts of the kingdom to excite diſturbances, which it is unneceſſary to mention in detail. On the 20th Feb. the public attention was roufed by a circumſtance that in any other ſtate of affairs would have been accounted unimportant. The King announced to the aſſembly, that his aunts, the daughters of Lewis XV. had that morning left Paris; but as he did not apprehend that the exiſting laws laid them under any reſtraint in this reſpect, he had not oppoſed their departure. After ſome debate, the aſſembly agreed that the King had judged well; and theſe princeſſes were left to purſue their journey to Rome, which they reached after ſome delays occaſioned by the jealouſy of certain municipalities through which they paſſed. Thus the kingdom was gradually deſerted by every branch of the royal family, excepting the King and his eldeſt brother Monſieur. The aſſembly, however, continued its labours with conſiderable quietneſs. On the 2d of April, died the celebrated M. De Mirabeau, at the age of 42 years. (See MIRABEAU, N° 2.) A mourning of 8 days was decreed by the aſſembly; and he was the firſt who was interred in the new magnificent *Pantheon*, conſecrated to the reception of the remains of illuſtrious men. But his aſhes were afterwards removed, in conſequence of proofs that he had not been incorruptible. During this ſpring, much fear was entertained that ſome attempts at a counter revolution were about to be made. The emigrant army aſſembled on the borders of Alſace was reviewed by the prince of Condé. Their uniform was black, faced with yellow, with a death's head, ſurrounded by a laurel wreath on one cuff, and a ſword on the other with the motto, "Conquer or die." The king was alſo ſurrounded by crowds of nonjuring prieſts and other diſaffected perſons. Thus, that popular jealouſy, which is characteriſtic of all democracies, was kept on the alarm. On the 18th of April, therefore, when the royal family was preparing to go St Cloud to paſs ſome days, a report was inſtantly ſpread that the king was about to fly from the country. The carriages were immediately ſurrounded by people. La Fayette drew out the national guard, but they refuſed to act. "We know (exclaimed they) that we are violating the laws, but the ſafety of our country is the firſt law." The King inſtantly went to the aſſembly, and with much ſpirit complained of the inſult. He was anſwered reſpectfully by the preſident, and continued his journey. As the royal family had enjoyed a conſiderable degree of freedom for ſome time paſt, which was demonſtrated by the unſucceſsful oppoſition made to this journey—this opportunity was embraced for intimating to foreign courts his acceptance of the conſtitution; and all obnoxious perſons were diſmiſſed from his perſon. The breach of diſcipline on the part of the national guard on this occaſion was ſo much reſented by La Fayette, that he reſigned his command. Paris was thrown into conſternation; and it was not till after repeated ſolicitation that he was prevailed upon to reſume his office. About this time M. de Bouillé, to whom the protection of the frontiers was entruſted, employed every means in his power to render the country defenceleſs. The garriſons were left unprovided; diſunion was ſpread among the national troops; they were removed from the frontiers and their places were ſupplied by foreigners. The emigrants abroad, and their friends at home, were lying in wait for an opportunity of revolt;—when ſuddenly on the 21ſt of June, it was announced from the Thuilleries, that the king, the queen the dauphin, with monſieur and madame, had quitted the palace and the capital, without leaving any information of their intention or the route. The emotion excited by this news among the multitude was a mixture of conſternation and rage

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rage. The national assembly, however, acted with much coolness. They instantly took upon themselves the government, and decreed their sittings permanent. They sent messengers in all directions, to attempt to lay hold of the fugitives. These had taken different routs. Monsieur and madame arrived safely at Brussels on the 23d. The king, queen, and their children, when they came to a considerable distance from the capital, were furnished by Bouille with a guard of dragoons, under pretence of protecting treasure for the pay of the troops. At the distance of 156 miles, and when only a few leagues from the frontiers, they were arrested at St Menehould by the postmaster, M. Drouet, formerly a dragoon in the regiment of Condé. At half past 7 P. M. the carriages stopt to change horses at his house; he thought he recollected the queen, and imagined that the king's face resembled the impressions stamped upon assignats. The escort of dragoons increased the suspicion. He suffered them to depart at 11 o'clock without notice; but taking a companion with him, he went by a shorter road to Varennes. With the assistance of the postmaster there he gave the alarm, and overturned a carriage on the bridge, which detained the royal travellers till the national guard of the place had assembled, and the arrest was effected without bloodshed. They were brought back to Paris by a deputation from the assembly. At his departure, the king had imprudently left behind him a memorial, in which he declared, that he never had thought any sacrifice too great for the restoration of order; but that the destruction of the kingdom, and the triumph of anarchy, having the only reward of all his efforts, he thought it necessary to depart from it. He then takes a review of the faults of the new constitution, the grievances he has suffered: and protests against every thing that he had been compelled to do during his captivity. Different parties were very differently affected by this ill-conducted flight of the King. A small republican party had begun to appear, and during the king's absence, attempts were made to induce the public to consider the royal authority as no necessary part of a free constitution. But the minds of the nation were not prepared for the reception of this doctrine. The idea, however, having been thus publickly proposed, left impressions, which in time contributed to give rise to important events. The greater number of leading men, however, were at this period convinced that it was impossible to conduct a great empire like France prosperously, without an hereditary chief. They therefore determined to pass over the affair in silence, and to hasten the period when their new constitution should be complete. But this journey was at the long-run highly instrumental in producing fatal effects to the monarch. His flight formed a signal for emigration. Many of the aristocratic party sent in resignations of their seats in the national assembly. Troops were levied on the frontiers in the King's name; who took care, however, to disavow any connection with such a procedure. Bouillé emigrated, and afterwards sent to the assembly a furious threatening letter: "You shall answer (says he) for the lives of the king and of the queen to all the monarchs of the universe. Touch but a single hair of their heads, and not one stone shall be left upon another in Paris. I know the roads. I will conduct the foreign armies. This letter is but the forerunner of the manifesto of the sovereigns of Europe."

(7.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE KING'S ACCEPTANCE OF THE NEW CONSTITUTION. A considerable calm throughout France followed these events, and it might be regarded as in a state of tranquillity. It contained, indeed, parties entertaining much animosity against each other, and many citizens had withdrawn to foreign countries; but the peace was not broken, and moderate men hoped that much prosperity would follow from the late agitations. But this calm was delusive; and in the midst of it those projects were formed which afterwards proved so fatal to the peace of Europe. Towards the close of this summer, a convention took place at Pilnitz, in Saxony, between the emperor Leopold and the king of Prussia. Its object was not known at the time, but it gradually came into view, and is now by many understood to have been intended for the purpose of concluding a league for the invasion of France, the new-modelling of its government, and the partition of some of its fairest provinces. A paper has been repeatedly published as the copy of a *partition treaty* concluded and signed at Pavia, in July 1791, generally understood to have been identical with the *Treaty of Pilnitz*. Of its authenticity, future historians will judge. The following are the only articles it contains that respect the partition of *France:* "1. The emperor will take all that Lewis XIV. conquered in the Austrian Netherlands, and give them to the elector Palatine. 2. The archdutchess Maria Christina, and the archduke Charles, shall be put into hereditary possession of Lorraine. 3. Alsace shall be restored to the empire. 4. If the Swiss Cantons join the coalition, they shall have Franche Comte. 5. If the king of Sardinia join it, he shall have Bresse, Bugey, and Gex; and shall be suffered to take Dauphiné. 6. The king of Spain shall have Roussillon, Bearn, Corsica, and the French part of St Domingo." All the other articles respected the partition of Poland, which have been most barbarously fulfilled. (See POLAND, § 25 and 26.) It was signed by the emp. "*Leopold, Pr. of Nassau, Count Florida Blanca*, and *Pr. of Bischoffswerder.*" In the mean time, the national assembly was hastening fast to the completion of the new constitution. It was finished on the 3d of Sept. and presented to the king. It began with the *declaration of the rights of a man and a citizen*, and established LIBERTY and EQUALITY in the strongest terms; but the whole constitution has been so often printed, and so universally read, admired by some, and censured by others, throughout all Europe, that we think it quite unnecessary to insert it, especially as it now no longer exists, or influences the present constitution of the French empire, in the smallest degree; all its beauties being swallowed up and annihilated in the present enormous despotism. We shall therefore only mention, that it restricted the number of representatives to the Legislative body, to 745, to be elected out of the 83 departments into which France was then divided:

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vided: That it left the king a *veto*, or power of refuſing his conſent to any act of aſſembly, unleſs the act had been paſſed by 3 ſucceſſive aſſemblies: that it allowed him only the title of *King of the French*, and the preſumptive heir of the Crown, that of *Prince* Royal, and to the reſt of the Royal Family that of *French Princes*. On the 13th Sept. the king announced, by a letter to the Preſident of the Aſſembly, his acceptance of the conſtitution. This event was ordered to be notified to all the foreign courts, and the Aſſembly decreed a general amneſty with reſpect to the events of the revolution. On the following day the king repaired in perſon to the National Aſſembly; and being conducted to a chair of ſtate prepared for him at the ſide of the preſident, he ſigned the conſtitutional act, and took an oath of fidelity to it. He then withdrew, and was attended back to the Thuilleries by the whole Aſſembly, with the preſident at their head.

(8.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE MANIFESTO OF THE D. OF BRUNSWICK. On the 30th Sept. this National Aſſembly, ſince known by the name of the *Conſtituent Aſſembly*, diſſolved itſelf, and gave place to the ſucceeding *Legiſlative National Aſſembly*, which had been elected according to the rules preſcribed by the new conſtitution. On the character and the labours of the *Conſtituent Aſſembly*, we ſhall only remark, that it contained many men of talents, and, in all probability, a conſiderable number of men of integrity. Towards the cloſe of its ſeſſion, it aſſumed a very ſtriking character of moderation, and appears to have been completely *monarchical*, although its jealouſy of the ancient ariſtocracy prevented it from ſufficiently guarding the throne againſt popular violence; for a very ſtriking defect in the new conſtitution ſoon appeared. The king poſſeſſed a *veto*, or negative, upon the reſolutions of the legiſlative body: but this negative he was bound to exerciſe in *perſon*, without reſponſibility, and without the intervention of his miniſters. He had no ſenate, or upper chamber, to ſtand between him and popular violence; and there was ſomething apparently abſurd in ſetting the vote of an individual, in oppoſition to the collective wiſdom and will of a whole nation. In conſequence of this, he was reduced to the hard alternative of yielding to every vote of the National Aſſembly, or of expoſing himſelf perſonally to public odium. The new Aſſembly was opened by the king on the 7th of October, with much apparent union on all ſides. His ſpeech, recommending unanimity and confidence between the legiſlative and executive powers, was received with unbounded applauſe. The character of the men who compoſed the new National Aſſembly was unauſpicious to the Court. At the commencement of the revolution, the great body of the people at a diſtance from the capital were little intereſted in thoſe projects of freedom which occupied the more enlightened or more turbulent inhabitants of Paris. They had gradually, however, been roufed from their lethargy. The variety of powers conferred by the new conſtitution upon the people at large, and the multiplicity of offices of which it gave them the patronage, had kindled in their minds a love of dominion, and a wiſh to interfere in public affairs. This attached them to the new order of things. The love of power, which is the leaſt diſguiſed paſſion in the human heart, and equally ſtrong in the breaſt of the meaneſt and of the higheſt of mankind, was thus, under the name of liberty, become a leading paſſion throughout this wide empire. They who flattered it moſt, and were moſt loud in praiſe of the rights of the people, became ſpeedily the favourites of the public. The conſequence of this was, that the new National Aſſembly was chiefly compoſed of country gentlemen, of principles highly democratic, or of men of letters who had puniſhed popular books, or conducted periodical publications. The members of the Conſtituent Aſſembly had been excluded by their own decree from holding ſeats in the new legiſlature.—The members of the latter, therefore, had little regard for a conſtitution which they themſelves had not framed, and which was not protected by the venerable ſanction of antiquity. When this aſſembly firſt met, it ſhowed a very trifling attention to formalities, and a ſcrupulous jealouſy of the miniſters of the crown. In the mean time, the treaty of Pilnitz, mentioned above, began to be rumoured abroad, and France was thrown into a ſtate of anxious jealouſy for the ſafety of its newly acquired liberties. Although the Pruſſians and Germans (the Elector of Mentz alone excepted) all continued to temporize, the northern powers, Sweden and Ruſſia, entered into ſtrict engagements to reſtore the old deſpotiſm of France. On the 9th Nov. a decree was paſſed, that the emigrants who, after the firſt of January 1792, ſhould be found aſſembled in a hoſtile manner, beyond the frontiers, ſhould be conſidered as guilty of a conſpiracy, and ſuffer death; that the French princes, and public functionaries, who ſhould not return before that period, ſhould be puniſhable in the ſame manner, and their property forfeited during their own lives. On the 18th, a ſeries of ſevere decrees was alſo paſſed againſt ſuch of the ejected clergy as ſtill refuſed to take the civic oath. To both theſe decrees the king oppoſed his *veto*. The moderate party, who were attached to the conſtitution, rejoiced at this as a proof of the freedom of their ſovereign. But, on the other ſide, it excited a moſt violent clamour, and became the means of exciting new ſuſpicion of the wiſhes of the court. At this time anſwers were received from the different foreign courts to the notification ſent them of the king's acceptance of the new conſtitution. Theſe were generally conceived in a ſtile of caution, and avoided giving open offence. The emperor even prohibited all aſſemblages of emigrants within his ſtates; and the king intimated to the aſſembly that he had declared to the elector of Treves, that unleſs the emigrants ſhould ceaſe before the 15th of January, to make hoſtile preparations within his territories, he would be conſidered as the enemy of France. All this, however, did not preſerve the court from ſuſpicion; for although the different foreign courts had openly declared pacific intentions, yet the French emigrants boldly aſſerted, that all Europe was actually arming in their favour. Accordingly they ceaſed not to ſolicit their equals in rank wh

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who ſtill remained within the country, to leave it to join with them in what they called the *royal cauſe*.—The unhappy Lewis, placed between a republican party that was gradually gathering ſtrength, and an ariſtocratical party that was rouſing Europe to arms, againſt a nation of which he was the conſtitutional chief, and a combination of princes juſtly ſuſpected of wiſhing to ſeize upon a part of his dominions, ſtood in a ſituation which would have perplexed the moſt ſkilful ſtateſman. Addreſſes were crowding into the aſſembly, diſapproving of the conduct of the court. M. Montmorin reſigned; M. Deleſſart ſucceeded him: and M. Cahier de Gerville became miniſter of the interior. M. du Portail reſigned alſo, and M. Narbonne ſucceeded him as miniſter of war. In November, M. Bailly's magiſtracy terminated; and the once popular La Fayette appeared as a candidate to ſucceed him. But he was ſucceſsfully oppoſed by M. Petion, a violent Jacobin, and a declared republican, who was elected mayor of Paris by a great majority. At this period the moderate men, who were friends of the conſtitution, attempted to counteract the influence of the Jacobin club by the eſtabliſhment of a ſimilar one. It derived its name from the vacant convent of the *Feuillans*, in which it aſſembled. The moſt active members of the Conſtituent Aſſembly belonged to it, ſuch as D'Andre, Barnave, the Lameths, Du Port, Rabaud, Sieyes, Chapelier, Thouret, Labord, Talleyrand, Monteſquieu, Beaumetz, &c. The Jacobins contrived to excite a riot at the place of their meeting, which was in the vicinity of the hall of the National Aſſembly. This afforded a pretext for applying to the aſſembly for the removal of the new club. The aſſembly ſhowed their diſpoſition, by complying with this requeſt. At the end of this year, the kingdom of France was by no means proſperous. The public revenue had fallen far ſhort of the expenditure. The emigrant nobility had carried out of the kingdom the greater part of the current coin, and a variety of manufacturers, who depended upon their oſtentatious luxury, were reduced to diſtreſs. The diſpoſitions of foreign courts appeared very doubtful. The new year, 1791, however, opened with deluſive proſpects of tranquillity.—The German princes appeared ſatisfied with the mode of compenſation which the French had offered for the loſs of their poſſeſſions in Alſace and Lorraine. The prince of Loweſtein accepted of an indemnification.—The princes of Hohenlohé and Salm-Salm declared themſelves ready to treat upon the ſame terms. Prince Maximilian, and the dukes of Wirtemberg and Deux-Ponts, freely negociated. It is unneceſſary to ſtate in detail the ſubterfuges employed, in the mean time, by the crafty Leopold, for amuſing the French with the appearances of peace. M. Deleſſart, miniſter for foreign affairs, fell a ſacrifice to them. He was accuſed by Briſſot of not having given timely notice to the national aſſembly of the diſpoſitions of foreign powers, and of not preſcribing proper meaſures for ſecuring the honour and ſafety of the nation. A decree of accuſation paſſed againſt him in his abſence. He was apprehended, tried by the high national court at Orleans, and executed in conſequence of its ſentence.

The ſudden death of Leopold II. on the firſt of March gave riſe to a tranſient hope that peace might ſtill be preſerved. On the 16th March, the king of Sweden was wounded by Ankerſtrom, and died on the 29th. This prince had overturned the conſtitution of his own country, and had formed the project of conducting in perſon his troops to the frontiers of France, and of commanding or accompanying the combined armies of Europe in their attempt to avenge the cauſe of inſulted royalty. It was in a great meaſure to counteract this ſcheme that he was aſſaſſinated. The ſudden fall, however, of theſe two enemies rather accelerated than retarded the meditated hoſtilities. The young king of Hungary, who ſucceeded to the empire, made no ſecret either of his own intentions or of the exiſtence of a *concert of princes* againſt France. M. Dumouriez was now at the head of the war office, M. Rolland was miniſter of the interior, and M. Claviere miniſter of finance. The Jacobins were all-powerful. The court gave way to the torrent. The property of the emigrants was confiſcated, reſerving the rights of creditors. The imperial miniſter, prince Kaunitz, demanded three things of France; *1ſt*, The reſtitution of their feudal rights to the German princes; *2dly*, To reſtore Avignon to the Pope, the inhabitants of which had ſome time before thrown off their allegiance, and prevailed with the conſtituent aſſembly to receive their country as a part of France; and *laſtly*, that "the neighbouring powers ſhould have no reaſon for apprehenſion from the preſent weakneſs of the internal government of France." On receiving theſe demands, the king propoſed a declaration of war, which was decreed by the national aſſembly on the 20th of April, againſt *the king of Hungary and Bohemia*. The French immediately began the war, by attacking in three different columns the Auſtrian Netherlands. M. Theobald Dillon advanced from Liſle to Tournay, where he found a ſtrong body of Auſtrians ready to receive him. The national troops, unaccuſtomed to ſuſtain the fire of regular ſoldiers, were inſtantly thrown into confuſion, and fled even to the gates of Liſle. The cry of *treaſon* reſounded on all ſides; and their commander, an experienced and faithful officer, was murdered by his own ſoldiers and the mob. A 2d diviſion of 10,000 men, under Lieut.-Gen. Biron, took poſſeſſion of Quiveron on the 29th, and marched towards Mons. General Biron was here attacked by the Auſtrians, whom he repulſed. Hearing, however, of the defeat of Dillon, he retreated. A third party advanced to Furnes, but afterwards withdrew. La Fayette advanced towards Bouvines, half way to Namur, from which he afterwards retreated. Theſe expeditions were ill contrived; they divided the French undiſciplined troops, and expoſed them in ſmall bodies to the attack of veteran forces. The Auſtrians were ſome time before they attempted to retaliate. But on the 11th of June, they attacked M. Gouvion, who commanded the advanced guard of La Fayette's army, near Maubeuge. Gouvion was killed, but La Fayette himſelf having come up, the Auſtrians abandoned the field. In the mean time, matters were haſtening in Paris towards a violent criſis.

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Two parties, both of which were hoſtile to the new conſtitution, had gradually been formed in the ſtate. The one wiſhed to give more effectual ſupport to the royal authority, by eſtabliſhing a *ſenate* or *two chambers*, to prevent the king's vote from being the ſole check upon popular enthuſiaſm. The other party wiſhed to ſet aſide royalty altogether, and to hazard the bold experiment of converting France into a republic. Theſe laſt were ſupported by the Jacobin club, which had now contrived to concentrate in itſelf an immenſe maſs of influence. Innumerable popular ſocieties were eſtabliſhed in every town and village throughout the departments. With theſe a regular correſpondence was kept up by writing and by emiſſaries. Thus ſchemes and notions were inſtantaneouſly propagated through a great empire, and all the violent ſpirits which it contained were enabled to act in concert: But the more immediate engine of the republican party conſiſted of the immenſe population of the metropolis, whom they now endeavoured to keep in conſtant alarm. For this purpoſe they alleged, that an *Auſtrian Committee*, that is to ſay, a conſpiracy in favour of the enemies of the country, exiſted among the friends of the court. Genſonne and Briſſot even offered in the aſſembly to prove the exiſtence of this committee. New decrees were now made againſt the refractory clergy, but theſe the king refuſed to ſanction. A propoſal was alſo made and decreed in the aſſembly to form a camp of 20,000 men under the walls of Paris, and that for this levy every canton in the kingdom ſhould contribute one horſeman and four infantry. The national guard of Paris diſliked the propoſal, and the king gave to it his negative. At this time the king ſeems to have reſolved to ſtand out againſt the Jacobins, to whom he had for ſome time yielded. The miniſtry were therefore diſmiſſed, excepting M. Dumourier, and others were appointed in their ſtead. By this event Dumourier loſt the confidence of the Jacobin club. He ſaw his error, reſigned his office, and joined the army. In the mean time a decree had been paſſed, authoriſing the manufactory of pikes for the purpoſe of arming cheaply the lower claſs of citizens. All means were uſed to render the king odious by inflammatory writings and harangues; and in both of theſe the noted incendiary MARAT took the lead. On the 20th of June Roederer, the Procureur General Syndic informed the national aſſembly, that, contrary to law, formidable bodies of armed men were preparing to preſent petitions to the king, and to the national aſſembly. A part of them ſpeedily appeared with St Huruge and Santerre a brewer, at their head. They marched through the hall in a proceſſion that laſted two hours, at 4 p. m. to the number of about 40,000. They ſurrounded the Thuilleries. The gates were thrown open; and on an attempt to break the door of the apartment, where the king then was, he ordered them to be admitted. His ſiſter the princeſs Elizabeth never departed from his ſide during 4 or 5 hours that he was ſurrounded by the multitude, and compelled to liſten to every indignity. All this while Petion, the mayor of Paris, was unaccountably abſent. He at length, however, arrived, and alſo a deputation from the aſſembly. The queen, with her children and the princeſs de Lamballe, were in the mean time in the council chamber, where, though protected from violence, they were expoſed to much inſult. At laſt, in conſequence of the approach of evening, and of the entreaties of Petion, the multitude gradually diſperſed. The indignities ſuffered this day by the royal family were not unfavourable to their cauſe. A great number of the moſt reſpectable inhabitants of the capital were aſhamed of ſuch proceedings, and complained of them ſeverely in a petition to the aſſembly. Addreſſes to the ſame purpoſe were received from ſeveral departments. The directory of the department of Paris, at the head of which were Rochefoucault and M. Talleyrand, publiſhed a declaration diſapproving of the conduct of the mayor, and of Manuel the procureur of the commune, whom they afterwards ſuſpended from their offices, although they were reſtored by a decree of the aſſembly. La Fayette, leaving his army ſuddenly, appeared on the 26th at the bar of the national aſſembly. He declared that he came to expreſs the indignation which the whole army felt on account of the events of the 20th: he called upon the aſſembly to puniſh the promoters of theſe events, and to diſſolve the factious clubs. This ſudden appearance of La Fayette threw the Jacobins into conſternation, and from that period they never ceaſed to calumniate him. On the 1ſt of July, on the motion of John De Brie, the aſſembly ordered a proclamation to be made, that *the country was in danger*. On the 6th, the king gave intimation that the king of Pruſſia was marching with 52,000 men to co-operate againſt France. The French arms were at this time ſomewhat ſucceſsful in the Auſtrian Netherlands; but the cabinet ſpeedily thought it neceſſary to order the armies to retreat: a meaſure which was afterwards publicly cenſured by Marſhall Luckner. On the 7th, a ſingular ſcene occurred in the national aſſembly. At the inſtant that M. Briſſot was about to commence an oration, M. Lammourette, Bp. of Lyons requeſted to be heard for a few minutes. He expatiated on the neceſſity of union among the members of the aſſembly, and of ſacrificing the paſſions and prejudices on the altar of their country. He concluded an animated addreſs with theſe words, "Let all who hold in equal deteſtation a republic and two chambers, and who wiſh to maintain the conſtitution as it is, riſe!" The words were ſcarcely pronounced, when the whole aſſembly ſtarted from their ſeats. Men of all parties ſolemnly embraced each other, and proteſted their adherence to the conſtitution. A deputation announced this happy event to the king, who immediately came and congratulated them in a ſhort ſpeech, which was received with infinite applauſe. The only good effect, however, produced by this temporary agreement was, that the feſtival of the 14th of July, which was celebrated with the uſual magnificence, paſſed off in tranquillity. On the 25th of July, the duke of Brunſwick iſſued at Coblentz his celebrated manifeſto. It declared the purpoſe of the intended invaſion of France to be the reſtoration of the French king to full authority. It declared

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national guard of France responsible for the preservation of tranquillity; and threatened with the punishment of death, as rebels to their king, those who should appear in arms against the allied powers. All men holding offices, civil or military, were threatened in the same manner, as well as the inhabitants of all cities. The city of Paris in particular, and the national assembly, were declared responsible for every insult which might be offered to the royal family. It was declared, that if they were not immediately placed in safety, the allies were resolved to inflict "on those who should deserve it, the most exemplary and ever memorable avenging punishments, by giving up the city of Paris to military execution, and exposing it to total destruction; and the rebels who should be guilty of illegal resistance should suffer the punishments which they should have deserved." This sanguinary and imprudent manifesto operated as a warrant for the destruction of the unfortunate Lewis XVI. It left no middle party in the nation. All who wished to preserve freedom in any form, and all who loved the independence of their country, were instantly united. At the same time, the reproaches cast on the king by the Jacobins now gained universal credit. The kings of Prussia and of Hungary told the French nation, that their monarch was secretly hostile to the constitution; and the restoration of him and his family to despotic power was made the sole pretence for a bloody and dangerous war.

(9.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF IT, TILL THE MASSACRES IN SEPT. 1792. The republican party saw the advantage which they had now gained, and resolved upon the deposition of the king. The chief engine which they meant to employ in this service consisted of about 1500 men, who had come to Paris at the period of the confederation on the 14th of July, and therefore called *federis*, and who were also sometimes denominated *Marsillois*, from the place from which the greater number of them came. Next to these, dependence was placed in the populace of the suburbs of Paris. The designs of the republicans were not unknown to the court, and both parties were forming plans of operation. Various charges had been brought forward in the assembly against La Fayette, and the 8th of August was appointed for their discussion. In the mean time, on the 3d of August, Petion the mayor, at the head of a deputation from the sections of Paris, appeared at the bar, and in a solemn speech demanded the deposition of the king. The discussion of the accusation against La Fayette was considered as a trial of strength between the parties: he was acquitted, however, by a majority of nearly 200; and the republican party, despairing of carrying their point by a vote of the national assembly, resolved to have recourse to insurrection and force. On the evening of the 9th of August, about 1500 gentlemen, officers of the army, and others, repaired to the palace, resolved to protect the royal family or to die in their defence: added to these were 700 Swiss guards, with a body of cavalry amounting to about 1000. Mandat, the commander of the national guards, a man who was firmly attached to the constitution, had procured 2400 of that body, and 12 pieces of cannon. With such a force, it has been generally thought that, by vigorous and steady councils, the palace, which is a kind of castle, might have been successfully defended. Meanwhile the assembly declared its sittings permanent. Petion was at the palace late on the evening of the 9th. Some apprehensions were entertained, or pretended to be entertained, for his safety, and a deputation from the assembly brought him away. At midnight the *tocsin*, or alarm bell, was sounded, and the drums beat to arms through the city. At this instant a number of the most active leaders of the republican party assembled, and elected a new common council or *commune*. The persons thus irregularly chosen instantly took possession of the common hall, and drove out the lawful members; who, with that weakness with which men are apt to shrink from stations of responsibility in perilous times, readily gave place to the usurpers. The new commune sent repeated messages to M. Mandat, requiring his attendance upon important business. He was occupied in arranging the troops in the best order around the palace; but suspecting nothing, he went to the common hall, and was there astonished to find a different assembly from what he expected. He was abruptly accused of a plot to massacre the people, and ordered to prison; but as he descended the stairs, he was shot with a pistol, and Santerre was appointed in his stead to command the national guard. On this eventful night no person in the palace went to bed. About six o'clock A. M. of the 10th the king descended into the gardens to review the troops. He was received with shouts of *Vive le roi*, excepting from the artillery, who shouted *Vive la nation*. The king returned to the palace, and the multitude continued to collect. The national guard assembled in divisions near the palace. Towards 8 o'clock Roederer procured admittance to the palace, and told the king that armed multitudes were assembling in hostile array around the Thuilleries; that the national guard was not to be depended upon; and that, in case of resistance, the whole royal family would most certainly be massacred. He therefore advised the king to seek protection in the hall of the national assembly. With this advice the king was ready to comply; but the queen opposed with vehemence the humiliating proposal. Becoming, however, alarmed for the safety of her children, she gave her consent; and the king and queen, the princess Elizabeth, with the prince and princess royal, went on foot to the hall of the assembly. "I am come hither (said his majesty) to prevent a great crime. Among you, gentlemen, I believe myself in safety." By an article of the constitution the assembly could not deliberate in presence of the king. The royal family were, therefore, placed in a narrow box separated from the hall by a raising, where they remained for 14 hours without any place to which they could retire for refreshment, excepting a very small closet adjoining. Here they sat listening to debates, in which the royal character and office were treated with every mark of insult. When the king left the palace of the Thuilleries, he unfortunately forgot to order it to be immediately surrendered. He recollected this as soon as he reached the assembly, and sent orders for this purpose; but it was now too la

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The insurgents amounted to about 20,000 effective men. They were drawn up in tolerable order by Westerman, a Prussian, and had about 30 pieces of cannon. The gentlemen within the palace, who had assembled to protect the king were now dispirited, and knew not what part to act. The commander of the Swiss, M. Affry, was absent, and the captains knew not what to do; and the national guard had no leader, in consequence of the death of Mandat. About nine o'clock the outer gates were forced open; and the insurgents formed their line in front of the palace. A bloody combat commenced chiefly between the Marseillois and the Swiss. After a brave resistance of about an hour, the Swiss were overpowered by numbers, and gave way. All of them that could be found in the palace were massacred; some even while imploring quarter on their knees. Others escaped into the city, and were protected by individuals. Of this brave regiment, only 200 survived; but every human being, even the lowest servants found in the palace, were put to death. The Swiss taken prisoners in various quarters were conducted to the door of the assembly, and taken by a decree under the protection of the state. But the sanguinary multitude insisted upon putting them to instant death; and the assembly would, in all probability, have been unable to protect them, had not the Marseillois interfered in their favour. The suspension of the royal authority was now decreed, and the nation was invited to elect a CONVENTION to determine the nature o its future government.—On this uncommon oc sion all Frenchmen of 21 years of age were d red capable of electing, and of being elect puties to the new national Convention. missioners were, in the mean time, se same evening to give to the armies a vourable account of these transaction al family were sent to the old palac ple in the midst of the city, to rema strict guard; and all persons of r attached to them were seized the different prisons. To give per of the people of Paris at t to remark, that at the same i titude with bloody fury were nial servants in the palace, restrained from murderin they would suffer no act c nished. Several attempts lowed by the instant dea plate, the jewels, and leries were brought to thrown down in the h and appearance besp on the table an hat of these men were they conceived the dom, and objects earth. In the m was extremely c notice of the e advised the m to imprison t assembly wh was accord published

them to support the king and be finding that they were not to be on the 19th August he left his cam accompanied only by a few servants the rout of Rochefort in Liege, where tral country; but were met by a par my, who took them prisoners, and tained in Prussian and Austrian dungeons till autumn 1794, when La Fayette made his escape. The severe treatment of this man was probably a considerable error in policy on part of the allies. His fidelity to his king is generally admitted. The commissioners re at Sedan, and received with a La Fayette. General Arthu into the sentiments of La diverted him from his pu his credit with the Jac commander in chief. no opposition to the w Meanwhile, the comb Prussia had entered Fr wick's army was ab Clairfait had joined and a considerable 20,000 French 90,000 men. only 17,00 which th bourg. duke

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non-juring clergy, the Swiss officers, and those confined since the 10th of August on account of practices against the state, were detained in custody. They took out the prisoners one by one, gave them a kind of mock trial before a jury of themselves, acquitted some few, and murdered the rest. And among the last was the princess de Lamballe. She was taken from her bed before this bloody tribunal, and massacred; her head was carried by the populace to the Temple, to be seen by the queen, whose friend she was. These massacres lasted for two days, and upwards of 1000 persons were put to death. There is scarce any thing in history that can be represented as parallel to them; they were committed, it is said, by less than 300 men, in the midst of an immense city, which heard of them with horror, and in the vicinity of the national assembly, which, by going in a body, could have put an end to them. But such was the confusion and dismay of those two disgraceful days, that no man dared to stir from his own house; and [illegible] believed that the whole city, except[illegible]treet, was [illegible] in massacre and b[illegible]e nation- [illegible]ere all ready [illegible]ve posts, [illegible] directed th[illegible] there is [illegible]ason to sus[illegible]e and th[illegible] e commun[illegible]aft, at t[illegible]

[illegible]RESOLUTIO[illegible]STORY [illegible]ALL THE M[illegible]NATIO [illegible]VISION. [illegible]general [illegible]er was tak[illegible]s to p[illegible] [illegible]e march of th[illegible]my of [illegible]am, consistin[illegible]ould jo [illegible]from Lorrain[illegible]ville fr[illegible] [illegible]diers, amou[illegible]ther w[illegible] [illegible]ever new[illegible]be abl[illegible] [illegible]Islets from[illegible] of A[illegible] [illegible]i 40 t[illegible] [illegible]ke of [illegible]/ acro[illegible] [illegible]pass of[illegible] [illegible]the S.[illegible] [illegible]s that [illegible]osition [illegible]eatch [illegible]took [illegible] Her[illegible]d [illegible]d att[illegible]nd [illegible]ack [illegible]rier [illegible]h he [illegible]valry [illegible], was [illegible] men; [illegible], might [illegible]er, Du- [illegible]d began [illegible] Dumou- [illegible]ick form[illegible] [illegible]e his ju[illegible] [illegible]ral a[illegible] [illegible]ier's [illegible]the [illegible]

cellent order, while the national vivacity was constanty showing itself in their shouts and patriotic songs: 400 French were killed, and 500 wounded; the loss of the Prussians was much greater: and, in the face of the enemy, Kellerman joined Dumourier at the end of the engagement without opposition. At the time that the attack was made on the army of Kellerman, an attempt was made to force Dillon's camp at Biesme by the 20,000 men that had been left in its vicinity, but without success; and this large detachment was thus prevented from crossing the forest of Argonne and joining the duke of Brunswick. In these engagements the French owed their superiority chiefly to the excellence of their artillery; a circumstance which served to convince their enemies that they had to contend with regular military bodies, and not with undisciplined multitudes, as they expected. The duke of Brunswick encamped his army at La Lun, near the camp of Dumourier. And here the Prussians began to be in extreme distress both from sickness and famine. No temptation could induce the inhabitants of the country to carry provisions to the hostile camp, but the French army was abundantly [illegible]plied. Bournonville, with a body of 4000 [illegible]intercepted several droves of cattle and o- [illegible]nvoys of provisions destined for the Prus- The rain fell in torrents, and the roads [illegible]commonly deep. Exposed to the cold, [illegible]sture, and want of provisions, the Prus- [illegible]hly ate great quantities of the grapes of [illegible]agne. The consequence of this was, that [illegible]emical distemper commenced and spread [illegible]h the army to such an extent, that 10,000 [illegible]t one time were unfit for duty. The duke [illegible]unswick, however, still commanded a force [illegible]h more numerous than that of Dumourier; [illegible]he has been much censured for not attacking [illegible] camp, and forcing him to engage. But the [illegible]ke of Brunswick had entered France upon the [illegible]pposition, that in its distracted state no regular [illegible]my could be brought into the field against him, [illegible]nd that the people were hostile to the ruling faction. The contrary of all this had turned out to be true. He found himself in the midst of an hostile people, and opposed by skilful military chiefs. A defeat in such a situation would have brought certain ruin to his army; and even the loss sustained in a victory might have proved equally fatal. After proposing a truce, therefore, which lasted 8 days, he commenced his retreat towards Grandpré, and no advantage was gained over him in the course of it. Verdun was retaken by the French on the 12th Oct. and Longwy on the 18th; the siege of [illegible] was at the same time raised. Th[illegible] [illegible]rong fortress, under the comm[illegible] Wimpfen, had held in ch[illegible]en. While the Prus- [illegible] the NE. the Austrians [illegible]e Tescheu laid siege to [illegible]ght of fruitless labour they [illegible] raise the siege. War had been [illegible]nst the king of Sardinia on account [illegible]atening appearances exhibited in that [illegible] On the 20th Sept. 1792, Gen. Montes- [illegible]entered Savoy, and was received at Cham- [illegible], and throughout the whole country with [illegible] marks

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The insurgents amounted to about 20,000 effective men. They were drawn up in tolerable order by Westerman, a Prussian, and had about 30 pieces of cannon. The gentlemen within the palace, who had assembled to protect the king were now dispirited, and knew not what part to act. The commander of the Swiss, M. Affry, was absent, and the captains knew not what to do; and the national guard had no leader, in consequence of the death of Mandat. About nine o'clock the outer gates were forced open; and the insurgents formed their line in front of the palace. A bloody combat commenced chiefly between the Marseillois and the Swiss. After a brave resistance of about an hour, the Swiss were overpowered by numbers, and gave way. All of them that could be found in the palace were massacred; some even while imploring quarter on their knees. Others escaped into the city, and were protected by individuals. Of this brave regiment, only 200 survived; but every human being, even the lowest servants found in the palace, were put to death. The Swiss taken prisoners in various quarters were conducted to the door of the assembly, and taken by a decree under the protection of the state. But the sanguinary multitude insisted upon putting them to instant death; and the assembly would, in all probability, have been unable to protect them, had not the Marseillois interfered in their favour. The suspension of the royal authority was now decreed, and the nation was invited to elect a CONVENTION to determine the nature of its future government.—On this uncommon occasion all Frenchmen of 21 years of age were declared capable of electing, and of being elected, deputies to the new national Convention. Commissioners were, in the mean time, sent on the same evening to give to the armies a full and favourable account of these transactions. The royal family were sent to the old palace of the Temple in the midst of the city, to remain there under a strict guard; and all persons of rank who had been attached to them were seized and committed to the different prisons. To give an idea of the temper of the people of Paris at this time, it is proper to remark, that at the same instant when the multitude with bloody fury were massacring the menial servants in the palace, and could scarcely be restrained from murdering the Swiss prisoners, they would suffer no act of pillage to pass unpunished. Several attempts of this kind were followed by the instant death of the criminals. The plate, the jewels, and money found in the Thuilleries were brought to the national assembly, and thrown down in the hall. One man, whose dress and appearance bespoke extreme poverty, cast upon the table an hat full of gold. But the minds of these men were elevated by enthusiasm; and they conceived themselves the champions of freedom, and objects of terror to the kings of the earth. In the mean time, the situation of France was extremely critical. La Fayette had got speedy notice of the events of the 10th of August. He advised the magistrates of the town of Sedan to to imprison the commissioners from the national assembly when they should arrive there; which was accordingly done. He, at the same time, published an address to his army, calling upon them to support the king and the constitution; but finding that they were not to be depended upon, on the 19th August he left his camp in the night, accompanied only by a few servants. They took the rout of Rochefort in Liege, which was a neutral country; but were met by a party of the enemy, who took them prisoners, and they were detained in Prussian and Austrian dungeons till autumn 1794, when La Fayette made his escape. The severe treatment of this man was probably a considerable error in policy on the part of the allies. His fidelity to his king is very generally admitted. The commissioners were soon set at liberty at Sedan, and received with applause by the army of La Fayette. General Arthur Dillon at first entered into the sentiments of La Fayette; but Dumourier diverted him from his purpose, and thus regained his credit with the Jacobins, and was appointed commander in chief. The other generals made no opposition to the will of the national assembly. Meanwhile, the combined armies of Austria and Prussia had entered France. The duke of Brunswick's army was above 50,000 strong. Gen. Clairfait had joined him with 15,000 Austrians, and a considerable body of Hessians, along with 20,000 French emigrants; amounting in all to 90,000 men. To oppose these, Dumourier had only 17,000 men, collected near the point from which the enemy were approaching in Luxembourg. The French emigrants had given the duke of Brunswick such an account of the distracted state of their own country, and of the pretended disaffection of all orders of men towards the ruling faction in Paris, that no resistance of any importance was expected. The beginning of their progress into France justified these expectations. Longwy surrendered after a siege of 25 hours, although well fortified, possessed of a garrison of 3500 men, and defended by 71 pieces of cannon. The news of this event irritated the assembly so much, that they decreed, that, when retaken, the houses of the citizens should be razed to the ground; and, distrustful of the officers of the army, they decreed, that the municipal officers of a town should hereafter have power to controul the deliberations of the council of war. Verdun was next summoned; and here the municipality compelled the governor M. Beaurepaire to surrender. That officer, disappointed and enraged, shot himself with a pistol in presence of the council, and on the 2d of Sept. the Prussian troops entered the town. The news of this 2d capture and of the approach of the Prussians, spread an instant alarm through Paris. It was proposed to raise a volunteer army, which should set out immediately to meet the enemy. The common council, which was now held by Robespierre, Danton, Marat, and others of the most sanguinary character, ordered the alarm guns to be fired and the populace to be summoned to meet in the Champ de Mars to enroll themselves to march against the enemy. The people assembled, and either in consequence of a premeditated plan, or of an instantaneous movement, a number of voices exclaimed, that "the domestic foes of the nation ought to be destroyed before its foreign enemies were attacked." Parties of armed men proceeded without delay to the prisons where the

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non-jurring clergy, the Swiſs officers, and thoſe confined ſince the 10th of Auguſt on account of practices againſt the ſtate, were detained in cuſtody. They took out the priſoners one by one, gave them a kind of mock trial before a jury of themſelves, acquitted ſome few, and murdered the reſt. And among the laſt was the princeſs de Lamballe. She was taken from her bed before this bloody tribunal, and maſſacred; her head was carried by the populace to the Temple, to be ſeen by the queen, whoſe friend ſhe was. Theſe maſſacres laſted for two days, and upwards of 1200 perſons were put to death. There is ſcarce any thing in hiſtory that can be repreſented as parallel to them; they were committed, it is ſaid, by leſs than 300 men, in the midſt of an immenſe city, which heard of them with horror, and in the vicinity of the national aſſembly, which, by going in a body, could have put an end to them. But ſuch was the confuſion and diſmay of theſe two diſgraceful days, that no man dared to ſtir from his own houſe; and every one believed that the whole city, excepting his own ſtreet, was engaged in maſſacre and bloodſhed. The national guards were all ready at their reſpective poſts, but no man directed them to act: and there is too much reaſon to ſuſpect, that Santerre and the chiefs of the commune connived, at leaſt, at the tranſaction.

(16) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THAT, TILL THE MEETING OF THE NATIONAL CONVENTION. About this time, general Dumourier was taking the beſt meaſures to protect the march of the enemy till the army of Kellerman, conſiſting of 20,000 men, could join him from Lorrain, and that of Bournonville from Flanders, amounting to 13,000; together with whatever new levies Luckner might be able to ſend him from Chalons. The foreſt of Argonne extends from N. to S. upwards of 40 miles; it lay directly in the route of the duke of Brunſwick, who muſt either force his way acroſs it, or make a circuit of 80 miles by the paſs of Grandpré on the N. or by Bar le duc on the S. The paſs that lay directly in his route was that of Bieſme. After ſurveying Dillon's poſition here, he left a party of 20,000 men to watch it; and with the main body of his army took the circuitous rout by Grandpré on the N. Here Dumourier waited to receive him, and was attacked on the 12th and 13th without ſucceſs: but on the 14th, the attack of the Pruſſians was irreſiſtible, and Dumourier retreating gave up the paſs. On his march he was ſo violently preſſed by the advanced cavalry of the Pruſſians, that his army, at one time, was ſeized with a panic, and fled before 1500 men; who, if they had puſhed their advantage, might have diſperſed it. On the 15th, however, Dumourier encamped at St Menehould, and began to fortify it. Bournonville's army joined Dumourier on the 25th. The duke of Brunſwick formed a plan of attacking Kellerman before his junction could be completed. That general arrived on the 19th within a mile of Dumourier's camp; the projected attack took place; the Pruſſians maneuvred with their uſual coolneſs and addreſs; they attempted to ſurround Kellerman's army, but could not. The French troops preſerved excellent order, while the national vivacity was conſtanty ſhowing itſelf in their ſhouts and patriotic ſongs: 400 French were killed, and 500 wounded; the loſs of the Pruſſians was much greater: and, in the face of the enemy, Kellerman joined Dumourier at the end of the engagement without oppoſition. At the time that the attack was made on the army of Kellerman, an attempt was made to force Dillon's camp at Bieſme by the 20,000 men that had been left in its vicinity, but without ſucceſs; and this large detachment was thus prevented from croſſing the foreſt of Argonne and joining the duke of Brunſwick. In theſe engagements the French owed their ſuperiority chiefly to the excellence of their artillery; a circumſtance which ſerved to convince their enemies that they had to contend with regular military bodies, and not with undiſciplined multitudes, as they expected. The duke of Brunſwick encamped his army at La Lun, near the camp of Dumourier. And here the Pruſſians began to be in extreme diſtreſs both from ſickneſs and famine. No temptation could induce the inhabitants of the country to carry proviſions to the hoſtile camp, but the French army was abundantly ſupplied. Bournonville, with a body of 4000 men, intercepted ſeveral droves of cattle and other convoys of proviſions deſtined for the Pruſſians. The rain fell in torrents, and the roads were uncommonly deep. Expoſed to the cold, the moiſture, and want of proviſions, the Pruſſians raſhly ate great quantities of the grapes of Champagne. The conſequence of this was, that an epidemical diſtemper commenced and ſpread through the army to ſuch an extent, that 10,000 men at one time were unfit for duty. The duke of Brunſwick, however, ſtill commanded a force much more numerous than that of Dumourier; and he has been much cenſured for not attacking his camp, and forcing him to engage. But the duke of Brunſwick had entered France upon the ſuppoſition, that in its diſtracted ſtate no regular army could be brought into the field againſt him, and that the people were hoſtile to the ruling faction. The contrary of all this had turned out to be true. He found himſelf in the midſt of an hoſtile people, and oppoſed by ſkilful military chiefs. A defeat in ſuch a ſituation would have brought certain ruin to his army; and even the loſs ſuſtained in a victory might have proved equally fatal. After propoſing a truce, therefore, which laſted 8 days, he commenced his retreat towards Grandpré, and no advantage was gained over him in the courſe of it. Verdun was retaken by the French on the 22th Oct. and Longwy on the 28th; the ſiege of Thionville was at the ſame time raiſed. That ſmall, but ſtrong fortreſs, under the command of general Felix Wimpfen, had held in check an army of 25,000 men. While the Pruſſians were advancing from the NE. the Auſtrians under the duke of Saxe Teſchen laid ſiege to Liſle. After a fortnight of fruitleſs labour they were obliged to raiſe the ſiege. War had been declared againſt the king of Sardinia on account of the threatening appearances exhibited in that quarter. On the 20th Sept. 1792, Gen. Monteſquieu entered Savoy, and was received at Chambery, and throughout the whole country with

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marks of unbounded welcome. On the 29th Gen. Anſelm, with another body of troops, took poſſeſſion of Nice and the country around it. On the 30th Gen. Cuſtine advanced to Spires, when he found the Auſtrians drawn up in order of battle. He attacked and drove them through the city, taking 3000 of them priſoners. The capture of Worms ſucceeded that of Spires; Mentz ſurrendered by capitulation; and Franckfort fell into the hands of the French on the 23d. Out of this laſt place, however, they were afterwards driven on the 2d Dec. On the 20th Sept. the French *National Convention* aſſembled. It was found to contain men of all characters, orders, and ranks. Many diſtinguiſhed members of the *Conſtituent* Aſſembly were elected into it, and alſo ſeveral that had belonged to the *Legiſlative* Aſſembly; even foreigners were invited to become French legiſlators. The famous Thomas Paine and Dr Prieſtley of England were elected by certain departments; but the latter declined accepting. CLOOTZ, a Pruſſian, formerly noticed, was alſo choſen.

(II.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE MURDER OF THE KING. The general aſpect of the new convention ſhowed that the republican party had acquired a decided ſuperiority. On the firſt day of meeting M. Collot D'Herbois, who had formerly been an actor, aſcended the tribune, and propoſed *the eternal abolition of royalty in France*. The queſtion was carried by acclamation, and the houſe adjourned. Meſſages were ſent to all parts of the country to intimate the decree, and by the influence of the Jacobins they were everywhere received with applauſe. It was next day decreed, that all public acts ſhould be dated by the year of the French republic; and all citizens were declared eligible to all the vacant offices and places. The rage of republicaniſm ſoon went ſo far, that the ordinary titles of *Monſieur* and *Madame* were aboliſhed, and thoſe of CITIZEN and CITIZENESS ſubſtituted in their ſtead, as more ſuitable to the principles of liberty and equality. (See theſe articles.) It was ſoon diſcovered that the leading republicans had divided into two oppoſite factions. The one of theſe was called *Girondiſts*, becauſe Vergniaud, Genſonné, Guadet, and ſome others of its leaders, were members from the department of the *Gironde*. The celebrated Condorcet belonged to this party; and they were ſometimes denominated *Briſſotines*, from M. Briſſot de Warville their principal leader. They ſupported the miniſtry now in office, at the head of which was Roland; and the majority of the convention was obviouſly attached to them. In oppoſition to theſe was the ſmall party of the *Mountain*; ſo called from its members uſually ſitting in the convention on the upper ſeats of the hall. They were men poſſeſſed of leſs perſonal reſpectability, and fewer literary accompliſhments, but of daring and ſanguinary characters, whom the revolution had brought into public notice. At the head of this party were Danton and Robeſpierre; and ſubordinate to theſe were Couthon, Bazire, Thuriot, Merlin de Thionville, St André, Camille Demoulins, Chabot, Collot D'Herbois, Sergent, Legendre, Fabre D'Eglantine, Panis, and Marat. Theſe two parties ſhowed the diverſity of their characters by the manner in which they treated the maſſacres of the 2d and 3d of Sept. The Briſſotines, with the majority of the convention, wiſhed to bring the murderers to trial; but the queſtion was always eluded by the other party, with the aſſiſtance of the Jacobin club and of the populace. On the 9th Oct. it was decreed, that all emigrants, when taken, ſhould ſuffer death; and on the 15th Nov. in conſequence of an inſurrection in the duchy of Deux Ponts, and an application on the part of the inſurgents to the convention for aid, the following decree was paſſed: "The national convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternity and aſſiſtance to all thoſe people who wiſh to procure liberty; and they charge the executive power to ſend orders to the generals to give aſſiſtance to ſuch people as have ſuffered, or are now ſuffering, in the cauſe of liberty." Of this decree foreign nations, with great reaſon, complained much. To return to the military affairs of the new republic. On the 12th of October, Gen. Dumourier came to Paris, and was ſent to commence a winter campaign in the Netherlands. He ſuddenly attacked the Auſtrians at the village of Boſſu, and drove them from their ground. On the 5th Nov. he came in ſight of the enemy upon the heights of JEMAPPES. Three rows of fortifications aroſe above each other defended by 100 pieces of cannon. Their right was covered by the village and a river, and their left by thick woods. The French were by their own account 30,000, whilſt others, with great probability of truth compute them at double that number, and the number of the Auſtrians was at leaſt 20,000. At ſeven in the morning of the following day a heavy cannonade commenced on both ſides, and at noon a cloſe attack was determined on by the French, whoſe right wing was commanded by Generals Bournonville and Dampierre, and the centre by Generals Egalité (ſon to the duke of Orleans who had aſſumed that name) Stetenboffe, Deſporets, and Drouet. The muſic played the popular march of the Marſellois hymn, and the ſoldiers ruſhed on with enthuſiaſm, ſhouting *Vive la nation*. The engagement was warm and bloody; the French were twice repulſed, but their impetuoſity was at laſt irreſiſtible, and about two o'clock the enemy fled from their la entrenchments. The loſs on both ſides was ve great, that of the Auſtrians, amounting to 40 This victory was deciſive of the fate of the N therlands. Mons and Bruſſels ſurrendered to D mourier; Tournay, Malines, Ghent, and A werp, were taken poſſeſſion of by Gen. Labo donnaye; Louvain and Namur were taken Gen. Valence; and the whole Auſtrian Neth lands, Luxemburg only excepted, fell into hands of the French: Liege was taken on 28th Nov. after a ſucceſsful engagement in wh the Auſtrians loſt 5 or 600 men, and an imme train of artillery. France was now in a ſit tion not unuſual in the hiſtory of thoſe natio that either are free, or are attempting to beco ſo; ſucceſsful in all quarters abroad, but diſtr ed by factions at home. The two parties in convention were engaged in a ſtruggle, wh da

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daily became more implacable. The *Mountain* party did not hesitate about the means they were to employ to bring about the ruin of their antagonists. They were even suspected of having, through the medium of Pache the war minister, retarded the supply of the armies, to render the ruling party odious by want of success. They were for some time, however, unfortunate in this respect; and the daily news of victories supported with the public the credit of the Girondists. A new subject was therefore fallen upon, which was the question, how the dethroned king was to be disposed of? The moderate party wished to save him; and this was a sufficient reason for their antagonists to resolve upon his ruin. A committee was appointed to give in a report upon his conduct. A variety of accusations were brought against him; and the convention infamously resolved to act the double part of both accusers and judge. On the 11th Dec. when the ill-fated monarch was ordered to the bar of the convention: the act of accusation was read, and the king was summoned by the president, Barrere, to answer to each separate charge. To give a full detail of the trial, which every body has seen many years ago, would be taking up room to little purpose. We shall therefore only quote from it a few of the principal charges, with the king's answers, as a specimen of the whole.—*Pref.* "Lewis, the French nation accuses you of having committed a multitude of crimes to establish your tyranny, in destroying her freedom. You, on the 20th of June 1789, attempted the sovereignty of the people, by suspending the assemblies of their representatives, and expelling them with violence from the places of their sittings. This is proved in the process verbal entered at the Tennis-court of Versailles by the members of the constituent assembly. On the 23d of June you wanted to dictate laws to the nation: you surrounded their representatives with troops; you presented to them two royal declarations, subversive of all liberty, and ordered them to separate. Your own declarations, and the minutes of the assembly, prove these attempts. What have you to answer.—*Lewis.* "No laws were then existing to prevent me from it."—*Pref.* "You ordered an army to march against the citizens of Paris. Your satellites have shed the blood of several of them, and you would not remove this army till the taking of the Bastile and a general insurrection announced to you that the people were victorious. The speeches you made on the 9th, 12th, and 14th of July to the deputations of the constituent assembly, shew what were your intentions; and the massacres of the Tuileries rise in evidence against you. What have you to answer?—*Lewis.* "I was master at that time to order the troops to march; but I never had an intention of shedding blood.—*Pref.* "After these events, and in spite of the promises which you made on the 15th in the constituent assembly, and on the 17th in the town-house of Paris, you have persisted in your projects against national liberty. You long eluded the execution of the decrees of the 11th of August, respecting the abolition of personal servitude, the feudal government, and tythes: you long refused acknowledging the rights of man: you doubled the number of the life-guards, and called the regiment of Flanders to Versailles: you permitted, in orgies held before your eyes, the national cockade to be trampled under foot, the white cockade to be hoisted, and the nation to be slandered. At last, you rendered necessary a fresh insurrection, occasioned the death of several citizens, and did not change your language till after your guards had been defeated, when you renewed your perfidious promises. The proofs of these facts are in your observations of the 18th of September, in the decrees of the 11th of August, in the minutes of the constituent assembly, in the events of Versailles of the 5th and 6th of October, and in the conversation you had on the same day with a deputation of the constituent assembly, when you told them you would enlighten yourself with councils, and never recede from them. What have you to answer?"—*Lewis.* "I have made the observations which I have thought just on the two first heads. As to the cockade, it is false; it did not happen in my presence."—*Pref.* "You took an oath at the federation of the 14th of July, which you did not keep. You soon tried to corrupt the public opinion, with the assistance of Talon, who acted in Paris, and Mirabeau, who was to have excited counter-revolutionary movements in the provinces. What have you to answer?"—*Lewis.* "I do not know what happened at that time; but the whole is anterior to my acceptance of the constitution."—*Pref.* "You lavished millions of money to effect this corruption, and you would even use popularity as a means of enslaving the people. These facts are the result of a memorial of Talon, on which you have made your marginal comments in your own hand writing, and of a letter which Laporte wrote to you on the 19th of April; in which, recapitulating a conversation he had with Rivarol, he told you, that the millions which you had been prevailed upon to throw away had been productive of nothing. For a long time you had meditated on a plan of escape. A memorial was delivered to you on the 28th of February which pointed out the means for you to effect it; you approve of it by marginal notes. What have you to answer?"—*Lewis.* "I felt no greater pleasure than that of relieving the needy: this proves no design."—*Pref.* "On the 28th a great number of the nobles and military came into your apartments in the castle of the Thuilleries to favour that escape: you wanted to quit Paris on the 20th of April to go St Cloud. What have you to answer?"—*Lewis.* "This accusation is absurd." *Pref.* "But the resistance of the citizens made you sensible that their distrust was great; you endeavoured to discard it by communicating to the constituent assembly a letter, which you addressed to the agents of the nation near foreign powers, to announce to them that you had freely accepted the constitutional articles, which had been presented to you; and notwithstanding, on the 21st you took flight with a false passport. You left behind a protest against these self-same constitutional articles; you ordered the ministers to sign none of the acts issued by the National Assembly; and you forbade the minister of justice to deliver up the seals of state.

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The public money was laviſhed to inſure the ſucceſs of this treachery, and the public force was to protect it, under the orders of Bouillé, who ſhortly before had been charged with the maſſacre of Nancy, and to whom you wrote on this head, "to take care of his popularity, becauſe it would be of ſervice to you." Theſe facts are proved by the memorial of the 23d of February, with marginal comments in your own hand writing; by your declaration of the 20th of June, wholly in your own hand writing; by your letter of the 4th of September 1790 to Bouillé; and by a note of the latter, in which he gives you an account of the uſe he made of 993,000 livres, given by you, and employed partly in trepanning the troops who were to eſcort you. What have you to anſwer?" *Lewis.* "I have no knowledge whatever of the memorial of the 23d of February. As to what relates to my journey to Varennes, I appeal to my declaration to the commiſſaries of the conſtituent aſſembly at that period." *Preſ.* "After your detention at Varennes, the exerciſe of the executive power was for a moment ſuſpended in your hands, and you again formed a conſpiracy. On the 17th of July the blood of citizens was ſhed in the Champ de Mars. A letter, in your own hand-writing, written in 1790 to La Fayette, proves that a criminal coalition ſubſiſted between you and La Fayette, to which Mirabeau acceded. The reviſion began under theſe cruel auſpices; all kinds of corruptions were made uſe of. You have paid for libels, pamphlets, and newſpapers, deſigned to corrupt the public opinion, to diſcredit the aſſignats, and to ſupport the cauſe of the emigrants. The regiſters of Septeuil ſhew what immenſe ſums have been made uſe of in theſe liberticide manœuvres.—What have you to anſwer?" *Lewis.* "What happened on the 17th of July has nothing at all to do with me. I know nothing of it." *Preſ.* "You ſeemed to accept the conſtitution on the 14th of September; your ſpeeches announced an intention of ſupporting it, and you were buſy in overturning it, even before it was completed. A convention was entered into at Pilnitz on the 24th of July, between Leopold of Auſtria and Frederic-William of Brandenburgh, who pledged themſelves to re-erect in France the throne of abſolute monarchy, and you were ſilent upon this convention till the moment when it was known by all Europe.—What have you to anſwer?"—*Lewis.* "I made it known as ſoon as it came to my knowledge; beſides, every thing that refers to this ſubject concerns the miniſter." Many other charges were made, ſome of them very trifling, moſt of which the king denied any knowledge of. When the whole had been inveſtigated in this manner, the preſident, addreſſing the king, ſaid, "I have no other queſtions to propoſe—have you any thing more to add in your defence?"—"I deſire to have a copy of the accuſation (replied the king), and of the papers on which it is founded. I alſo deſire to have a counſel of my own nomination." Barrere informed him, that his two firſt requeſts were already decreed, and that the determination reſpecting the other would be made known to him in due time. It was accordingly decreed that counſel ſhould be allowed to the king, and his choice fell upon Meſſrs Tronchet, Lamoignon Maleſherbes, and Deſeze; he had previouſly applied to M. Target, who excuſed himſelf on account of his age and infirmity. On the 26th Dec. the king appeared for the laſt time at the bar of the convention; and M. Deſeze read a defence which the counſel had prepared, and which was equally admired for ſolidity of argument and beauty of compoſition. When the defence was finiſhed, the king aroſe, and holding a paper in his hand, ſaid in a calm manner, and with a firm voice; "Citizens, you have heard my defence; I now ſpeak to you, perhaps for the laſt time, and declare that my counſel have aſſerted nothing to you but the truth; my conſcience reproaches me with nothing: I never was afraid of having my conduct inveſtigated; but I obſerved with great unealineſs, that I was accuſed of giving orders for ſhedding the blood of the people on the 20th of Auguſt. The proofs I have given through my whole life of a contrary diſpoſition, I hoped would have ſaved me from ſuch an imputation, which I now ſolemnly declare is entirely groundleſs." The diſcuſſion was fatally cloſed on the 16th of January. After a ſitting of near 34 hours, the puniſhment of death was awarded by a ſmall majority of the convention, and ſeveral of theſe differed in opinion from the reſt, reſpecting the time when it ſhould be inflicted; ſome contending that it ſhould not be put in execution till after the end of the war, while others propoſed to take the ſenſe of the people, by referring the ſentence to the primary aſſemblies. M. Deſeze then ſolemnly invoked the aſſembly in the name of his colleagues, to conſider by what a ſmall majority, the puniſhment of death was pronounced againſt the dethroned monarch. "Do not afflict France (added this eloquent advocate) by a judgment that will appear terrible to her, when *five* voices only were preſumed ſufficient to carry it." He appealed to eternal juſtice, and ſacred humanity, to induce the convention to refer their ſentence to the tribunal of the people. "You have either forgotten or deſtroyed (ſaid the celebrated M. Tronchet) the lenity which the law allows to criminals, of requiring at leaſt *two thirds* of the voices to conſtitute a definitive judgment." The ſentence was ordered to be executed in 24 hours. The king and his family had been for ſome time kept ſeparate from each other; but he was now allowed to ſee them, and to chooſe an eccleſiaſtic to attend him. The meeting, and, above all, the ſeparation from his family, was tender in the extreme. On Monday the 21ſt Jan. 1793, at 8 o'clock A. M. the unfortunate monarch was ſummoned to his fate. He aſcended the ſcaffold with a firm air and ſtep. Raiſing his voice, he ſaid, "Frenchmen, I die innocent; I pardon all my enemies; and may France"—at this inſtant the inhuman Santerre ordered the drums to beat, and the executioners to perform their office. When the guillotine deſcended, the prieſt exclaimed, "Son of St Louis aſcend to heaven." The bleeding head was held up, and a few of the populace ſhouted *Vive la Republique.* His body was interred in a grave that was filled up with quicklime, and a guard placed around till it ſhould be conſumed. Thus fell Lewis XVI. He poſſeſſed a good underſtanding which, however, was blunted by the early indu-

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graces of a court. He had a ſtrong ſenſe of juſtice, and his humanity was perhaps extreme. His chief defect was want of reſolution and ſteadineſs. Unambitious, and eaſily adviſed, he was induced to change his purpoſes, eſpecially by his queen, whoſe connection with the houſe of Auſtria had always tended to render his counſels unpopular. Whether he was connected with the foreign invaders of his country, poſterity muſt decide; but all men of moderation are convinced that he was murdered by a band of ruffians. Indeed a ſentence more unjuſt, is not to be found in the records of hiſtory. The greater part of the charges brought againſt him were trifling. Thoſe which ſeem to be of importance relate to conduct authorized by the conſtitution under which he acted; and that conſtitution declared his perſon *inviolable*. The ſevereſt puniſhment that he could incur by law, was depoſition; and therefore in putting him to death the French nation broke the ſocial compact which their repreſentatives had made with him. In a political view, this tragical event was injurious to the republican cauſe throughout Europe. In all countries it excited the moſt violent indignation againſt the rulers of the new republic.

(12.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE RETREAT AND DEFECTION OF DUMOURIER. New enemies now haſtened to join the league againſt France. Indeed all the governments in Europe were juſtly alarmed at the principles openly avowed by the democrates who now bore the ſway in the French convention. The Britiſh government in particular, thought itſelf endangered by the propagation of thoſe ſpeculative opinions which had overturned the French monarchy. Moſt men of property concurred with the miniſtry in thinking a war with France neceſſary for ſecuring the conſtitution at home. After the 10th of Auguſt the Britiſh miniſter had been recalled; but the new republic ſtill ſuffered the former ambaſſador from France M. Chauvelin, to remain in England. The oſtenſible grounds of quarrel on the part of Great Britain were chiefly two; the decree of the 15th Nov. 1792, by which encouragement to rebellion was held out to the ſubjects of every ſtate, and war was thereby declared againſt every eſtabliſhed government. The 2d point of diſpute referred to the opening of the Scheldt. This river runs from Brabant through the Dutch territory to the ſea. The Dutch had ſhut up the mouth of it, and prevented any maritime commerce from being carried on by the people of Brabant by means of the river. To render themſelves popular in Brabant, the French had declared, that they would open the navigation of the Scheldt. But Great Britain had ſome time before bound herſelf by treaty with the Dutch to aſſiſt them in obſtructing this navigation, and now declared to the French, that the project of opening the Scheldt muſt be renounced, if peace with Great Britain was to remain. The French alleged, that by the law of nations navigable rivers ought to be open to all who reſide on their banks; but that the point was of no importance either to France or England, and even of very little importance to Holland; that if the people of Brabant themſelves choſe to give it up, they would make no objection. The Dutch gave themſelves no trouble about the matter. They did not aſk the aſſiſtance of England; and with that coolneſs which is peculiar to their character, the merchants individually declared, that if the Scheldt was opened, they could manage their commerce as well at Antwerp as at Amſterdam. But among the Dutch were many republicans, who wiſhed for the downfal of the Stadtholder. Theſe rejoiced at every thing which diſtreſſed him, or had a tendency to render his office uſeleſs in the eyes of the people. Others, who thought differently, were afraid to ſpeak their ſentiments, as Dumourier was in their neighbourhood with a victorious army. The reſult of the whole was, that M. Chauvelin was commanded by the Britiſh government to leave this country. The French executive council gave powers to another miniſter, M. Maret, to negociate, and requeſted a paſſport for him; but he was not ſuffered to land. The haughty republicans having thus far humbled themſelves before the Britiſh government, at laſt, on the 1ſt of Feb. 1793, on the motion of Briſſot, the national convention decreed, among other articles, that "George, king of England, had never ceaſed ſince the revolution of the 10th of Auguſt 1792, from giving to the French nation proofs of his attachment to the concert of crowned heads; that he had drawn into the ſame lake the ſtadtholder of the United Provinces; that, contrary to the treaty of 1783, the Engliſh miniſtry had granted protection to the emigrants and others who have openly appeared in arms againſt France; that they have committed an outrage againſt the French republic, by ordering the ambaſſador of France to quit Great Britain; that the Engliſh have ſtopped divers boats and veſſels laden with corn for France, whilſt, at the ſame time, contrary to the treaty of 1786, they continue the exportation of it to other foreign countries; that to thwart more efficaciouſly the commercial tranſactions of the republic with England, they have by an act of parliament prohibited the circulation of aſſignats. The convention therefore *declare*, that in conſequence of theſe acts of hoſtility and aggreſſion, the French republic is at war with the king of England and the ſtadtholder of the United Provinces." About a fortnight after this declaration, war was likewiſe declared againſt Spain; and in the courſe of the ſummer France was at war with all Europe, excepting Swiſſerland, Sweden, Denmark, and Turkey. In the mean time Gen. Dumourier made an attack upon Holland; but diſperſed his troops in ſuch a manner as to expoſe them much to any attack on the ſide of Germany. He ſent Gen. Miranda to inveſt Maeſtricht, while he advanced to block up Breda and Bergen op Zoom. Breda ſurrendered on the 24th of Feb. 1793. Klundert was taken on the 26th; and Gertruydenberg on the 4th of March. But here Dumourier's triumphs ended. The ſieges of Williamſtadt and Bergen op Zoom were vigorouſly but unſucceſsfully preſſed. On the 1ſt of March Gen. Clairfait, having paſſed the Roer, attacked the French poſts, and compelled them to retreat, with the loſs of 2000 men. On the 2d the archduke attacked them anew with ſucceſs. On the 3d the French were driven from Aix-la-Chapelle, with the loſs of 4000 men killed, and 1600 taken priſoners. The ſiege

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of Maeſtricht was now raiſed, and the French retreated to Tongres, where they were alſo attacked and forced to retreat to St Tron. Dumourier here joined them, but did not bring his army along with him from the attack upon Holland. After ſome ſkirmiſhes a general engagement took place at Neerwinden. It was fought on the part of the French with great obſtinacy; but they were at length overpowered by the number of their enemies, and perhaps by the treachery of their commander. The French loſt 3000 men, and 6000 deſerted and returned to France. Dumourier continued to retreat, and on the 22d he was again attacked near Louvain. Through the medium of Col. Mack, he came to an agreement with the Imperialiſts, that his retreat ſhould not be interrupted; that while the latter took poſſeſſion of Condé and Valenciennes, he ſhould march to Paris, diſſolve the convention, and place Lewis XVII. upon the throne. The rapid retreat and defeat of Dumourier rendered his conduct ſuſpicious. Commiſſioners were ſent to diſcover his deſigns. They pretended to communicate to him a ſcheme of a counter-revolution. He confeſſed his intention of diſſolving the convention and the Jacobin club, and reſtoring monarchy. On the report of theſe commiſſioners the convention ſent Bournonville to ſuperſede and arreſt Dumourier, with Camus, Blancal, La Marque and Quinette, as commiſſioners. The reſult was, that on the firſt of April, Dumourier ſent them all priſoners to Gen. Clairfait at Tournay, as hoſtages for the ſafety of the royal family. He next tried to ſeduce his army from their fidelity, but he ſoon found that he had miſtaken the character of his troops. Upon the report that their general was to be carried as a criminal to Paris, they were ſeized with ſudden indignation; but when they found him attempting to prevail with them to turn their arms againſt their own country, their ſentiments were altered. On the 5th April, two proclamations were iſſued; one by Dumourier, and the other by the prince of Saxe Cobourg, declaring that their only purpoſe was to reſtore the conſtitution of 1789, 1790, and 1791. Pr. Cobourg announced that the allied powers wiſhed merely to give France her conſtitutional king and the conſtitution ſhe had formed, declaring, on his *word of honour*, that he came not to make conqueſts. On the ſame day Dumourier went to the advanced guard of his own camp at Maukle. He there learned that the corps of artillery had riſen upon their general, and were marching to Valenciennes; and he ſoon found that the whole army had determined to ſtand by their country. Only 700 cavalry and 800 infantry deſerted with Dumourier to the Auſtrians, and many of them afterwards returned.

(13.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE REVOLUTIONARY TRIBUNAL, AND NEW REPUBLICAN CONSTITUTION. By the defection of Dumourier, however, the whole army of the north was diſſolved, and in part diſbanded, in preſence of a numerous, well-diſciplined, and victorious enemy. The Pruſſians were advancing on the Rhine with an immenſe force, to commence the ſiege of Mentz. In the interior of the republic more ſerious evils were ariſing. In the departments of the Vendée and the Loire, immenſe multitudes of emigrants and other royaliſts had aſſembled during the winter. They profeſſed to act in the name of *Monſieur*, a regent of France. About the middle of March 1793, 40,000 of them advanced againſt Mentz. In the beginning of April they defeated the republicans in two pitched battles, and poſſeſſed themſelves of 50 leagues of country. They threatened to ſhake the new republic to its foundation. On the 8th of April a congreſs of the combined powers aſſembled at Antwerp. It was attended by the prince of Orange and his two ſons with Vander Spiegel, on the part of Holland; by the D. of York and Lord Aukland on the part of Great Britain; by the prince of Saxe Cobourg, Counts Metterinch, Starenberg, and Mercy Dargenteau, with the Pruſſian, Spaniſh, and Neapolitan envoys. It was here determined to commence active operations againſt France. The prince of Cobourg's proclamation was *recalled* and a ſcheme of *conqueſt* announced. Commiſſioners from the convention now ſet up the ſtandard of the republic anew, and the ſcattered battalions flocked around it. Gen. Dampierre was appointed commander, and on the 13th he was able to reſiſt a general attack upon his advanced poſt. On the 14th, his advanced guard yielded to ſuperior numbers, but on the 15th proved victorious in a long and well fought battle. On the 23d the Auſtrians were again repulſed, and on the 1ſt of May, Gen. Dampierre was himſelf repulſed. On the 8th another battle took place, in which he was killed by a cannon ball. On the 23d a very determined attack was made by the allies upon the French camp of Famars, which covered Valenciennes. The French in the night abandoned their camp. The allies then commenced the ſiege of Valenciennes. Condé had been blockaded from the 1ſt of April. About this time Gen. Cuſtine on the Rhine made a violent but unſucceſsful attack upon the Pruſſians, in conſequence of which they laid ſiege to Mentz. The Corſican General Paoli revolted at this period; and the new republic, aſſaulted from without by the whole ſtrength of Europe, was undermined by treachery and faction within. While France was thus verging upon ruin, parties in the convention ſeemed only anxious for the extermination of each other. In March, the infamous *Revolutionary Tribunal* was eſtabliſhed for trying crimes committed againſt the ſtate; and the Girondiſt party, the mildneſs of whoſe adminiſtration had contributed to increaſe the evils of their country, began to ſee the neceſſity of adopting meaſures of ſeverity. But the public calamities, which now rapidly followed each other in ſucceſſion, were aſcribed by their countrymen to their imbecillity or perfidy. This gave to the *Mountain* party a fatal advantage. On the 15th April the communes of the 48 ſections of Paris preſented a petition, requiring that the chiefs of the Girondiſts ſhould be impeached and expelled from the convention. This was followed up on the 1ſt of May by another petition from the ſuburb of St Antoine. The *Girondist* party in the mean time impeached Marat, but he was acquitted by the jury at his trial. The Mountain, by the aſſiſtance of the Jacobin club, had now acquired a complete aſcendancy over

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Paris. The Briſſotines propoſed therefore to remove the convention from the capital; but to prevent this, the *Mountain* reſolved to make the ſame uſe of the Pariſians againſt the Girondiſts that they had formerly done againſt the king on the 10th of Auguſt. It is unneceſſary to detail all the tumults that occurred either in Paris or in the convention during the reſt of May. On the 31ſt, at 4. A. M. the tocſin was ſounded, the generale was beat, and the alarm guns fired. All was commotion and terror. The citizens flew to arms, and aſſembled round the convention. Some deputations demanded a decree of accuſation againſt 35 of its members. The day, however, was ſpent without deciſion. On the afternoon of the 1ſt of June an armed force made the ſame demand. On the 2d of June this was repeated, the tocſin again ſounded, and 100 pieces of cannon ſurrounded the national hall. At laſt Barrere mounted the tribune. He was conſidered as a moderate man, and reſpected by both parties; but he now artfully deſerted the Girondiſts. He invited the denounced members voluntarily to reſign their character of repreſentatives. Some complied, and the preſident attempted to diſſolve the ſitting; but the members were now impriſoned in their own hall. Henriot, commander of the armed force, compelled them to remain; and the obnoxious deputies, amounting to upwards of 90 in number, were put under arreſt, and a decree of denunciation againſt them ſigned. It is obvious, that on this occaſion the liberties of France were trodden under foot. The majority of the national repreſentatives, by the aſſiſtance of an armed force raiſed in the capital, compelled the majority to ſubmit to their meaſures, and took the leading members priſoners. Thus Paris aſſumed to itſelf the whole powers of the French republic; and the nation was no longer governed by repreſentatives freely choſen, but by a minority of their members, whoſe ſentiments the city of Paris and the Jacobin club had thought fit to approve of. Human hiſtory is a maſs of contradictions. The *Mountain* party came into power by preaching *liberty*, and by violating its fundamental principles. How far political *neceſſity* may excuſe their conduct, we ſhall not venture to decide. Certain it is, however, that they ſoon commenced a career of the moſt terrible energy, both at home and abroad, that is to be found in the annals of nations. The firſt reſult of their victory in the capital was calamitous to the republic. Briſſot and ſome other deputies eſcaped, and endeavoured to kindle the flames of civil war. But the influence of the Jacobin club, and its various branches, was ſuch, that the north of France adhered to the convention as it ſtood; but the ſouthern departments were ſoon in a ſtate of rebellion. The department of Lyons declared the *Mountain* party outlawed. Marſeilles and Toulon followed the example of Lyons, and entered into a confederacy, which has ſince been known by the appellation of *Federaliſm*. The departments of the Gironde and Calvados broke out into open revolt. In ſhort, all France was in a violent convulſion. Still, however, the enthuſiaſtic garriſons of Mentz and Valenciennes protected it againſt the immediate entrance of a foreign force, and allowed leiſure for one of its internal factions to gain an aſcendency, and thereafter to protect its independence. In the mean time, the political enthuſiaſm of all orders was ſuch, that even the female ſex did not eſcape its contagion. A young woman named Charlotte Cordé, in the beginning of July, came from the department of Calvados to devote her life for what ſhe thought the cauſe of freedom and of her country. She requeſted an interview with MARAT, the moſt obnoxious of the Mountain party. Having obtained it, and converſed with him calmly for ſome time, ſhe ſuddenly plunged a dagger in his breaſt, and walked carleſsly out of the houſe. She was immediately ſeized and condemned. At the place of execution ſhe behaved with the moſt intrepid conſtancy, ſhouting *Vive la republique*. (See CORDE.) The remains of Marat were interred with great ſplendor, and the convention attended his funeral. His party derived advantage from the manner of his death, as it ſeemed to faſten the odious charge of aſſaſſination upon their antagoniſts, and gave them the appearance of ſuffering in the cauſe of liberty. The truth is, that aſſaſſination was ſanctioned by both parties. One of the firſt acts of the Mountain junto after their triumph was to finiſh the republican conſtitution. Previous to their fall, the Girondiſts had brought forward the plan of a conſtitution, chiefly the work of Condorcet; but it never was ſanctioned by the convention, and was too intricate to be practically uſeful. The new conſtitution, which was afterwards ſanctioned by the nation, but never put in practice, aboliſhed the former mode of electing the repreſentatives of the people through the medium of *electoral* aſſemblies, and appointed them to be choſen immediately by the *primary* aſſemblies, which were made to conſiſt of from 200 to 600 citizens, each man voting by ballot or open vote at his option. There was one deputy for every 40,000 individuals, and population was the ſole baſis of repreſentation. The elections were to take place every year on the 1ſt of May. Electoral aſſemblies were ſtill retained for one purpoſe. Every 200 citizens in the primary aſſemblies named one elector; and an aſſembly of all the electors of the department were to be afterwards held, to elect candidates for the *executive council*, or miniſtry of the republic. The legiſlative body were to chooſe out of this liſt of candidates the members of the executive council. One half of this council was to be renewed by each legiſlature in the laſt month of the ſeſſion. Every law, after being paſſed by the legiſlative body, was to be ſent to the department. If in more than half of the departments the tenth of the primary aſſemblies of each did not object to it, it was to become effectual. Trial by jury was eſtabliſhed. National conventions might be called for altering the conſtitution, and *muſt* be called, if required by the tenth of the primary aſſemblies of each department in a majority of the departments. The publication of this conſtitution procured great applauſe to the convention and the Mountain party. The rapidity with which it was formed, (in a fortnight) ſeemed to caſt a juſt reproach upon the ſlowneſs of their antagoniſts, and it was regarded as a proof of their being decidedly

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cidedly ſerious in the cauſe of republicaniſm. The convention, however, diſregarded it, and declared itſelf permanent, thus aſſuming the whole power of the republic, legiſlative and executive.

(14.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE SIEGE AND EVACUATION OF TOULON. Condé did not yield till the 10th of July, when the garriſon was ſo much reduced by famine and diſeaſe, that out of 4000 men, of which it originally conſiſted, only 1500 were fit for ſervice. The eyes of all Europe were in the mean time fixed upon the ſiege of Valenciennes. Col. Moncrieff had contended, that batteries ought to be placed under the walls without approaching it by regular parallels; but the imperial engineer, Ferraris aſſerted, that the great Vauban's work muſt be treated with more reſpect; and his opinion was adopted by the council of war. The trenches were opened on the 14th of June 1793. The inhabitants wiſhed to ſurrender; but the violence of the bombardment prevented their aſſembling. Much of the labour of the ſiege conſiſted of mines and countermines. Some of theſe having been ſucceſsfully ſprung by the allies, the town was ſurrendered on the 27th July by capitulation, to the Duke of York, who took poſſeſſion of it in name of the emperor. The ſiege of Mentz was going on. It ſuffered much from famine. At laſt, after an unſucceſsful attempt by the French for its relief, it ſurrendered on the 22d July. At the termination of the ſiege of Valenciennes it is ſaid that the allied powers were at a loſs how to proceed next. Among various plans preſented, that of the Britiſh miniſtry was adopted, to divide the grand army, and to attack W. Flanders, beginning with the ſiege of Dunkirk. This determination proved ruinous to the allies. The French vanquiſhed that army when divided, which they could not encounter when united. On the 24th Aug. the D. of York attacked and drove the French outpoſts into the town, after an action in which the Auſtrian general Dalton was killed. But a ſtrong republican force menanced the covering army of the allies, under Gen. Freytag. He was attacked and totally routed. The ſiege was raiſed. The Britiſh loſt their cannon and baggage, with ſeveral thouſand men; and the convention, believing that Houchard, their general, could have cut off the Duke of York's retreat, tried and executed him for this neglect. Pr. Cobourg and Gen. Clairfait beſieged Cambray and Bouchain without ſucceſs. Queſnoy was, however, taken by Gen. Clairfait on the 11th Sept. which terminated for that campaign the ſucceſs of the allies in the Netherlands. A part of the French army of the north took a ſtrong poſition near Maubeuge, where they were blockaded by Pr. Cobourg; but upon the 15th and 16th Oct. he was attacked by the French troops under Jourdan, who had now recovered their vigour. They brought into the field a formidable train of artillery, with many 24 pounders. Commiſſioners from the convention harangued the ſoldiers, threatened the fearful, and applauded the brave. Crowds of women throwing off their natural timidity, went through the ranks, diſtributing ſpiritous liquors, and carrying off the wounded. The attacks were repeated and terrible on both ſides; but the Auſtrians were defeated, and Cobourg retired in the night. The French now menaced maritime Flanders. They took Furnes and beſieged Nieuport. A detachment of Britiſh troops were haſtily ſent to Oſtend, and ſtopt the farther progreſs of the French. Such was the multiplicity of the events that now occurred in France, that it is difficult to ſtate them with perſpicuity. The department of Calvados was firſt in arms againſt the convention under Gen. Felix Wimpfen; but before the end of July this inſurrection was quieted. But the fœderaliſm of the cities of Marſeilles, Lyons, and Toulon, ſtill remained. LYONS was attacked on the 8th Aug. by the conventional troops. Several actions followed, attended with great loſs on both ſides. The city was reduced almoſt to ruins; but it held out all September. Kellerman was removed on account of inactivity; and the city ſurrendered on the 8th Oct. to Gen. Doppet. Such was the rage of party zeal, that the walls of Lyons were ordered to be deſtroyed, and its name changed to that of VILLE AFFRANCHIE. Many hundreds of its citizens were executed, for their reſiſtance. The victorious party, wearied by the ſlow operation of the *guillotine*, at laſt murdered their priſoners in multitudes, by grape-ſhot. Such was the unrelenting character of the Mountain at this time, through the whole republic, that they themſelves declared that *terror was the order of the day*. In the end of July, Gen. Cartaux was ſent againſt Marſeilles. In Auguſt he gained ſome ſucceſſes over the fœderaliſts. On the 24th he took the town of Aix, and the Marſeilois ſubmitted. But the leading people of TOULON entered into a negociation, and ſubmitted to Lord Hood, under condition that he ſhould preſerve the town and ſhipping for Lewis XVII. and that he ſhould aſſiſt in reſtoring the conſtitution of 1789. The ſiege of Toulon was commenced by Gen. Cartaux in September. Neapolitan, Spaniſh, and Engliſh troops, were brought by ſea to aſſiſt in its defence. In November, Cartaux was removed to the army in Italy, and Dugommier ſucceeded him. Gen. O'Hara arrived with reinforcements from Gibraltar, and took upon him the command of the town, under a Britiſh commiſſion. On the 30th Nov. the garriſon made a powerful ſally to deſtroy ſome batteries erecting upon heights. The allies ſucceeded in their object; but, elated by the facility of their conqueſt, ruſhed forward in purſuit of the flying enemy, and were met by a ſtrong French force that was drawn out to protect the fugitives. O'Hara now came from the city to bring off his troops; but was wounded and taken priſoner. The total loſs of the allies in this affair was eſtimated at nearly 1,000 men. The French had now muſtered in full force around Toulon, and prepared for the attack. It was begun on the 19th Dec. and was chiefly directed againſt Fort Mulgrave, defended by the Britiſh. This fort was protected by an entrenched camp, 13 pieces of cannon 36 and 24 pounders, &c. 5 mortars, and 3000 troops. Such was the ardour of aſſault, that it was carried in an hour, and the whole garriſon deſtroyed or taken. The allies finding it impoſſible to defend the place, in the courſe of the day embarked their troops, after having ſet on fire the arſenal and ſhips. A ſcene of confuſion enſued unparallele

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unparalleled in the hiſtory of modern wars. Crowds of people of every rank, age, and ſex, hurried on board the ſhips, to avoid the vengeance of their enraged countrymen. Some of the inhabitants began to fire upon their late allies; others in deſpair plunged into the ſea, making a vain effort to reach the ſhips: 31 ſhips of the line were found by the Britiſh at Toulon; 13 were left behind; ten were burnt; 4 had been previouſly ſent to the French ports of Breſt and Rochefort, with 5000 republicans who could not be truſted; and Great Britain obtained by this expedition 3 ſhips of the line and 5 frigates.

(15.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE TRIAL AND EXECUTION OF THE GIRONDISTS, THE QUEEN, AND D. OF ORLEANS, &c. On the ſide of Spain the war produced nothing of importance; and in the mountainous country of Piedmont it went on ſlowly. Nice and Chambery were ſtill retained by the French; but more terrible ſcenes were acting in other quarters. In the Vendée a moſt bloody war was perſiſted in by the royaliſts. In that part of the country the language of the reſt of France is little underſtood. The people were ſuperſtitious, and had acquired little idea of the new opinions lately propagated in the reſt of the republic. They were chiefly headed by prieſts, and regarded their cauſe as a religious one. Their mode of warfare uſually was, after going on in their ordinary occupations, ſuddenly to aſſemble in immenſe bands, inſomuch that at one time they amounted to 150,000 men. They beſieged Nantz and Orleans. The war was inconceivably bloody. Neither party gave quarter; and the Vendée proved a dreadful ſcene of ſlaughter. On the 28th of June, 1793, Gen. Biron drove the royaliſts from Lucon; and Nantz was relieved by Gen. Beyſſer. After ſome ſucceſs, Gen. Weſterman was ſurpriſed by them, and compelled to retreat to Parthenay. Early in Auguſt the royaliſts were defeated by Gen. Roſſignol; but on the 10th of that month, under Charette their commander, they again attacked Nantz, but were repulſed. It was a tedious but cruel war. The royaliſts were often defeated and ſeemingly diſperſed, but as often aroſe in crowds around the aſtoniſhed republicans. At laſt, about the middle of October, they were completely defeated, driven from the Vendée, and forced to divide into ſeparate bodies. One of theſe threw itſelf into the iſland of Noirmoutier, where they were ſubdued; another took the road of Maine and Brittany, where they ſtruggled for ſome time, but were at laſt cut to pieces or diſperſed. The royaliſts had long expected aſſiſtance from Britain; and an armament under the earl of Moira was fitted out for that ſervice, but arrived too late. The Mountain party diſgraced their ſucceſſes by dreadful cruelties. The unrelenting cruelties exerciſed againſt the unfortunate royaliſts, by Carrier, a deputy from the convention, are incredible. No age nor ſex was ſpared; and theſe executions were perfurmed with every circumſtance of wanton barbarity. On the ſide of the Rhine a great variety of events occurred in Auguſt and September. Several engagements took place, in which the French were, upon the whole, ſucceſsful. In Sept. however, Landau was inveſted by the combined powers. On the 13th October, Gen. Wurmſer made a grand attack upon the French lines at Weiſſembourg on the Lauter, and drove the French from them; who retreated to Hagenau, from which they were driven on the 18th; and ſuffered two other defeats on the 25th and 27th. Some citizens of Straſburg now ſent to Wurmſer, offering to ſurrender the town to be kept for Lewis XVII. But Wurmſer inſiſted upon an abſolute ſurrender to the emperor. In conſequence of this, the negociation was diſcovered, and the citizens engaged in it, were ſeized by St Juſt and Lebas, and brought to the ſcaffold. Prodigious efforts were now made by the French to recover their ground. General Irembert was ſhot at the head of the army on the 9th of Nov. upon a charge of treachery at Weiſſembourg. On the 14th, Fort Louis was taken by the allies, with ſuſpicion of treachery. But here the ſucceſs of Wurmſer terminated. On the 21ſt the republican army drove back the Auſtrians, and penetrated almoſt to Hagenau. An army from the Moſelle advanced to co-operate with the army of the Rhine. On the 17th the Pruſſians were defeated near Sarbruck. Next day their camp at Blieſcaſtel was ſtormed, and the French advanced to Deux Ponts. On the 29th and 30th the French were repulſed with great loſs in two violent attacks made on the duke of Brunſwick near Lautern. Every day was a day of battle, and torrents of blood were ſhed on both ſides. The allies had the advantage of the ground, which, in that quarter, at ſuch a late ſeaſon of the year, is very ſtrong on account of its inequalities and moraſſes. In military ſkill, the French officers and thoſe of the allies were perhaps nearly equal; but the French army was by far the moſt numerous; and although not a match in point of diſcipline, yet it derived great ſuperiority from the enthuſiaſm with which the troops were animated. On the 8th Dec. under Gen. Pichegru, the French carried the redoubts which covered Hagenau by the bayonet. With this modern inſtrument of deſtruction, which is always moſt ſucceſsful in the hands of the moſt intrepid, the fury of the republicans ſeemed only to increaſe in proportion to the multitude of companions they loſt; and the fineſt troops that ever Europe produced were unable to withſtand them. On the 22d the allies were driven with immenſe ſlaughter from Hagenau, notwithſtanding the immenſe works they had thrown up for their defence. The entrenchments on the heights of Reiſhoffen, Jauderſhoffen, &c. were conſidered as more impregnable than thoſe of Jemappe. They were ſtormed by the army of the Moſelle and the Rhine, under generals Hoche and Pichegru. On the 23d and 24th, the allies were purſued to the heights of Wrotte. On the 26th, the entrenchments there were forced by the bayonet, after a deſperate conflict. On the 27th, the republican army arrived at Weiſſembourg in triumph. Gen. Wurmſer retreated acroſs the Rhine, and the duke of Brunſwick haſtily fell back to cover Mentz. The blockade of Landau, which had laſted 4 months, was raiſed. Fort Louis was evacuated by the allies, and Kaiſerſlautern, Germerſheim, and Spires, ſubmitted to the French.—During Dec. 1793, the loſs of men on both ſides in this quarter was immenſe.

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menſe, and unexampled in the hiſtory of modern war. It is even ſaid that it might amount to more than 70,000 or 80,000 men. Thus far of military affairs for the preſent. In the mean time, very violent efforts were made at Paris by the new adminiſtration, eſtabliſhed under the auſpices of the Jacobin club, and of the party called the *Mountain*. The new republican conſtitution had been preſented to the people in the primary aſſemblies, and accepted. The buſineſs, therefore, for which the convention was called together, that of forming a conſtitution for France, was at an end; and it was propoſed that they ſhould diſſolve themſelves, and order a new legiſlative body to aſſemble, according to the rules preſcribed by that conſtitution. This was, no doubt, the regular mode of procedure; but the ruling party conſidered it as hazardous to convene a new aſſembly, poſſeſſing only limited powers, in the preſent diſtracted ſtate of the country. It was indeed obvious, that France at this time ſtood in need of a dictatorſhip, or of a government poſſeſſed of more abſolute authority than can be enjoyed by one that acts, or pretends to act upon the moderate principles of freedom. It was therefore determined that the convention ſhould remain undiſſolved till the end of the war; and that a *revolutionary* government, to be conducted by its members, ſhould be eſtabliſhed, with uncontrouled powers. Committees of its own body were ſelected for the purpoſe of conducting every department of buſineſs. The chief of theſe committees was called the *committee of public ſafety*. It ſuperintended all the reſt, and gave to the adminiſtration of France all the ſecrecy and diſpatch, which have been accounted peculiar to a military government, together with a combination of ſkill and energy hitherto unknown among mankind. A correſpondence was kept up with all the Jacobin clubs throughout the kingdom. Commiſſioners from the convention were ſent into all quarters, with unlimited authority over every order of perſons. Thus a government poſſeſſed of infinite vigilance, and more abſolute and tyrannical than that of any ſingle deſpot, was eſtabliſhed; and the whole tranſactions and reſources of the ſtate were known to the rulers. On the 23d Aug. Barrere, in name of the committee of public ſafety, procured the celebrated decree to be paſſed for placing the whole French nation in a *ſtate of requiſition* for the public ſervice. The decree, which was expreſſed in the moſt pompous terms, alſo regulated the mode of organizing this maſs. A decree more tyrannical than this was never made by any eaſtern deſpot; and when it was firſt publiſhed, foreigners were at a loſs whether to regard it as a ſublime effort of a powerful government, or as a wild project which could produce nothing but confuſion. The effects of it, however, were truly terrible. We have mentioned ſome of them in the bloody conteſt upon the Rhine, and Europe was deſtined to bear witneſs to ſtill more extraordinary events. In the end of July, Gen. Cuſtine was tried and executed, in conſequence of various accuſations of infidelity to his truſt. The queen was next brought to trial before the revolutionary tribunal, on the 15th Oct. The charges againſt her were very various; but the chief tendency of them was to prove that ſhe had always been hoſtile to the revolution, and had excited all the efforts that had been made by the court againſt it. On the 16th October, 1793, this beautiful woman, whom fortune once placed ſo high, ended her days on a ſcaffold, after a mock trial, in which no regard was paid either to juſtice or decency. She behaved with much dignity and compoſure, and appeared deeply impreſſed with a ſenſe of religion. The members of the convention, who had been at the head of the Girondiſt party, and had either been detained in priſon ſince the 31ſt of May, or ſeized in the departments to which they had retired, were afterwards brought to trial. On the 30th October, 21 of them were executed; viz. Briſſot, Vergniaud, Genſonné, Duprat, Lehardi, Ducos, Fonfrede, Boileau, Gardien, Duchatel, Silliery, Fauchet, Dufriche, Duperret, La Source, Carra, Beauvais, Mainville, Antiboul, Vigée, and Lacaze. Seventy-one were ſtill detained in confinement. The duke of Orleans was afterwards condemned, on a charge of having aſpired to the ſovereignty from the beginning of the revolution. His execution gave ſatisfaction to all parties. His vote for the puniſhment of death upon the trial of the late king had done him little honour, even in the opinion of the Mountain, and had rendered him odious to all the reſt of mankind. The executions of perſons of all ranks particularly of prieſts and nobles, became now ſo common, that it would be in vain to attempt to give any detail of them. Every perſon brought before the revolutionary tribunal was condemned as a matter of courſe. The Jacobins ſeemed inſatiable in their thirſt after blood, and the people at large appeared to regard their conduct with unaccountable indifference.

(16.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE TRIAL AND EXECUTION OF THE PRINCIPAL JACOBINS. When the human mind is once rouſed, its activity extends to every object. At this time a new table of weights and meaſures was eſtabliſhed by the convention, in which the decimal arithmetic alone is employed. The court of Spain had the liberality, notwithſtanding the war, to ſuffer M. Mechain to proceed in his operations for meaſuring a degree of the meridian in that country. He carried on a ſeries of triangles from Barcelona to Perpignan, and from this place the menſuration was continued to Paris. M. de Lambre, and his pupil Delle Francois, alſo meaſured a degree of latitude in the vicinity of the metropolis. In all, 12 degrees of the meridian were meaſured; of which the mean is 57027 toiſes, and by this the univerſal ſtandard of meaſure is calculated. Meſſ. De Borda and Caſſini determined the length of a pendulum that ſwings ſeconds *in vacuo* and in a mean temperature at Paris, to be 3 feet and 8·06 lines. Meſſ. Lavoiſier and Hauy found that a cubic foot of diſtilled water at the freezing point weighs *in vacuo* 70 pounds and 60 gros French weight. See the table of the meaſures and weights now eſtabliſhed, under MEASURE, § X, i—iii. A piece of ſilver coin weighing a *centigrave*, and a *franc* of ſilver, according to the former ſtandard is worth 40 ſols 10½ deniers. The MILLIARE, or 1000 METRES, is ſubſtituted for the mile; and the *arpent* for the arpent in land meaſure. The two laſt

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are to each other as 49 to 25. The aſtronomical circles with which Meſſ. de Borda and Caſſini made the obſervations, are divided according to this plan. The quadrant contains 100 degrees, and each degree 100 minutes. Hence the minute of a great circle on our globe is equal to a *milliare*, or new French mile. If, for the reduction of this meaſure, we eſtimate the Paris toiſe, according to the compariſon made with the ſtandard kept in the Royal Society of London, at 6·3925 Engliſh feet, the *milliare* or minute will be equal to 1093·633 yards, and the *metre* 3·280899 feet. At the ſame period a new kalendar was formed. See CALENDAR, § 3. The religion of France had been gradually loſing its influence; and on the 7th of November, Gobet biſhop of Paris, with a great multitude of other eccleſiaſtics, came into the hall of the convention, and ſolemnly reſigned their functions and *renounced the Chriſtian religion*. All the clergymen, whether Proteſtant or Catholic, that were members of the convention, followed this example, excepting only abbé Gregoire, whom we firſt mentioned as having been one of the firſt prieſts that joined the Tiers Etat, after the meeting of the States General. He had the courage to profeſs himſelf a Chriſtian, but added that the emoluments of his biſhopric were at the ſervice of the republic. With the acclamations of the convention, it was decreed, the only French deities hereafter ſhould be *Liberty*, *Equality*, *Reaſon*, &c. and they ſeem to have conſecrated theſe as a kind of new objects of worſhip. The populace, however, could not at once relinquiſh entirely the religion of their fathers. The Commune of Paris ordered the churches to be ſhut up, but the Convention found it neceſſary to annul this order; and Robeſpierre gained great popularity by ſupporting the liberty of religious worſhip. Hebert and Fabre d'Eglantine, who led the oppoſite party, haſtened their own fall by their ill-judged contempt of popular opinion. For, now that the republic was ſucceſsful in all quarters, when the Mountain party and the Jacobins had no rival at home, and accounted themſelves in no immediate danger from abroad, they began to ſplit into factions, and the fierceſt animoſities aroſe. The Jacobin Club was the uſual place in which their conteſts were carried on; and at this time Robeſpierre acted the part of a predator between all parties. He attempted with great art to turn their attention from private animoſities to public affairs. He ſpread a report that an invaſion of Great Britain was ſpeedily to take place. He therefore propoſed that the Jacobin Club ſhould ſet themſelves to work to diſcover the vulnerable parts of the Britiſh conſtitution and government. They did ſo: They made ſpeeches, and wrote eſſays without number. And in this way was the moſt fierce and turbulent band of men that ever perhaps exiſted in any country occupied and amuſed for a very conſiderable time. The winter paſſed away in tolerable quietneſs, and no military enterpriſe was undertaken either by the allies or by the French. On the 1ſt Feb. Barrere aſſerted in the Convention that the confederate powers were willing *proviſionally* to acknowledge the French republic, to conſent to a ceſſation of hoſtilities for two years, at the end of which a laſting peace ſhould be ratified by the French people. But this propoſal the Convention rejected, as affording to their enemies time and the means of undermining their new government. In the mean time, the revolutionary government was gradually becoming more vigorous. Thirty committees of the Convention managed the whole buſineſs of the ſtate, without ſharing much of the direct executive government, which reſted in the committee of public ſafety. Theſe different committees were engaged in the utmoſt variety of objects. The ruling party had no competitors for power. Without confuſion or oppoſition, therefore, the moſt extenſive plans were rapidly carried into effect. The Convention was little more than a court in which every project was ſolemnly regiſtered. In the ſame ſeſſion 30 decrees would ſometimes be paſſed upon objects moſt widely different. The finances were under one committee, at the head of which was Cambon.—This committee found reſources for the moſt laviſh expenditure. The aſſignats were received as money throughout the ſtate; and thus a *paper mill* was ſaid to have become more valuable than a *mine of gold*. Their credit was ſupported by an arbitrary law regulating the *maximum* or higheſt price of all proviſions, and by the immenſe maſs of wealth which had come into the hands of the Convention by ſeizing the church lands, and by confiſcating the property of royaliſts, emigrants, and perſons condemned by the revolutionary tribunal. So unequally had property been divided under the ancient government, that by means of theſe confiſcations about ſeven 10ths of the national territory was ſuppoſed to be in the hands of the public. To this was added the plunder of the churches, conſiſting of gold and ſilver images and utenſils, along with other articles of leſs value; among which may be mentioned the innumerable church bells, which were regarded as ſufficient for the manufacture of 15,000 pieces of cannon. Theſe reſources formed a maſs of property ſuch as never was poſſeſſed by any government. Other committees were engaged in very different objects. Highways were paved, and canals planned and cut throughout the country. Immenſe manufactories of arms were everywhere eſtabliſhed. At Paris alone 1100 muſkets were daily fabricated, and 100 pieces of cannon caſt every month. Public ſchools were aſſiduouſly inſtituted, and the French language taught in its purity from the Pyrenees to the Rhine. The French Convention poſſeſſed immenſe reſources, and they did not heſitate to laviſh them upon their ſchemes. Every ſcience and every art was called upon for aid, and the moſt accompliſhed men in every profeſſion were employed in giving ſplendour to their country. The chemiſts, in particular, gave eſſential aid by the facility with which they ſupplied materials for the manufacture of gun-powder; and in return for their ſervices, *Lavoiſier*, the greateſt of them, ſuffered death by a moſt iniquitous ſentence. (See LAVOISIER.) Not fewer than 200 new dramatic performances were produced in leſs than two years; the object of which was to attach the people to the *then* preſent order of things. The vigour with which the committees of ſubſiſtence exerted themſelves was great. As all Europe

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was

was at war with France, and as England, Holland, and Spain, the three maritime powers, were engaged in the conteſt, it had been thought not impoſſible to reduce France to great diſtreſs by famine, eſpecially as it was imagined that the country had not reſources to ſupply its immenſe population. But the leaders of the republic acted with the policy of a beſieged garriſon. They ſeized upon the whole proviſions in the country, and carried them to public granaries. They regiſtered the cattle, and made owners reſponſible for them.—They provided the armies abundantly, and, as the people were accurately numbered, they dealt out in every diſtrict, on ſtated occaſions, what was abſolutely neceſſary for ſubſiſtence, and no more. To all this the people ſubmitted; and indeed, throughout the whole of the mixed ſcenes of this revolution, the calm judgment of the hiſtorian is not a little perplexed. We cannot avoid admiring the patience with which the people endured every hardſhip that was repreſented as neceſſary to the common cauſe, and the enthuſiaſtic energy with which they laviſhed their blood in defence of the independence of their country. At the ſame time, we muſt regard with indignation and diſguſt the intrigues by which the ſanguinary factions in the Convention and the capital alternately maſſacred each other. During the winter the diſſenſions of the Jacobins ſtill increaſed. They were divided into two clubs, of which the one aſſembled at a hall which once belonged to the Cordeliers. The leaders of it were Hebert, Ronſin, Vincent, and others; but the old ſociety retained its aſcendency, and Robeſpierre was now decidedly its leader. This extraordinary man had gradually accumulated in his own perſon the confidence of the people and the direction of the government. As the committees were above the Convention, which was become little more than a ſilent court of record, ſo the committee of public ſafety was above the other committees. Robeſpierre was the leader of this ruling committee. Barrere, St Juſt, Couthon, and others of its members, only acted a ſecondary part. They laboured in the buſineſs of the ſtate, but the radical power was with Robeſpierre. He ſurrounded the members of the Convention with ſpies. He was jealous and implacable, and ſet no bounds to the ſhedding of blood. On the 25th of March he brought to trial the following active Jacobins, who were condemned and executed on the following day: Hebert, Ronſin, Momoro, Vincent, Du Croquet, Kocq, Col. Laumur, Bourgeois, Mazuel, La Boureau, Ancard, Le Clerc, Proly, Deſſieux, Anacharſis Clootz, Pereira, Florent, Armand, Deſcombes, and Debuiſon. Not ſatisfied with this, on the 2d of April he brought to trial nine of thoſe who had been his moſt vigorous aſſociates, Danton, Fabre d'Eglantine, Bazire, Chabot, Philippeaux, Camille Desmoulins, Lacroix, Delaunay d'Angers, and Herault de Sechelles, who, along with Weſterman, were executed on the evening of the 5th. He then boaſted that he "had rid the Convention of the *Atheiſts*."

(17.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE VICTORY OVER THE FRENCH FLEET, ON THE FIRST OF JUNE, 1794. The preparations for the next campaign proceeded with unabated vigour. The committee for military affairs, at the head of which were Carnot, La Fitte, d'Aniſli, and others, was buſy in arranging along the frontiers the immenſe force which the requiſition had called forth. Plans of attack and defence were made out by this committee; and when approved by the committee of public ſafety they were ſent to the generals to be executed. On the other ſide, the allies were making powerful preparations for another attempt to ſubjugate France. The emperor took the field at the head of the armies in the Netherlands. Weſt Flanders was to be protected by a ſtrong body of men; the main army was to penetrate to Landrecy, and to cut off the French from the interior by covering the country from Maubeuge to the ſea. The plan was *bold*, but when attempting to put it in execution, the allies muſt have been ill informed of the immenſe force which the French were collecting againſt them. The town of Liſle alone, which is capable of containing a numerous army within its walls, ſhould have ſeemed an inſurmountable objection to the plan. On the 16th April the Auſtrian, Britiſh, and Dutch armies aſſembled on the heights above Cateau, and were reviewed by the emperor. On the 17th they advanced in 8 columns againſt the French, drove in their whole poſts, and penetrated beyond Landrecy. The allied army now amounted to 187,000 men, who were diſpoſed in the following manner; 15,000 Dutch and 15,000 Auſtrians, under the prince of Orange and general Latour, formed the ſiege of Landrecy; 15,000 Britiſh and 15,000 Auſtrians, commanded by the duke of York and general Otto, encamped towards Cambray. The emperor and the prince of Saxe-Coburg, at the head of 60,000 Auſtrians, were advanced as far as Guiſe; 12,000 Heſſians and Auſtrians under general Wurmſer were ſtationed near Douay and Bouchain; Count Kaunitz with 15000 Auſtrians defended the Sambre and the quarter near Maubeuge; and, Gen. Clairfait with 40,000 Auſtrians and Hanoverians, protected Flanders from Tournay to the ſea; 60,000 Pruſſians, for whom a ſubſidy had been paid by Great Britain, were expected in addition to theſe but they never arrived. The French now commenced their operations. On the morning of the 26th of April they attacked the duke of York near Cateau in great force. After a ſevere conflict they were repulſed, and their general Chapuy was taken priſoner. At the ſame time they attacked the troops under his imperial majeſty, but were there alſo repulſed in a ſimilar manner; loſing in all 57 cannon. On the ſame day, however, General Pichegru advanced from Liſle, attacked and defeated Clairfait, took 32 pieces of cannon; and in the courſe of a few days, made himſelf maſter of Warwick, Menin, and Courtray. On the 29th April, the garriſon of Landrecy ſurrendered to the allies. When this event was known in the convention, it excited a conſiderable degree of alarm. It was, however, the laſt effectual piece of ſucceſs enjoyed by the allies during this diſaſtrous campaign. Gen. Clairfait was again completely defeated by Pichegru in a general engagement; and it was found neceſſary to ſend the duke

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of York to his aſſiſtance. On the 10th the duke of York was attacked near Tournay by a body of the enemy, whom he repulſed; but he was unable to join Clairfait, upon whoſe deſtruction the French were chiefly bent: for at the ſame time that the duke of York was occupied by the attack upon himſelf, Pichegru fell upon Clairfait with ſuch irreſiſtible impetuoſity, that he was compelled to retreat in confuſion, and a part of his army appears to have fled to the neighbourhood of Bruges. While Pichegru was thus advancing ſucceſsfully in W. Flanders, Jourdan advanced in E. Flanders from Maubeuge, croſſed the Sambre, and forced general Kaunitz to retreat. On the 18th, however, general Kaunitz ſucceeded in repulſing the enemy, and they re-croſſed the Sambre with conſiderable loſs. The allies now found that no progreſs could be made in France, while Pichegru was advancing ſucceſsfully and occupying W. Flanders in their rear. The emperor, therefore, withdrew the greater part of his army towards Tournay, and reſolved to make a grand effort to cut off the communication between Courtray and Lille, to prevent completely the retreat of Pichegru. On the night of the 16th, the army moved forwards in five columns for this purpoſe: Clairfait was directed to croſs the Lys, to effect a general junction, and complete the plan; but, in the courſe of next day, the diviſion under the D. of York was overpowered by numbers and defeated. The progreſs of the reſt was ſtopped, and Clairfait completely defeated. The duke of York only eſcaped being made priſoner by the ſwiftneſs of his horſe. The plan of the allies being thus fruſtrated, their army withdrew to the neighbourhood of Tournay. Pichegru attempted to retaliate. On the 22d of May he brought down at daybreak his whole force againſt the allies. The attack was commenced by a heavy fire of artillery, and all the advanced poſts were forced. The engagement ſoon became general; the whole day was ſpent in a ſucceſſion of obſtinate battles. The French and the allied ſoldiers fought with equal courage and equal diſcipline. At 9 o'clock P. M. the French at laſt withdrew from the attack. In this engagement the French were unſucceſsful in their immediate object; but the weight of their fire, their ſteady diſcipline, and their violent obſtinacy of attack, raiſed their military character high in the eſtimation of even their enemies. Their numbers were immenſe; they implicitly obeyed their generals. A combination of efforts was thus produced whoſe operation was not retarded by divided counſels. On the other ſide, the numbers of the allies were daily declining; their leaders were independent princes, whoſe ſentiments and intereſts were often hoſtile to each other, and their exertions were conſequently diſunited. On the 14th the French again croſſed the Sambre, but were driven back with much loſs. On the 27th they attempted to beſiege Charleroi, but the prince of Orange on the 3d of June compelled them to raiſe the ſiege. On the 12th a ſimilar attempt was made, and they were again repulſed. In W. Flanders, however, Pichegru commenced the ſiege of Ypres. It was garriſoned by 7000 men; reinforcements were therefore daily ſent from the grand army to Clairfait to relieve it. The bloody conteſts in which the unfortunate general was daily engaged with the French, were uniformly unſucceſsful, and were the means of waſting the armies of the allies. Ypres held out till the 17th of June, when it capitulated: and ſuch was the diſcipline of the French army at this time, that no notice could be obtained, for ſeveral days, of that event. On this the duke of York retreated to Oudenarde; for Jourdan, after ſtorming the Auſtrian camp of Betignies, advanced with ſuch ſtrength upon Charleroi in the E. that its immediate fall was feared. As this would have enabled the two French armies to encircle the whole of Flanders, the prince of Cobourg advanced to its relief. Charleroi ſurrendered at diſcretion on the 25th. The prince of Cobourg advanced on the 26th to attack in their entrenchments the army that covered the ſiege near Fleurus; but the covering army being by this time reinforced by the acceſſion of the beſieging army, the allies were repulſed. Jourdan then drew his men out of their entrenchments; and attacked the Auſtrians. He was three times repulſed, but was at laſt ſucceſsful: the loſs of the vanquiſhed army was prodigious. The French ſaid it amounted to 15,000 men. The allies now retreated in all quarters. Nieuport, Oſtend, and Bruges, were taken, and Tournay, Mons, Oudenarde, and Bruſſels, opened their gates. At this laſt place the French armies of E. and W. Flanders united. Landrecy, Valenciennes, Condé, and Queſnoy, were left with garriſons. The allied troops, evacuating Namur, formed a line from Antwerp to Liege to protect the country behind. The French advanced in full force, and attacked Gen. Clairfait, cut to pieces half his troops that remained, and broke the line. The allies retreated. The D. of York was joined by ſome troops under the earl of Moira; with theſe and the Dutch troops he retired to near Bergen op Zoom and Breda for the protection of Holland. The prince of Cobourg evacuated Liege, croſſed the Mæſe, and placed a garriſon in Maeſtricht. He ſoon, however, ſent back a part of his troops to the neighbourhood of Tongres; for here, to the aſtoniſhment of all Europe, the French armies made a voluntary pauſe in their career of victory, and ceaſed to purſue their retiring foes. Sluys in Dutch Flanders was the only foreign poſt that they continued to attack, and it ſurrendered after a ſiege of 21 days. On the Rhine the war was equally ſucceſsful on the part of the French. On the 12th, 13th, and 14th of July, repeated engagements were fought; in which the French enjoyed their uſual ſucceſs. They had numerous armies in every quarter. Their mode of fighting was to make full preparation for accompliſhing their object, and to fight in great bodies day after day till it was obtained. The Palatinate was thus over-run, and Treves taken, by gen. Michaud. Flanders and the Palatinate, the granaries of Germany, thus both, in harveſt, fell into the hands of the French. During the courſe of this ſummer Corſica was ſubdued by Great Britain: (See CORSICA:) and the whole of the French Weſt India Iſlands, excepting a part of Guadaloupe, yielded to the Britiſh troops under Sir Charles Grey and Sir John Jervis. On the 1ſt of June, 1794, the Britiſh fleet, under earl Howe, gained

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gained a moſt ſplendid victory over the French fleet to the W. of Uſhant. The French committee of ſafety had purchaſed in America immmenſe quantities of grain and other ſtores. Theſe were embarked on board 160 ſail of merchantmen, convoyed by ſix ſail of the line. Lord Howe ſailed to intercept this valuable convoy. The French fleet ſailed to protect it. On the morning of the 28th of May the fleets came in ſight of each other. Lord Howe had previouſly diſpatched ſix ſhips of the line under admiral Montague to intercept the French convoy, while he ſhould engage and detain the grand fleet. The French diſpatched 8 ſail to defeat this attempt. In the courſe of the 29th, Lord Howe got to windward of the French fleet. His force was 25, and theirs was 26, ſail of the line. The following day he bore down upon them, and broke their line. The engagement was one of the ſevereſt ever fought. The French admiral, in leſs than an hour after the cloſe action commenced in the centre, crowded off with 12 of his ſhips. The Britiſh fleet was ſo much diſabled, or ſeparated, that ſeveral of the French diſmantled ſhips got away under ſails raiſed on the ſtump of their fore maſts. Seven ſail of the line, however, remained in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh, and two were ſunk. In the mean time, admiral Montague fell in with the French convoy, but it was now guarded by 14 ſail of the line. As he could not encounter ſuch a force, he returned home, and it was ſafely conveyed into port. Thus, by one of thoſe contradictions which often occur in human affairs, the Britiſh fleet was victorious, and yet the French were left maſters of the ſea, and obtained their great object, proviſions. As this engagement, however, teſtified that the Britiſh ſeamen had not loſt their ancient ſuperiority on their own element, the nation regarded this victory as a pledge of its independence, and very general rejoicings took place in conſequence of it.

(18.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE DEATH OF ROBESPIERRE. During theſe tranſactions abroad, the revolutionary ſyſtem of government in the hands of committees of the convention at Paris, and of committees of the popular ſocieties throughout the country, was arrived at its higheſt power, and proceeded without oppoſition in its ſevere and ſanguinary meaſures. On the 10th of May, Madame Elizabeth, ſiſter of the late king, was ſacrificed by it, in conſequence of a decree of the revolutionary tribunal. Multitudes of others of every rank and ſex were daily ſacrificed in a ſimilar manner; the rich in particular were the great objects of perſecution, becauſe the confiſcation of their property added to the ſtrength of the ruling powers. But neither were the poor ſafe from the bloody vigilance of this new and ſingular government. By the different executions Robeſpierre had deſtroyed every avowed rival. All the conſtituted authorities conſiſted wholly of perſons nominated with his approbation; and as the committees which conducted the buſineſs of the ſtate were at his diſpoſal, his will was irreſiſtible throughout the republic. He met with no oppoſition in the convention; for that body was no longer the turbulent popular aſſembly which it had once appeared; it was little more than a name employed to give ſome ſort of reſpectability to ſuch ſchemes as were propoſed to it. Amidſt this accumulation, however, o ſeemingly irreſiſtible authority, Robeſpierre wa on the brink of ruin. The whole of the old Gi rondiſt party was indeed ſubdued and ſilent; bu many members of the convention ſtill remained a tached to it. The party of the Mountain, b means of whom Robeſpierre had riſen to powe found themſelves not only diſregarded, but rad at every inſtant to fall a ſacrifice to that ſyſtem o terror which they had contributed to erect. Eve the Jacobins themſelves, though neither timid no cautious in the ſhedding of blood, began to mur mur when they ſaw that awful privilege confine within a few hands, or rather monopolized by a individual. In this ſtate things remained for ſom time; and it appeared how poſſible it is for an i dividual to govern a great nation, even while th whole of that nation is hoſtile to his power. O circumſtance tended much to accelerate the f of Robeſpierre. He had procured a decree to b paſſed, authoriſing the committee of public ſafe to impriſon at its pleaſure, and bring to trial, a member of the convention. All the individuals that body found themſelves placed by this decr in the power of a man whoſe ſevere and ſuſpicio temper they well knew. Still, however, th were ſo much ſurrounded by ſpies, that it w difficult to form a party or plan of operations; ven the majority of the committee of public ſafe were among the number of the diſcontented, b they dared not to withſtand their chief. At l on the 25th of July, 1795, the convention beg to exhibit ſigns of agitation. It was underſtoo that in the courſe of a few days Robeſpierre wou ſacrifice a number of the members to his ſuſ cions. On the 26th, the ſitting of the conventi was ſtill more tempeſtuous. In a long ſpee Robeſpierre defended his own conduct agai thoſe who accuſed him of aſpiring to the dictat ſhip. He attacked the party ſtyled *Moderates*, wiſhing to overturn the revolutionary governme and to reſtore the feeble ſyſtem of the Briſſotin The reſult of a long debate was, that Robeſpie was apparently victorious, and his ſpeech w ordered to be printed. But on the 27th the c vention appeared ripe for a change: St Juſt member of the committee of public ſafety, in tempting to defend Robeſpierre, was repeate interrupted; and Billaud Varennes enumera the crimes, and proclaimed the tyranny, of Ro ſpierre. The ſpeech was received with bu of applauſe. Robeſpierre in vain attempted defend himſelf; he was ſilenced by ſhouts of c cration from every part of the hall. Tallien conded the former ſpeaker in his accuſation. S ſitting was declared permanent, and a decree arreſt was paſſed againſt Robeſpierre and younger brother, along with St Juſt, Coutl and Lebas. Theſe men left the convention, found ſecurity in the hall of the commune of ris; where the municipal officers agreed to tect and ſtand by them. The toſin was found the armed force was under their command insurrection was therefore attempted againſt convention: but the ſections of Paris refuſed t ſupport. Very few of the troops could be co ted, and theſe were not firm; the late tyra

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had become odious. The hall of the commune was therefore ſpeedily ſurrendered; and about 3 o'clock A. M. of the 28th Robeſpierre and his aſſociates were made priſoners. They had been outlawed by the convention on account of their reſiſtance. They were not therefore tried, but in the courſe of that day, were executed: 60 of the municipal officers were alſo executed for joining in their rebellion; and in this way a ſtorm paſſed over, which threatened to involve the French capital in ruin, and filled all Europe with aſtoniſhment. Thus alſo terminated the career of the moſt extraordinary man that the French revolution had brought forward. His talents were undoubtedly conſiderable, and his ambition boundleſs, bidding defiance to the ordinary feelings of humanity.

(19.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE ERECTION OF THE BATAVIAN REPUBLIC. After the fall of Robeſpierre, the convention exhibited no ſmall change of appearance. Inſtead of that ſilence which formerly prevailed, all was buſtle and noiſe; all accuſed each other. There was no longer any leader, and there was no formed party. The former ſyſtem of terror was declared at an end, and a new ſyſtem of *moderation* ſucceeded. This was carried to as great a height as the ſyſtem of terror had formerly been; and all means were taken to render popular the fall of their late tyrant. The committees were organiſed anew, and their members ordered to be frequently changed. The correſpondence between the affiliated Jacobin clubs was prohibited, and at laſt the Jacobin club itſelf was aboliſhed. This laſt event was accompliſhed with eaſe; and that ſociety which had been the great engine of the revolution, was itſelf without reſiſtance overturned: 73 deputies of the Girondiſt party, who had been impriſoned ſince the 31ſt of May 1793, were ſet at liberty. The name of LYONS was reſtored to it. Some of the agents of Robeſpierre were puniſhed, particularly the infamous Carrier, whoſe cruelties in the Vendée are mentioned above. Still, however, the convention appeared ſo little united, and ſo little decided with regard to objects of the firſt importance, that in all probability they would not have conducted the important ſtruggle againſt the nations of Europe with more ſucceſs than the Girondiſt party had formerly done, if the revolutionary government and the late ſyſtem of terror had not already accumulated in their hands ſuch vaſt reſources, and traced out ſuch a plan of procedure, as rendered it eaſy to preſerve their numerous armies in the train of ſucceſs to which they were now habituated. The allies in their retreat had left ſtrong garriſons in the French towns which had ſurrendered to them. Theſe were Condé, Valenciennes, Queſnoi, and Landrecy. They now ſurrendered to the republican armies with very little reſiſtance; and as ſoon as the army which had beſieged theſe towns was able to join the grand army under Pichegru and Jourdan, the operations of the campaign were reſumed after a ſuſpenſion of arms of two months. The French army divided itſelf into two bodies. One of theſe under Jourdan advanced againſt Gen. Clairfait, who had ſucceeded the prince of Cobourg in the command near Maeſtricht. On the 15th Sept. the French attacked the whole Auſtrian poſts in an extent of five leagues from Liege to Maeſtricht. On that and the following day the loſſes were nearly equal. On the 17th the French with 50 pieces of cannon attacked Gen. Kray in his entrenched camp before Maeſtricht. Kray was retiring when Gen. Clairfait arrived with a ſtrong reinforcement, and after a ſevere combat the French were once more repulſed. On the 18th the French renewed the attack with tenfold fury upon every part of the Auſtrian line, and forced the whole to fly to the neighbourhood of Aix-la-Chapelle. Gen. Clairfait now choſe a ſtrong poſition on the banks of the Roer. But by this time deſertions became numerous, and the want of diſcipline was extreme. On the 1ſt Oct. the French croſſed the Maeſe and the Roer, and attacked the whole Auſtrian poſts from Ruremond to Juliers. After a bloody engagement, Gen. Clairfait was compelled haſtily to croſs the Rhine, with the loſs of 10 or 12,000 men. One detachment of the French army took poſſeſſion of Coblentz; while others laid ſiege to Venlo and Maeſtricht, which ſoon ſurrendered. The diviſion of the French army, in the mean time, under Gen. Pichegru came down upon Holland, and attacked the allied army under the D. of York between Boisle-duc and Grave. They forced the advanced poſt of Boxtel. Lieut. Gen. Abercromby was ſent to attempt to recover this poſt on the 15th Sept. but he was obliged to retreat. The French were no leſs than 80,000 ſtrong. The D. of York, unable to contend againſt a force ſo ſuperior, retired acroſs the Maeſe with the loſs of about 1400 men. Pichegru immediately laid ſiege to Bois-le-duc. On the 30th Sept. Crevecœur was taken, and Bois-le-duc ſurrendered in 10 days. In it 408 French emigrants were taken priſoners; and theſe, as well as 700 that had been taken at Nieuport, 500 at Sluys, and 1100 at Valenciennes, were all put to death. The French now followed the duke of York acroſs the Maeſe. Upon this the greater part of the allied army, under the duke, croſſed the Rhine, and took poſt at Arnheim. The remaining part of the army followed ſoon after, and Nimeguen was occupied by the French on the 7th Nov. The duke of Brunſwick was requeſted to take the command of the allied army, to protect Holland, if poſſible. He came to Arnheim for that purpoſe; but after examining the ſtate of things there, he declined. The allied troops had now ſo often fled before their victorious and almoſt innumerable enemies, had ſo often been in want of every neceſſary, and had been received ſo ill by the inhabitants of the countries thro' which they paſſed, among whom the French cauſe was extremely popular, that they had loſt that regularity of diſcipline, which alone can afford a ſecure proſpect of ſucceſs in military affairs. The French on the contrary, well received, abounding in every thing, and proud of fighting in a popular cauſe, now acted with much order, and ſubmitted to the ſtricteſt diſcipline. In addition to all theſe advantages, the French leaders perſuaded the world that new and unknown arts were employed to give aid to their cauſe. At this period the *telegraphe* was firſt uſed for conveying intelligence from the frontiers to the capital, and from the capital to the frontiers. (See TELEGRAPHE,) Balloons were alſo uſed by the French during this campaign

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to procure knowledge of the position of the enemy. An engineer ascended with the balloon, which was suffered to rise to a great height, but prevented from flying away by a long cord. He made plans of the enemy's encampment; and during an attack he sent down notice of every hostile movement. In military transactions, opinion is often of more importance than reality. The French soldiers confided in their own officers as men possessed of a kind of omniscience, while the allied troops beheld with anxiety a new contrivance employed against them, whose importance would be magnified by credulity and ignorance. With all these advantages, however, after the capture of Nimeguen, they once more made a halt in their career, and abstained from the attack of Holland. While these events occurred in the north, the French arms were scarcely less successful on the side of Spain. Bellegarde was taken; in the W. Pyrenees, Fontarabia surrendered, and also St Sebastian; the whole kingdom of Spain seemed panic-struck. That feeble government, with an almost impregnable frontier, and the most powerful fortresses, could make little resistance; and the difficult nature of their country was their only protection. The history of this war is only a history of victories on the part of the French. In the Eastern Pyrenees, on the 17th Nov. Gen. Dugommier was killed in an engagement, in which his army was successful. On the 20th the French again attacked the Spaniards, and routed them by the bayonet, without firing a single musket. Tents, baggage, and cannon, for an army of 50,000 men, fell into their hands, with a great part of the Spanish province of Navarre. Towards the end of the year, an army of 40,000 Spaniards, entrenched behind 80 redoubts, the labour of six months, were completely routed; their general count De La Union was killed, and the whole Spanish artillery was taken. In 3 days thereafter, fort Fernando de Figuieres, containing a garrison of 9107 men, surrendered, although it contained 171 pieces of cannon, and possessed abundance of provisions. The French continued their conquests; Rosas was taken, and the whole province of Catalonia was left at the mercy of the invaders. The successes of this wonderful campaign were not yet terminated; and the last part of them is perhaps the most important, although no great effort was necessary to its execution. The winter now set in with uncommon severity. Towards the end of December a severe frost bound up the whole of the rivers and lakes of Holland. The Waal was frozen over in the beginning of January. Taking advantage of this, the French crossed that river and with little opposition seized the important pass of Bommell, which at other seasons is so strong by its inundations. The allied army had been joined by 17,000 Austrians, and had received orders to defend Holland to the last. They did so, and were successful in repulsing the French for some days between the Waal and the Leck; but the republican army, amounting to 70,000 men, having at last advanced in full force, the allied troops were compelled to retire across the Yssel, into Westphalia. In the course of their march through this desert country, in the midst of severe frost and a deep snow, they suffered incredible hardships, and lost a very great number of men. The French, in the mean time, advanced rapidly across the country to the Zuyder Zee, which was frozen over, which it had not been for a century before, to prevent the inhabitants from flying, and carrying off their property. On the 18th Jan. 1795, a party of horse, without resistance took possession of Amsterdam. The other towns surrendered at discretion, and welcomed the French. In consequence of an order from the States General, the strong fortresses of Bergen op Zoom, Willamstadt, Breda, &c. opened their gates to the French. The fleet and the shipping were fixed by the intense frost in their stations, and fell a prey to the enemy; who thus, with little effort made a complete conquest of this populous and once powerful country. The French were well received by the people at large. The power of the Stadtholder had been supported among them merely by the influence of Prussia and England. Through hatred to this office, which had now become odious chiefly to the mercantile aristocracy of Holland, they were little attached to their allies and gave them, during the whole war, as little support as possible. The Stadtholder and his family now fled to England. The French declared, that they did not mean to make subjects but allies of the Dutch, and invited them to call together popular assemblies for settling their own government, under the protection of the French republic: which they soon after did, and converted the Seven United provinces, into a new democratic State, named the *Batavian Republic*. (See REPUBLIC, N° 2.) Thus terminated a campaign, the most astonishing perhaps, that has been known in the history of mankind. In the course of it, even before the conquest of Holland, the French had taken 2000 pieces of cannon and 60,000 prisoners. After that event, the conquered territories added to them a population of nearly 6 millions of people. Luxemburg and Mentz were the only places on this side of the Rhine that resisted them. The former was closely blockaded for the purpose of compelling it to surrender; the latter was several times assaulted, but successfully held out.

(20.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE INSURRECTION AND SUPPRESSION OF THE JACOBINS. The campaign of 1794 was not immediately followed by any important military exertions. The British troops were recalled home, Prussia had been gradually withdrawn from the coalition, and the Austrian armies remained upon the defensive. Neither was the French government in a situation which could enable it to renew its enterprises with vigour. The Convention still existed, but it was no longer the terrible assembly, which, under Robespierre and his associates, had, in the short period of fifteen months, reduced two 3ds of France under its dominion, and sent forth armies which the combined strength of the rest of Europe were unable to resist. Whilst its authority remained almost concentrated in one man, and while the fear of foreign invasion, and the new born enthusiasm for freedom, induced the people to submit to every measure of government, however oppressive or arbitrary, the power of the Convention, and

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number of its armies, were unbounded. The dreadful price, however, which they had paid for liberty, and the facility with which they saw it might be loſt, had now diminiſhed the political zeal of all claſſes of citizens. The removal of the foreign armies had diſpelled the dread of invaſion, and the death of Robeſpierre, by diſſolving the unity of its efforts, and ſuffering it to fall into conteading factions, had greatly weakened the authority of the convention, and diminiſhed its efficiency. The fall of Robeſpierre had been accompliſhed by two ſeparate conſpiracies. At the head of the one were Barrere, Billaud Varennes, and Collot d'Herbois, who had been members of the committee of public ſafety. The other conſiſted of members of the Convention who did not belong to the committees, and had no immediate ſhare in the adminiſtration. Among theſe, Tallien, Bourdon de l'Oiſe, and Lecointre of Verſailles, were conſpicuous. After the deſtruction of the tyrant, a conteſt for power took place between theſe parties. The popularity of Robeſpierre had once been ſo conſiderable, and all men had ſubmitted ſo tamely to his dominion, that both parties accounted it neceſſary, to juſtify to the nation the ſhare they had taken in accompliſhing his ruin. It is eaſy to be eloquent upon ſuch a topic; but its diſcuſſion operated to the diſcredit of the members of the committees, and of the more violent Jacobins, who had been the immediate inſtruments of carrying into effect his ſanguinary meaſures. They nevertheleſs retained the aſſociation, for ſome time, of a conſiderable portion of power. The current of public opinion, however, ran ſo ſtrongly againſt them, and the reſtoration to their ſeats in the Convention of the 73 imprisoned members of the Girondiſt party, added ſo much to the ſtrength of their antagoniſts, that they gradually loſt their influence, and were threatened to be brought to trial for their conduct. As early as Auguſt 1794, Lecointre of Verſailles had denounced the members of the old committee of ſafety; but his accuſation at that time produced little effect. Towards the end of that year, however, their approaching fall became evident. On the 26th Dec. the Convention ordered on the motion of Clauzel, that the committees ſhould immediately report upon the conduct of the repreſentatives denounced by Leſtrade and all France. Accordingly, on the 27th, Merlin of Douay reported, in the name of the committees, that there was no cauſe for enquiry into the conduct of Vouland, Amar, and David; but that there was room for examining the conduct of Barrere, Billaud Varennes, Collot d'Herbois, and Vadier. In conſequence of this report, a committee of 21 members was appointed to make the enquiry. On the 2d of March 1795, Merlin preſented the report of the commiſſion; in which theſe 4 deputies were accuſed of having participated in the tyranny and atrocious meaſures of Robeſpierre. Their trial commenced before the Convention on the 22d of March; but Vadier had previouſly eſcaped. The others reſted their defence upon this ground, that they had no power to reſiſt Robeſpierre, and that they were not more culpable in having acquieſced in his tyranny than the other members of the Convention, who had all been overpowered for the time, by the knowledge that inſtant deſtruction awaited every man who ſhould dare to oppoſe his meaſures. Except in the cruelties committed by Collot d'Herbois at Lyons, this defence was not deſtitute of foundation. It had much weight with the nation; in whoſe eyes it tended, not to exculpate the three perſons now accuſed, but to criminate and degrade the character of the whole Convention. Carnot, Lindet, Cambon, Duhem, and the other members of the *Jacobin party*, defended their leaders with conſiderable ability. Nor was the party leſs active without doors than within the hall of the Convention. For ſome time they had drawn their friends to the capital from all quarters of the country; and in the morning ſitting of the firſt of April, they commenced their operations by an open inſurrection. An immenſe multitude, having aſſembled in the ſuburbs, proceeded to the hall of Convention. Taking advantage of a real or factitious ſcarcity, which exiſted at this time, they pretended they were going to petition for bread; and this pretence drew numbers along with them who had no ſhare in their deſigns. Boiſſy d'Anglas, a conſpicuous member of the moderate party, was addreſſing the Convention upon the means of removing the ſcarcity, when the inſurgents arrived, drove the centinels from their poſts, and ſuddenly filled the hall. They tumultuouſly demanded "Bread and the Conſtitution." The Jacobin party ſupported the inſurgents; and one of the multitude, in a vehement harangue, exclaimed, "We are men of the 14th of July, of the 10th of Auguſt, and of the 31ſt of May." He demanded, that the Convention ſhould change its late meaſures, that the people ſhould no longer be the victims of mercantile rapacity, and that the accuſed patriots ſhould not be ſacrificed to the paſſions of their antagoniſts. The Convention ordered the toſcin to be rung, and the people of Paris to be called to arms. Gen. Pichegru being in Paris at the time, upon the motion of Barras, was appointed to command the military force. The citizens of Paris, who remembered with horror the domination of Robeſpierre and his adherents, and now ſaw themſelves menaced with its return, inſtantly called each other to arms, and aſſembled by ſix in the evening, for the protection of the Convention, to the amount of 20,000 men. Till that time the aſſembly had remained under no ſmall diſquietude, ſurrounded by the inſurgents, and liſtening to the addreſſes of their orators, and the ſpeeches of the Jacobin minority. The majority was now reſcued from this ſtate of conſtraint; and, on the motion of Dumont, it was decreed that Barrere, Collot d'Herbois, and Billaud Varennes, ſhould immediately be tranſported to Guiana. During the following day the inſurgents were ſubdued; and the majority, taking advantage of their victory, decreed the arreſt and confinement in the caſtle of Ham in the late Picardy, of ſeveral of the moſt obnoxious of their antagoniſts. Among theſe were Leonard Bourdon, Duhem, Chaſles, Choudieu, Ruamps, Fouſſedoire, Huguet, Bayle, Lecointre, Cambon, Thuriot, Marg-

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pat, Heutz, Craſſous, and Levaſſeur. By departing from the puniſhment of death, and adopting that of baniſhment, the Convention hoped to diminiſh the ferocity of the contending factions in the ſtate, by rendering the reſult of a political defeat leſs fatal than formerly. The deſign was good; but with it, they eſtabliſhed the pernicious precedent of puniſhing without a trial, which could not fail to prove fatal, to all their proſpects of a free and juſt government. The Convention now followed up its victory with the popular meaſure of preparing for its own diſſolution, by endeavouring to frame a fixed conſtitution for the republic. The conſtitution of 1793 was conſidered as impracticable, and a committee was appointed to report upon the meaſures which ought now to be adopted. It conſiſted of Sieyes, Cambaceres, Merlin of Douay, Thibaudeau, Mathieu, Le Sage of Eure and Loire, and Latouche. On the 19th of April, Cambaceres reported, that it was the opinion of this committee, that a commiſſion ſhould be appointed to frame a new conſtitution. The Convention accordingly appointed the following perſons; Le Sage, Louvet, Boiſſy d'Anglas, Creuze, Latouche, Bertier, Daunow, Baudin, Durand, Maillane, Languinais, La Reveillere Lepaux, and Thibaudeau. All other citizens were alſo invited to communicate plans upon the ſubject, and the committee was required to order the beſt of theſe to be printed. The Convention farther gratified the feelings of the great majority of the nation, by bringing to trial Fouquier Jenville the preſident, and 15 judges and jurors of the late revolutionary tribunal. They were convicted on the 8th of May, and executed on the 9th amidſt the execrations of a multitude of ſpectators. In the mean time, though defeated on the 1ſt and 2d of April, the Jacobins were preparing a new and more extenſive inſurrection, which ſhould not, like the former, be confined to the capital. They fixed upon the 20th of May as the day of revolt. Thuriot, and Robeſpierre's financier Cambon, had eſcaped from the caſtle of Ham, and come to Paris. They concealed themſelves in the ſuburb St Antoine, and thence gave counſel to their party, and urged them to action. For ſome days the walls were covered in Paris with printed accuſations againſt the Convention, of withholding bread from the people. On the 19th, a paper was openly diſtributed in the different ſections, explaining the object of the approaching inſurrection. It declared inſurrection to be the moſt *ſacred duty* of the people, and called upon the citizens to proceed in a maſs to the Convention, to demand from it bread and the conſtitution of 1793, with a new election of national repreſentatives. On the morning of the 20th, the tocſin was rung, and drums beat to arms in the ſuburb of St Antoine, where the Jacobins poſſeſſed the greateſt ſtrength. Upon this alarm the Convention aſſembled; but though the committee of public and general ſafety now made a report, in which they confeſſed their previous knowledge of it, yet no vigorous meaſures of precaution had been taken; for it was only at the inſtant when the inſurgents were approaching, that General Hoche was appointed to command the armed force, and was ſent forth to aſſemble the military and th citizens to defend the Convention. In the mea time, the multitude ſurrounded the hall, ove powered the guards, and burſt into the Conve tion. In all the turbulent days of the revolutio the women of Paris never failed to act a conſp cuous part. They augmented the crowd b their numbers, and the tumult by their cries " Bread, and the conſtitution of 1793." Aft ſome fruitleſs efforts to reſtore tranquillity, Ve nier, the preſident, an old man, reſigned the cha to Boiſſy D'Anglas, who remained in it wi much firmneſs during the day. The whole ſtreng of the inſurgents not having arrived at once, ſhort interval of tranquillity was obtained; b the attack was ſpeedily renewed with double f ry by armed men, who entered the hall w cockades, on which was written " Bread, and t conſtitution of 1793." In this crihs a citizen the convention party raſhly tore off the hat one of the inſurgents, and fled towards the p ſident's chair, but was killed at the ſide of it a muſket ſhot. Ferrand, a member, having tempted to reſcue him, was alſo killed, and head was brought into the Convention upo pike. The greater number of the members n departed, and left the hall in poſſeſſion of the ſurgents, who acted with ſome regularity, decreed a variety of laws favourable to t party. Duroi, Duqueſnoi, Bourbotte, and Gouj ſtood moſt openly forward on this occaſion, appeared as chiefs of the inſurrection. But t triumph laſted only a few hours. Towards evening a large body of citizens joined the n tary, and marched to the aid of the Convent Having overcome the inſurgents, they entered hall in great force, and reſtored the powe the majority. The decrees that had been fo upon them were repealed as ſpeedily as they been enacted, and the deputies who had poſed or ſupported them were arreſted. Th tizens of Paris, and even the members of Convention, now fancied their victory compl for they adopted no adequate meaſures to vent a new diſturbance. But the Jacobins not ſo eaſily give up their cauſe. On the foll ing day they once more aſſembled in the ſub and in the afternoon they returned to the at They took poſſeſſion of the Carouſal without poſition, and pointed ſome pieces of cann againſt the hall of the Convention. This affe was now unprotected, and attempted not to due, but to flatter, the inſurgents. A deputi of the members was ſent forth to fraterniſe them, and to carry forth two decrees paſſ that inſtant, which ordained that bread ſhou bound, and that Robeſpierre's conſtitution of ſhould immediately be put in force. The i gents, in return, ſent a deputation to the Co tion, to expreſs their ſatisfaction with the dec to demand the releaſe of the impriſoned pat and the puniſhment of thoſe who preferre ney to aſſignats. The Convention pretend agree to all their demands, and the preſiden ordered to give to the deputation the fra embrace. The 22d, which was the 3d d the inſurrection, was paſſed by both parties very ſtrange degree of inaction. The Conve proce

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proceeded in its ordinary buſineſs; and the Jacobins, at their head quarters in the ſuburb of St Antoine, were occupied in preparations for new movements. But on the 23d the citizens aſſembled at their ſections, and haſtened to the Thuilleries to defend the Convention. Conſiderable bodies of the military were alſo collected, and the aſſembly at laſt reſolved to act upon the offenſive. A decree was paſſed, declaring, that if the ſuburb St Antoine did not inſtantly ſurrender its arms and cannon, together with the murderer of Ferraud, it ſhould be conſidered as in a ſtate of rebellion. The conventional generals were at the ſame time ordered to reduce it by force. The inſurgents now found themſelves unequal to the conteſt, and were compelled to ſurrender without conditions by the inhabitants of the ſuburb, who dreaded the deſtruction of their property by military operations. Several ſoldiers being found among the priſoners, were put to death; and ſix members of the Convention were tried and condemned by a military commiſſion. Three of theſe periſhed by ſelf-ſlaughter, and three were executed. The majority of the Convention, elated by their victory, ordered back Collot D'Herbois, Billaud Varennes, and Barrere, to take their trial; but the two former had ſailed before the arrival of the courier. Barrere only remained, and he was brought back and impriſoned.

(21.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE NEW CONSTITUTION, ESTABLISHED IN 1795. The Jacobins in the ſouth were not leſs active than their brethren at Paris. On the 20th of May they formed a vigorous inſurrection at Toulon. They ſeized the gates, and mounted them with cannon; they liberated ſuch of their aſſociates as had been impriſoned, and detained the fleet which was about to ſail. Having begun their operations in this ſucceſsful manner, they marched from Toulon towards Marſeilles. Their force amounted to 3000 men and 12 pieces of cannon. They were encountered on their way, however, and defeated by Gen. Charton and Pactod: 300 of them were carried priſoners to Marſeilles; and Toulon was ſpeedily retaken. The party of the *Mountain*, or violent Jacobins, who wiſhed to revive the reign of terror and the meaſures of Robeſpierre, was now reduced very low both in the Convention and out of it. Thoſe who adhered to it were in many places, and more eſpecially in the ſouth, expoſed to very violent perſecution. Aſſociations were formed, called *Companies of Jeſus*, and *of the Sun*, for the purpoſe of avenging the crimes committed by them during the period of their power. At Lyons ſeveral of them were maſſacred in priſon, and many others of them in all places. On conſidering the mercileſs character of the government of Robeſpierre and his aſſociates, and the perſecution which was ſuffered under it, by every man who was diſtinguiſhed by integrity, talents, literature, or rank, it may appear ſurpriſing, that any perſons ſhould have been willing to hazard their lives to procure its reſtoration. From the fall of its leader, the party had gradually been forſaken by its adherents; and the more cloſely its conduct was conſidered, it loſt ground the more rapidly in the eſtimation of the public. After the unſucceſsful inſurrection of the 20th of May, its unpopularity was extreme. Still, however, a party remained. It was ſmall, indeed, but its members compenſated the inferiority of their numbers by ſuperior enterpriſe and activity. They conſiſted of outrageous republicans, whoſe heated imaginations beheld royalty and ariſtocracy in every propoſal for ſober and regular government. In the conduct of Robeſpierre, they remembered only the energy of his meaſures, by which France was enabled to triumph over the combined efforts of the kings of Europe; and overlooked the atrocities by which he had brought diſgrace upon their cauſe, and rendered his party odious to their own countrymen, as well as to the neighbouring nations. Amidſt this univerſal odium, however, the Jacobins did not deſpair of riſing once more into power; and it is ſingular, that we muſt date the revival of their ſtrength from the period of their unſucceſsful inſurrections, which ſeemed to have extinguiſhed their hopes for ever. The unpopularity under which the Jacobins laboured ſoon began to affect the Convention itſelf. The tame ſubmiſſion of that body to the government of Robeſpierre was now remembered. It was recollected, that the majority of its members had been the inſtruments of his power, and had at leaſt acquieſced in his crimes. As the preſs was now free, their conduct was repreſented to the public in the moſt odious colours. A celebrated ſong, *Le Reveil du Peuple*, became extremely popular, as the means of marking diſlike both to the Convention and to the Jacobins; and their conduct was canvaſſed with the utmoſt bitterneſs in a great variety of publications, eſpecially in a journal conducted by Freron, who had himſelf been a Jacobin, but had left the party. In this ſtate of things, the majority of the Convention repented of their late victory over the Jacobins. In the firſt efforts of their zeal, they had taken meaſures for the immediate formation and eſtabliſhment of a ſettled conſtitution to ſuperſede their own authority; but they now regretted their raſhneſs, when they perceived, from the temper the nation was in, that the men, the moſt avowedly hoſtile to their character and meaſures, would without doubt be elected as their ſucceſſors. They, and their friends, had ariſen to great diſtinction and wealth under the revolutionary government; and they now began to dread, not only the loſs of power, but alſo a ſevere inveſtigation of their conduct. The decrees for forming and putting in force the conſtitution could not decently be recalled; but the majority of the Convention ſet about deviſing means for rendering them of little importance, ſo far as they themſelves were concerned. On the 23d of June, Boiſſy D'Anglas preſented the report of the committee that had been appointed to prepare the plan of a conſtitution. It began, like the former conſtitutions, with a declaration of the rights of man; and conſiſted of 14 chapters, upon the following ſubjects:—The extent of the territorial poſſeſſions of the Republic, the political ſtate of citizens, the primary aſſemblies, the electoral aſſemblies, the legiſlature, the executive power, the municipal bodies, the judicial authority, the public force, public inſtruction, the finances, foreign treaties, the mode of reviſing the conſtitution, and, laſtly, an enactment, that no rank

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rank or ſuperiority ſhould exiſt among citizens, excepting what might ariſe from the exerciſe of public functions. The primary aſſemblies were to poſſeſs the right of electing the members of the electoral aſſemblies, and the juſtices of the peace. The electoral aſſemblies were to nominate the judges and the legiſlators of the ſtate. The legiſlature was divided into two aſſemblies; the one called the *Council of Ancients*, the other, *the Council of* 500. (See COUNCIL, N° 8 and 9.) There was one peculiar privilege of the Council of Ancients, which was afterwards employed as the means of overturning the whole fabric, the Council of the Ancients might decree the removal of the legiſlature from its ordinary place of ſitting. To this decree the approbation of the Council of Five Hundred was not neceſſary; and when once enacted, it could not be reconſidered even by the Council of Ancients itſelf. The executive power was intruſted to five perſons ſtyled the *Executive Directory*. (See DIRECTORY, § 2, and 3.) The public functionaries were to receive ſalaries, and to appear dreſſed in an appropriated habit. Each article of this conſtitution was ſeparately diſcuſſed; and on the 23d of Aug. the whole was declared to be complete, and ordained to be tranſmitted to the primary aſſemblies for their approbation. On the 22d however, the Convention had brought forward the grand meaſure by which they meant to provide for their own ſafety. They decreed, that at the general election, the electoral bodies ſhould be bound to chooſe *two thirds* of the new legiſlature from among the members of the convention; and they afterwards decreed, that, in default of the election of two thirds of the Convention, the Convention ſhould fill up the vacancies. Theſe decrees were tranſmitted, along with the Conſtitution, to the primary aſſemblies, to be accepted or rejected by them. Many of the primary aſſemblies underſtood, that they could not accept of the conſtitution without accepting along with it the law for the re-election of the *two thirds*. And as the people were now weary of this Convention, they acquieſced in any conditions that gave them the proſpect of one day getting quit of it. But at Paris, and in the neighbouring departments, where the ſubject was more accurately inveſtigated, the public diſapprobation of the Convention diſplayed itſelf with great vehemence. There was indeed ſomething extremely aukward in the decree about the re-election of two thirds of the Convention. A *compulſory election* was an abſurdity ſo new, and ſo obvious, that it gave their antagoniſts every advantage againſt them. Accordingly, at the meetings of the ſections of Paris, the laws for the re-election were rejected with contempt, and their abſurdity demonſtrated with much acrimony. In conſequence of the debates which took place at theſe meetings, the minds of men were gradually inflamed. On the one ſide, the Convention took care to publiſh daily the approbation of the decrees, along with the conſtitution, by the majority of the primary aſſemblies, by moſt of which the two had been confounded and accepted in the groſs. Its committees alſo called in the aid of the troops of the line for its protection. On the other hand, the language of the ſections became every day more violent. The whole Convention was repreſented as a band of *tyrants* and *murderers*, the aſſociates of all the cruelty of Robeſpierre and the Mountain party. For ſome time much anxiety prevailed on both ſides. Numerous deputations were repeatedly ſent from the ſections to the Convention, to remonſtrate againſt the obnoxious decrees. But the eagerneſs with which theſe remonſtrances were made, ſerved only to convince more ſtrongly the members of the Convention, of the danger to themſelves as individuals which would attend a reſignation of their power, and confirmed the reſolution they had taken to retain it. The deputies of the ſections having obtained inſpection of the records of the convention, aſſerted, that the national majority, if rightly numbered, had rejected the decrees, as every aſſembly that voted in oppoſition to them was only numbered as one vote, however numerous its members might be; which enabled the primary aſſemblies of remote diſtricts to outvote the mere populous ſections of Paris and other great towns. Whereas if the individual voters were counted, it would be found that the decrees were rejected by a great majority. All this was diſregarded by the Convention, and the ſections prepared to decide the diſpute by arms. The firſt ſtep taken by them, however, was ill concerted. A notion was propagated, that as ſoon as the primary aſſemblies or ſections had choſen the electors, who were to chooſe the members of the new legiſlature, the national ſovereignty became veſted in theſe electors, and that they had a right to aſſume the government in their various diſtricts. Accordingly, about 100 of the electors of Paris aſſembled in the hall of the French theatre in the ſuburb St Germain, previous to the day of meeting appointed by the Convention. Having choſen Citizen Nivernois (the ci-devant Duke de Nivernois) their preſident, they began their debates. The Convention was alarmed, and inſtantly ſent a body of the military to diſmiſs the meeting as illegal. This was eaſily accompliſhed, as the citizens had not been unanimous with regard to it, and no meaſures were taken for its protection.

(22.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE NEW LEGISLATURE'S FIRST SITTING. Notwithſtanding this firſt advantage on the ſide of the Convention, the ſections regarded its power with contempt, and imagined themſelves ſecure of ultimate ſucceſs. In every political conteſt that had hitherto occurred ſince the commencement of the revolution, the immenſe population of the capital had given a deciſive ſuperiority to the faction whoſe ſide it eſpouſed. The citizens alſo regarded with indifference the armed force with which the Convention had ſurrounded itſelf, from a notion, which they entertained, that the military would in no caſe be brought to act againſt the people. The Convention itſelf entertained ſome jealouſy upon this head, and did not account itſelf entirely ſafe under the protection of the ſoldiers. On this occaſion, therefore, it had recourſe to a new ally, and beſought the aid of thoſe very Jacobins, whom it had almoſt cruſhed on the 24th of May. The members of the Convention were odious to the ſections of Paris, on account of their participation in the revolutionary crimes of Robeſpierre; but

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…s very circumſtance endeared them to the …s, who imagined that they never had e… of war abroad or of revolution at home. …s eaſy therefore to bring about a reconcilia… between the Convention and theſe men. Se… hundreds of them were liberated from the …s, where they had been confined ſince the laſt inſurrections, and were now put in requi… to defend the legiſlative body. When the …ns of Paris beheld the Convention ſurround… by thoſe Jacobins, who had been the unrelent… agents of Robeſpierre, now denominated …ACOBINS and *men of blood*, their ardour for …n became unbounded. They aſſembled in …s at their different ſections on the 12th Ven…maire (Oct. 4th); but they do not ſeem to have …ed upon any well digeſted plan. The general …gn of their leaders was to ſeize the members …the Convention, and impriſon them in the …arch of the Quatre Nations till they could be …ought to trial. As this would occaſion an in…terregnum in the government, it was reſolved that …ll affairs ſhould be conducted by committees of …the ſections, till a new legiſlature could be elect…ed. Gen. Miranda, a Spaniard, a native of the Carraccas in S. America, who had ſerved in the republican armies, was to be appointed to the chief command of the armed force after the over…throw of the Convention. This man, in his ea…gerneſs for preferment, had alternately courted all parties, and he now joined the Pariſians upon the ſuppoſition of their being the ſtrongeſt. But as he entertained ſome doubts of their ſucceſs, he adopted the crooked policy of retiring from the city till the combat ſhould be finiſhed, reſolving to return on its concluſion to ſhare the rewards and the triumph of victory. The Convention, in the mean time, reſolved to ſtrike the firſt blow. For this purpoſe they ſent Gen. Menou to the ſection of Le Pelletier to diſperſe the citizens, whoſe greateſt force was aſſembled there. But this officer, diſliking the ſervice, inſtead of proceeding to action, began to negociate with the leaders of the ſections, and ſpent the evening of this day in fruitleſs conferences. The ſections on their ſide appointed Gen. Danican, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the war againſt the Royaliſts in the Vendee, to act as their military leader. But finding them totally deſtitute of cannon, while the Convention was ſurrounded by regular troops and a numerous artillery, Danican conſidered this a ſufficient reaſon for avoiding an engagement. He was unacquainted with the diſaffection of the conventional generals. He therefore thought he had done much when he had prevented bloodſhed for another day, and thus the favourable moment for attack was loſt. The battalions of Paris were very numerous, their contempt of danger was great, and their ardour unbounded. But the firſt moments of popular enthuſiaſm were ſuffered to paſs away, and that diſtruſt and diſſenſion, which delay never fails to introduce among great and irregular aſſemblages of men, ſoon rendered the conduct of the ſections undecided and weak. The conventional committees, during the night of the 12th Vendemaire (Oct. 4th), diſmiſſed Gen. Menou, Raffet, and ſome others, from their ſtations, and gave the command of the troops to Barras. He immediately collected around him a variety of able officers, among whom were Gens. Brune and BONAPARTE. With their aſſiſtance he began to provide for a moſt vigorous defence. Troops with cannon were ſtationed in all the avenues leading to the Thuilleries, and maſked batteries were planted in more retired ſituations. Meaſures were taken for conveying the proviſions and military ſtores to St Cloud, whither the Convention prepared to retreat if they ſhould ſuffer a defeat at Paris. On the 13th *Vendemaire* (Oct. 5th), from which the inſurrection was afterwards named, both parties remained for many hours upon the defenſive. At laſt, about 3 o'clock P. M. Gen. Danican propoſed an accommodation, by a letter to the committee of public ſafety, in which he ſtated, that the only reaſon why the citizens had taken arms was the dread of a maſſacre being intended by the armed terroriſts who ſurrounded the Convention, and that if theſe men were removed, tranquillity would immediately be re-eſtabliſhed. A civil meſſage was returned; but the Jacobin party in the Convention, being now more confident of victory, and wiſhing to ſtrengthen themſelves by the defeat and puniſhment of their antagoniſts, it was reſolved that the diſpute ſhould be decided by arms. The armed Jacobins are moſt generally underſtood to have begun the attack. The citizens on the S. ſide of the river attempted to reach the Convention by the Quay de Voltaire, but were ſpeedily repulſed by the conventional cannon; but on the N. ſide of the river, near the Convention, the combat was extremely obſtinate. The cannon were repeatedly ſeized by the citizens, and repeatedly retaken by the troops and the armed Jacobins. It was not till after a conteſt of 4 hours that the ſections were repulſed and driven to the poſt of St Roch. This poſt was alſo taken after great ſlaughter, and the ſections were driven to their head quarters at the ſection of Le Pelletier. After a ſhort interval they were purſued thither by the troops of the Convention, who by midnight were maſters of the whole city. This inſurrection was aſcribed by the victorious party to the exertions of the Royaliſts. It is no doubt true, that by this time Royalty was become leſs unpopular even among the rabble of France than the extreme of Republicaniſm, as it had appeared in the conduct of the Mountain party. It is alſo probable, that the Royaliſts mingled in a conteſt that had the overthrow of the Convention for its object; but the inſurgents in general ſeem neither to have avowed nor entertained any farther view, than the diſarming of the Jacobins, and the obtaining an immediate election of new repreſentatives. The failure of the attempt had the effect of placing the Mountain party once more at the head of the ſtate. This party at firſt thought of adjourning the new conſtitution, and of renewing all the terrors of the revolutionary government. This project, however, was oppoſed in the Convention with ſo much vehemence and ability by Thibaudeau, that it was renounced. Indeed it was become unneceſſary to the ſafety or aſcendency of the men who propoſed it, as the decrees for the re-election of two thirds of the Convention enabled them to retain the full poſſeſſion

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poſſeſſion of their power. A few members of the moderate party, ſuch as Boiſſy D'Anglas, Languinais, and Le Sage, were elected by almoſt every place in France, though they could only fit for one place. Hence the Convention itſelf had the re-election of nearly two thirds of its own members; and the Mountain party, which now commanded the majority, was thus enabled to fill the new legiſlature with its own leaders. On the 27th Oct. the Convention terminated its ſittings, and was ſucceeded by the new legiſlature as appointed by the Conſtitution. By its laſt decrees, a general amneſty was granted for all revolutionary crimes. From this amneſty, however, were excepted the emigrants, the tranſported prieſts, and all perſons concerned in the laſt inſurrection; ſo that in fact it was merely a pardon granted by the Mountain party to its own friends, for all the exceſſes they had committed. The members of the Convention, who had been impriſoned in the caſtle of Ham ſince the Jacobin inſurrection in May, were now ſet at liberty. The members of the revolutionary committees, and other agents of Robeſpierre in Paris and the departments, were all diſmiſſed from their priſons, and advanced to the moſt important offices under the new government. As ſoon as the new legiſlature had divided itſelf into two councils, it proceeded to the election of an Executive directory. The Council of Five Hundred was bound to preſent to the Council of Ancients a liſt of ten times the number of candidates neceſſary for the office. It fulfilled this duty in the following manner. The Council of Five Hundred made out a liſt, conſiſting of the five following perſons, upon whom they wiſhed the election ultimately to fall: Sieyes, Barras, Rewbeil, La Reveillere Lepaux, and Letourneur de la Manche. To complete the liſt, they added the names of 45 obſcure perſons, country juſtices, farmers, and even peaſants. Thus there was nothing left to the Council of Ancients but the mere form of an election; and from the want of other qualified candidates, they were under the neceſſity of nominating to the office of directors the five perſons at the head of the liſt preſented by the Council of Five Hundred. The crafty Sieyes, however, who had been the adviſer of all parties, but the oſtenſible agent of none, did not yet think fit to venture upon the poſſeſſion of power. He had diſapproved of the conſtitution which was now put in force, and had even framed one of his own in oppoſition to it, which, however, was rejected by the Convention, and juſtly; for in his plan of government was a national jury, upon which he propoſed to confer the power of diſmiſſing from their offices, *without a cauſe* being aſſigned, any of the public functionaries whom they might account dangerous to the ſtate. Sieyes having refuſed to accept the office of director, Carnot was elected in his ſtead. But on this occaſion the Council of Ancients was treated with a little more decency than formerly; as the name of Cambaceres, a man of eminence, appeared along with that of Carnot in the liſt of candidates voted by the Council of Five Hundred.

(23.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE OVERTHROW OF THE JACOBIN ANARCHISTS. The republican government tha was now attempted to be eſtabliſhed promiſe little tranquillity to the nation. This great mi fortune attended it, that the chief offices in th ſtate were intruſted to men who were not popu lar. The members of the Executive Director with the exception of Reveillere Lepaux, had a ways belonged to the moſt violent Jacobin part As they now owed their power to that part they employed its members in almoſt every off cial department. The government was therefo neceſſarily unpopular. Things might have be gradually altered, indeed, by ſucceſſive electio bringing other men into power: But, by t forms of the conſtitution, the executive pow was more permanent than the legiſlative bod without poſſeſſing any influence over it. Hen it was to be feared that a conteſt for power mig ſpeedily occur, between a directory nominated the Jacobin party and the new legiſlators a pointed by the people, in which the Conſtituti might ſuffer ſhipwreck; an event which actua occurred. While the poſſeſſion of power con nued to fluctuate in the manner above ſtat between the Moderate and the Mountain pa ties, the armies of the ſtate were ſuffered to la guiſh; but upon the credit of its former milita ſucceſs, the Republic was treated with reſpect ſome of the neighbouring powers. On the 10 of April, 1795, a treaty of peace with Pruſſia, n gociated by the committees through Barthele the French reſident at Baſle, was preſented to t Convention for ratification. By this treaty, t French troops ſhould immediately evacuate t Pruſſian territory on the right bank of the Rhi but ſhould retain the Pruſſian territory on t left bank, till a general peace. Priſoners of w were to be mutually reſtored, and commer placed on its ancient footing. During the ſa month, the French republic was acknowledg by the king of SWEDEN; and Baron Stael, ambaſſador, was received at Paris with great lemnity. In May 1795, a 2d treaty with PRU SIA was concluded. It chiefly regarded the i of neutrality. Theſe treaties contained ſecret ticles, to be revealed only to a ſelect committ The Swiſs cantons next acknowledged the Fren Republic. A treaty of peace with SPAIN was ſo concluded at Baſle on the 22d of July, 17 FRANCE, on this occaſion, relinquiſhed all conqueſts made in the territory of that count and reſtored the ancient frontiers; and recei in return all the Spaniſh part of the iſland of H PANIOLA. The Dutch republic was included this treaty. On the 9th of June, the Daup *Lewis* XVII. died in the priſon of the Temp where he had been confined, along with his ter, ſince the executions of his father, moth and aunt. His death, excited in the French tion ſuch a degree of intereſt in favour of his mily, that the Convention found it neceſſary liberate his ſiſter. The committee of pub ſafety propoſed to the Emperor to exchange t princeſs for the members of the Convention wh Dumourier had delivered up, along with t ambaſſadors, Semonville and Maret, who h been ſeized on their way to Turkey. This p poſal was accepted, and the exchange took pla

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at Lisle. On the side of BRITAIN the war maintained its former character. The British retained their superiority by sea, and were unfortunate in their efforts on the continent. On the 14th of March 1795, the British fleet in the Mediterranean, under Adm. Hotham, engaged the French fleet, and took two sail of the line; but as the French fleet, four days before the engagement, had captured a British ship of the line, when detached from the fleet, and as the Illustrious, another British ship of the line, was so severely injured in the action, that she run ashore and was set a-drift, the real loss on both sides was very equal. On the 23d of June another British fleet under Lord Bridport attacked the French off Port L'Orient, and took three ships of the line, the rest of the fleet escaping into that port. The Convention at last offered the royalists a treaty, which was accepted and signed at Nantes. In a short time, however, their hopes were revived by the countenance of the British government, and the treaty was disregarded. In the beginning of June 1795, an expedition was fitted out, consisting of emigrants in the pay of Great Britain, and prisoners of war. The command at sea was intrusted to Count D'Hervilly; the command on shore to Gen. Puisaye, who had been employed with the Girondists in the service of the Republic, but had now become a royalist. The Count de Sombreuil was afterwards sent to join them with a small reinforcement. On the 25th of June the expedition arrived in Quiberon Bay, and on the 27th, 3500 emigrants made good their landing, after dispersing a small party of republicans. The emigrant army soon after distributed itself into cantonments along the shore, and gave arms to the inhabitants of the country. It was soon found, however, that the Chouans, though well trained for a desultory warfare, were of little use to regular troops. A resolution was therefore taken to withdraw the emigrant army within the peninsula of Quiberon. The fort was taken on the 3d of July. Its garrison consisted of 600 men, and it was now occupied by the emigrants. A republican army, under Gen. Hoche, advanced, attacked, and took all the posts beyond the peninsula. The emigrants and Chouans escaped into the boats of the British fleet, or fled under the cannon of Quiberon Fort. The republicans then began to construct formidable works on the heights of St Barbe, at the entrance of the peninsula. To prevent their operations, repeated sallies were made but without success. The whole troops in the peninsula amounted to about 12,000, including Chouans. A detachment of 1000 was sent to attack the heights of St Barbe. The republicans were entrenched in three camps. The two first were easily taken, and the detachment pressed forward to attack the third. But here a masked battery opened upon them with grape shot. A dreadful carnage ensued; and very few of the detachment could have escaped, had not the fire of the British ships soon compelled the republicans to desist from the pursuit. Desertion now became extremely common among the emigrants. Those men who had been prisoners, and received their liberty on condition of joining the expedition, seized every opportunity of going over to their countrymen. On the evening of the 20th of July, the weather was extremely tempestuous, which produced a fatal security in the emigrant army. The republican troops surprised one of the posts of the garrison, where they found the artillery men fast asleep. The fort was speedily in confusion. Some regiments threw away their arms, and went over to the republicans; others massacred their own officers. Puisaye escaped on board the fleet. The Count de Sombreuil was taken, and put to death, with the other emigrant officers and all the Chouans. The bishop of Dol was also put to death, with his clergy who accompanied him; but many privates of the emigrant army made their peace with the republicans, by pretending they had been compelled to engage in the expedition. The British fleet, with transports and troops, still hovering upon the French coast, and made an unsuccessful attempt upon the island of Noirmoutier. It returned home in December, after evacuating the *Isle Dieu*, which the troops had for some time occupied. The fort of Luxemburg surrendered on the 7th of June, 1795, after having been in a state of blockade since the preceding campaign. The French were now in possession of the whole left bank of the Rhine, excepting Mentz, which they attacked in vain. In August, Gen. Jourdan forced the passage of the Rhine at Dusseldorf; and after driving before him 3 Austrian posts upon the Lahn, he crossed the Mein, and completely invested Mentz and Cassel. Pichegru crossed the river, with the army of the Rhine and Moselle, near Manheim, of which city he took possession. A considerable detachment of his army, after driving the Austrians under Wurmser, from a post, began to plunder, and went into confusion. The Austrians returned to the charge, and defeated the French. Gen. Clairfait having violated the line of neutrality, came upon the rear of Jourdan's army, and took great part of his artillery. Both the French generals now retreated. Jourdan was rapidly pursued by Clairfait till he returned to Dusseldorff. Pichegru recrossed the Rhine near Manheim, leaving a garrison of 8000 men in the city. The Austrians advanced in all directions. Manheim was taken after a vigorous siege. The French were driven from the neighbourhood of Mentz. The Austrians seized the country called the *Hundsruck*, S. of the Rhine as far as Landau and Treves. After various engagements, the two parties entered into an armistice for 3 months. On the 28th Aug. 1795, a treaty of peace was concluded between the French Republic, and the Landgrave of Hesse Cassel, on condition that he should lend no more troops to Great Britain for the prosecution of the war. Peace was concluded with the *Elector of Hanover* at this period upon similar terms. The Duke of Wirtemberg, and some other princes of the empire, also began to treat. The Directory, however, resolved to continue the war with vigour, and vast preparations were made during winter. The Mountain party, being once more possessed of power, its members exerted themselves with their usual energy. Such, however, was the turbulent

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bulent character of these men, that they soon became weary of that Directory, whom they themselves had established. They held clubs in all quarters, and were continually disturbing the public tranquillity. For some time the government supported them. The Parisians, after the 5th Oct. no longer dared to avow openly their dislike to the Jacobins; but expressed this sentiment by wearing green silk cravats, and by applauding at the public spectacles the air called *Le Reveil du Peuple*. The Directory now prohibited, by an edict, as tokens of royalism, the wearing of green cravats, or the performing at any of the theatres the air now mentioned, though the sentiments it contained were entirely republican. The Directory in a few weeks recalled their edict, and found it impossible to countenance the restless spirit of the Jacobins. In the south, the supremacy of the Jacobins produced very pernicious effects. Freron, who had deserted them after the death of Robespierre, and became one of their most violent adversaries, returned to their party before the 5th Oct. and was sent to Toulon with full powers. Here he restored the Jacobin clubs, and proceeded to imprison all suspected persons. These measures produced a violent reaction from the enemies of the Jacobins. Assassinations became frequent, and many persons left the country. The Directory was alarmed by the many complaints against the Jacobins or TERRORISTS, and resolved to desert a set of men, who could not be prevailed upon to act with moderation. Freron was recalled from Toulon, and the violent Jacobins were in general dismissed from the service of government. The minister of police was ordered to remove from Paris the members of former revolutionary tribunals, and other leaders of the Jacobins. A body of troops, amounting to 10,000 men, called the *legion of police*, that had acted against the Parisians, on the 5th Oct. and was now devoted to the Jacobins, was ordered by the Directory and the legislature, to join the armies on the frontiers. The violent Jacobins were enraged, but not intimidated by these measures, and began to organize a plot for the overthrow of the Directory. They were not prepared for action, however, before May, 1796, and by that time their designs were discovered and counteracted. On the 10th the guards were increased, and bodies of cavalry stationed around Luxemburg and the Thuilleries. The Directory informed the Council of Five Hundred, that a dreadful conspiracy had been prepared to burst forth. Among the leaders of this conspiracy, who were now arrested by order of the Directory, were Drouet, the postmaster of Varennes, who arrested the unfortunate Lewis XVI.; Babeuf, Antonelle, Pelletier, Gaudet, Julien, Gen. Rossignol, Germain, D'Arthe, Laignelot, and Amar, who had been a member of the committee of general safety along with Robespierre. Vadier and Robert Lindet were also in the conspiracy, but escaped. Drouet also escaped by the connivance of the Directory; but the rest of the conspirators were removed for trial to the high national court at Vendome, where they were condemned. At their removal thither, a new attempt was made for their rescue. About 600 men entered the camp at Grenelle near Paris, and endeavoured to prevail with the soldiers to join them in an insurrection. This attempt proved abortive. A few of the insurgents were killed, and the rest fled.

(24.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE OVERTURE FOR PEACE WITH BRITAIN. These defeats of the Jacobins, and the discredit under which they were again brought, encouraged the moderate party in the two councils to attempt to repeal the last decrees of the Convention, which had granted them an amnesty. The discussion lasted many days; the result was, that the law with regard to emigrants remained on the former footing; and the only point which the moderate party carried was that those terrorists were declared incapable of holding public offices who owed their safety to the amnesty. The state of the finances now began to occupy the French government. During the government of Robespierre, while the credit of the assignats was preserved by the influence of terror, or by the sale of the church lands, and the property of emigrants, little attention was bestowed upon this subject. But when the boundless extravagance of the agents of government had loaded the circulation with assignats till their value sunk, it became a very difficult question how the public service was to be supported. A new paper currency, called *rescripts*, was first adopted. These were orders on the treasury for cash, payable at certain periods. But their credit soon failed, as the treasury had no means of fulfilling its engagements. The Directory complained, in a message to the Councils, of the want of funds to carry on the approaching campaign. In consequence of this, a law was passed, on the 25th of March, 1796, authorising the sale of the remainder of the national domains for the price formerly fixed upon them, at about 22 years purchase. A new paper currency, called *mandats* was to be received in payment. (See MANDAT.) But the mandats soon lost in all private transactions one 4th of their value, and they even fell still lower. This, however, produced a great demand for national property, which was thus about to be sold far below its value. To prevent this effect, the legislature broke its engagements, and decreed, that one 4th of every purchase should be paid, not in mandats, but in cash. This decree put a stop both to the sale of national property, and to the circulation of mandats. Recourse was next had to taxation, but this was attended with much difficulty. By the war, and the violent government of Robespierre, the French commerce had been nearly ruined. Industrious men, who possessed any capital, had therefore turned their attention to the cultivation of land. The country was accordingly well cultivated; but as the riches of agricultural nations are not easily subjected to taxation, the French Directory now found it impossible to carry on their schemes of ambition and of conquest, without relying for resources upon the plunder of the neighbouring states, which soon rendered their armies odious in all those quarters of Europe to which they penetrated. Amidst their preparations for the approaching campaign the Directory attempted to increase their own reputation at home, by establishing a society of

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men of letters, under the protection of the government, by the name of the NATIONAL INSTITUTE. (See that article.) Into this body was collected the moſt celebrated literary characters in the nation, which had eſcaped the fury of the Mountain Party. Among theſe were La Place, Lalande, Fourcroy, Berthollet, Volney, Dolomieu, and others, well known throughout Europe. The firſt public meeting of the Inſtitute was held on the 4th of April, in the hall of the Louvre, called the *Hall of Antiques*. The ambaſſadors of Spain, Pruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, America, Tuſcany, Genoa, and Geneva, were preſent. The members of the Directory attended in their robes, and their preſident made a ſpeech of inſtallation, declaring the determination of the executive power to protect and encourage literature and the arts. Duſaulx, the preſident of the Inſtitute, replied, in a ſpeech in which he declared the reſolution of the members to labour to give luſtre to the republican government by their talents and productions: 1500 ſpectators applauded the ſpeeches with enthuſiaſm. At this period the Britiſh government made an overture for a negociation with France. On the 8th of March, Mr Wickham the miniſter plenipotentiary to the Swiſs Cantons, tranſmitted to Barthelemy, ambaſſador from the French Republic to the Helvetic body, a note containing three queſtions: Whether France would be diſpoſed to ſend miniſters to a congreſs to negociate peace with his Britannic Majeſty and his allies? 2. Whether France would be diſpoſed to communicate the general grounds on which ſhe would be willing to conclude peace, that his Majeſty and his allies might conſider them in concert? and, laſtly, Whether France would deſire to communicate any other mode of accompliſhing a peace? On the 26th March, 1796, Barthelemy returned an anſwer in name of the French Directory, complaining of inſincerity in the propoſal made by the Britiſh court, ſaying its ambaſſador was not authoriſed to negociate, and that a congreſs was propoſed, which muſt render negociation endleſs;—ſtating the ardent deſire of the Directory for peace; but aſſerting, that it could liſten to no propoſal for giving up any territory that had been declared by the conſtitutional act to form a part of the Republic; (alluding to the Auſtrian Netherlands;) declaring, however, that other countries occupied by the French armies, and political or commercial intereſts, might become the ſubject of negociation. Upon theſe points the Directory declared its readineſs to receive reaſonable propoſals. To this anſwer no reply was ſent; but the Britiſh court published a note, of which copies were preſented to the foreign miniſters reſiding at London; in which the ſpirit of the Directory's anſwer was complained of.

(15.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE REDUCTION OF ITALY BY BONAPARTE. The Directory had ſucceeded, during winter, in reducing the weſtern departments. The emigrant expedition from England had induced the royaliſts once more to try the fortune of war; but, after various defeats, their leaders, Charette and Stoffiet, were taken, and put to death on the 29th of March, and the inſurgents were ſuppreſſed in all quarters. The French government, being thus left without an enemy at home, was enabled to make great efforts on the frontiers. The military force of the Republic was divided into three armies. On the Lower Rhine, the army of the Sambre and Meuſe was ſtationed about Duſſeldorf and Coblentz, and commanded by Jourdan. Moreau commanded the army of the Rhine and Moſelle; on the Upper Rhine, from Landau to Treves. The 3d army was ſtationed on the coaſt of Italy, from Nice towards Genoa, and received Bonaparte as its commander. The actions of this man in the ſubſequent eventful period, require ſome attention to his perſonal hiſtory. A Corſican lawyer, who had appeared in arms under the celebrated Paoli in defence of his native iſland, was the father of Napoleon Bonaparte; who was born at Ajaccio in 1767; and by the intereſt of M. de Marboeuf, the French governor of the iſland, was educated at the celebrated military academy of France, which has produced ſo many heroes. At a very early period, he ſtood candidate for a commiſſion in the artillery, and was ſucceſsful, being the 12th on the liſt out of 36 victorious candidates. Having ſerved ſome years in the French army as a lieutenant in the regiment of La Fere, and riſen to the rank of captain, he returned to Corſica after the revolution, and was elected lieut. col. of a corps of Corſican national guards. Here he formed a connection with Gen. Paoli, the friend of his father. He reſented the treatment which Paoli received from Robeſpierre's government, and wrote the remonſtrance tranſmitted to the Convention, againſt the decree which declared Paoli an enemy to the Republic. In conſequence, a warrant was iſſued for his arreſt by the commiſſioners of the Convention. He made his peace, however, and reſolved to adhere to the intereſts of France, in oppoſition to Great Britain, which at this period took poſſeſſion of Corſica. He embarked with the reſt of his family for France, and arrived there when Lord Hood was in poſſeſſion of Toulon. Salicetti, a deputy from Corſica to the Convention, introduced him to Barras, who ſuperintended the ſiege of Toulon. Here Bonaparte was advanced to the rank of general of artillery; and, under Dugommier, directed the attack of the various fortified poſts around the city. He was afterwards employed againſt the royaliſts in the weſt of France; and he was at Paris, and aſſiſted Barras in the conteſt between the Convention and the Pariſians on the 5th Oct. Hence he was diſliked by the moderate party, and repreſented as an unprincipled adventurer, brought forward to ſupport the terroriſt faction. He had many enemies, therefore, at the commencement of his career, and his character was treated with much freedom. The ſcandal of the times went ſo far as to aſſert, that he owed his preferment, not ſo much to his talents, as to his marriage with Madame Beauharnois, a beautiful French woman whom Barras had taken into his keeping. The French army of Italy amounted at this time to 56,000 men. Bonaparte at his arrival found it ill equipped, and the troops mutinous for want of pay and neceſſaries. He addreſſed them, however, in the true ſtyle of military enterpriſe; "If we are to be vanquiſhed, we have already too

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much; and if we conquer, we shall want nothing;" and ordered them to prepare for immediate action. The Austrians employed in the defence of Italy, under Gen. Beaulieu, are said to have more than equalled the French in numbers. To these were united the King of Sardinia's army, under Count Colli, of 60,000 regular troops, besides the militia, and a body of 2,500 Neapolitan cavalry. Gen. Beaulieu began the campaign, on the 9th of April, 1796, by attacking a post called VOLTRI, which the French possessed, within 18 miles of Genoa. They defended themselves till the evening, and then retreated to Savona. Next morning Beaulieu, at the head of 15,000 men, pressing upon the centre of the French army, was completely successful till one o'clock p. m. when he reached a redoubt at Montenotte, which was the last of their entrenchments. This redoubt contained 1500 French. Their commander, Rampon, made them swear that they would not surrender; and they arrested the progress of Beaulieu for the remainder of the day. During the night, Bonaparte stationed his right wing under La Harpe, a Swiss exile, in the rear of the redoubt of Montenotte, which still held out, while he himself; with Massena, Berthier, and Salicetti, advanced by Altara, to take the Austrians on their flank and rear. Beaulieu, on the morning of the 11th, attacked the French under LA HARPE; but Massena advancing upon the flank of the Austrians and Sardinians, they gave way on all sides. Two of their generals, Roccavina and Argentau, were wounded. They lost 2500 prisoners, and were pursued beyond Coire, of which the French took possession next day. On the 13th at day-break, the defiles of MILLESIMO were forced by Gen. Augereau; and Gen. Provera, at the head of 1500 Austrian grenadiers, was surrounded; a circumstance which proved not a little embarrassing to the French army. For this resolute officer, instead of surrendering, instantly withdrew to a ruined castle on the top of the mountain, and there entrenched himself. Augereau brought up his artillery, and spent many hours in attempting to dislodge him. At last he divided his troops into 4 columns, and endeavoured to carry Provera's entrenchments by storm. The French lost two generals, Banel and Quenin, and Joubert was wounded in this attempt, which proved unsuccessful. Provera passed the night in the midst of the French army, which had been prevented by his obstinate resistance from coming to battle. On the 14th the hostile armies faced each other, but a division of the French troops was still occupied in blockading Provera. The Austrians attempted to force the centre of the French, but without success. Massena turned the left flank of their left wing near the village of Dego; while La Harpe, with his division in 3 columns turned the right flank of the same wing. One column kept in awe the centre of the Austrians, a 2d attacked the flank of their left wing, while the 3d gained its rear. Thus was the left wing of the combined army completely surrounded and thrown into confusion: 8,000 men were taken prisoners, and Gen. Provera at last surrendered. On the morning after his defeat at Millesimo, Beaulieu, at the head of 7000 chosen Austrian troops, attacked, at day-break, the village of Dego, where the French reposed in security. He took the village; but the French having rallied under Gen. Massena, spent the greater part of the day in attempting to retake it. They were thrice repulsed, and Causse, one of their generals, was killed. Towards evening, however, Bonaparte having brought up reinforcements, the post was retaken, and the Austrians retired with the loss of 1400 prisoners. Bonaparte had now thrown himself between the Austrian and Sardinian armies. By the possession of the strong post of Dego, his right was secured against Beaulieu, who he was enabled to act with the mass of his force against the Piedmontese troops. His enterprise in this quarter were facilitated by Augereau, who had opened a communication with the valley of Tanaro, where Serrurier's division was approaching Ceva, near which the Piedmontese had an entrenched camp defended by 8000 men. On the 16th Augereau attacked the redoubt which covered this camp, and took most of the which induced the Piedmontese to evacuate during the night, and on the 17th Ceva was ceded by Serrurier. Count Colli now retreated to cover Turin; making choice, however, of strongest posts, and fighting in them all. He was able, on the 19th, to repulse Serrurier; but the 22d Bonaparte, still pressing on Colli, defeated him near MONDOVI, and entered that place. The retreating army next endeavoured to make a stand, with its head quarters at Fossano, and wings at Coni and Cherasco. On the 25th Massena advanced against Cherasco, which was speedily evacuated. Fossano surrendered to Serrurier and Alba to Augereau. Previous to these victories, however, Count Colli, on the 23d of April 1796 had written to Bonaparte, requesting an armistice, to allow the King of Sardinia an opportunity of negociating a peace. The French army was now within 26 miles of Turin; and Bonaparte granted an armistice, on condition that 3 forts of Coni, Ceva, and Tortona, should be delivered up to him, with their artillery and magazines, and that he should be allowed to cross the Po at Valentia. The armistice was signed the 29th, and it was followed by a treaty with the French Republic, concluded at Paris on the 17th May. The conditions imposed by this treaty upon the King of Sardinia were humiliating. He gave up to France for ever the duchy of Savoy, and the counties of NICE, Jenda, and Tueil. He gave an amnesty to all his subjects who were prosecuted for political opinions: and, in addition to the above fortresses, he gave up the forts of Exiles, Susa, Brunette, Affiette, Chateau Dauphin, and Alexandria, to be possessed by the French during the war. He agreed to demolish the fortresses of Brunette and Susa, and to dismiss his disrespectful conduct to the last French ambassador. In the mean time the French army advanced towards the Po. Beaulieu was decoyed by the article in the armistice, respecting the crossing of that river at Valentia, and made all his preparations for resistance in that quarter. But Buonaparte laboured to confirm this error; and while Beaulieu waited for him near Valentia, he proceeded 60 miles down the river to Plac

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where he arrived on the 7th of May 1796, before the direction of his march was discovered. He immediately seized whatever boats he could find, and effected his passage without difficulty. Beaulieu in the meanwhile had sent a body of 6000 infantry and 2000 cavalry, to prevent the French from passing the river; but Bonaparte, now on the same side of the river with themselves, met and defeated them on the 8th at Fombio. Another body of 5000 Imperialists, advancing to the assistance of those at Fombio, was met at Codogno, and repulsed by Gen. La Harpe, who was killed on the occasion. On the 9th Bonaparte granted an armistice to the Duke of PARMA, on a condition of his paying a contribution of 2,000,000 of French livres, and delivering 10,000 quintals of wheat, 5,000 quintals of oats, and 2,000 oxen, for the use of the army. This prince also agreed to deliver up 20 of his best paintings. This last stipulation was no sooner known in France, than many men of letters and artists remonstrated against it. But the Directory was too much occupied by views of national aggrandisement to listen to their arguments; and similar stipulations were ordered to be inserted in future treaties, whereby the most valuable curiosities of Italy were transferred to Paris. Beaulieu, now driven from the Po, crossed the Adda at Lodi, Pizzighittone, and Cremona. He left some troops, however, to defend the approaches to Lodi. The advanced guard of the French attacked these on the 10th, and drove them into the town; which was entered in such close pursuit, that the Imperialists on leaving it, had not leisure to break down the bridge over the Adda. At the other end of the bridge the Imperial army was drawn up, and 30 pieces of cannon defended the passage. Bonaparte having demanded of his grenadiers, if they were willing to attempt to force it, they applauded the proposal, and he formed them into a close column. Taking advantage of a cloud of smoke which issued from the hostile artillery, they rushed along the bridge, which was about 100 yards in length, and were in the middle of it before they were discovered. After a general discharge from the Austrians destroyed 300 men. The French column hesitated, and the carnage became terrible; but Massena, Berthier, Dallemagne, Cervoni, Lasnes, Dupat, and other officers, flying to the head of the columns, urged on the soldiers, and pressing forward, broke into the ranks of the Imperial army, which immediately gave way, and fled in all directions. This exploit has been much celebrated. The intrepidity of the troops by whom it was accomplished is unquestionable; but the leader who urged them to such an enterprise merits reprobation. He had passed the Po with scarcely the loss of a man. The Adda is a very inferior stream, which has fords both above and below Lodi. The river was actually crossed at one of these by Augereau with the cavalry, during the attack upon the bridge. With the delay of one day therefore the passage might have been effected without difficulty by the whole army, and there was no adequate motive to justify the lavish expenditure of blood which was here made. After the surrender of Pizzighittone and Cremona on the 12th, the French returned upon Pavia and Milan, which opened their gates without resistance, though the citadel of Milan held out for a short time. Bonaparte now turned aside into Modena and the territories of the Pope. He took Ferrara, Bologna, and Urbino; and granted an armistice to the Pope and the Duke of Modena, on condition of large contributions of money, paintings, and curiosities. The Pope also ceded Bologna and Ferrara, and the citadel of Ancona. His march into the Roman territory so alarmed the Neapolitan cabinet, that it solicited peace; and Bonaparte granted an armistice. Bonaparte next advanced with a body of troops to Leghorn, under pretence of driving out the English, whose property there he confiscated. Mantua was still in the hands of the Imperialists, but it was blockaded, and all Italy was now submissive to France.

(26.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE RETREAT OF GEN. MOREAU OUT OF GERMANY. To diminish the efforts of the French in Italy, the Imperialists renewed the contest in Germany. An intimation was sent to Gen. Jourdan, that the armistice would terminate, and hostilities commence on the 31st of May 1796. At this time Gen. Wartensleben opposed Jourdan; and the Archduke Charles commanded the army in the Hundsruck, which covered Mentz and Manheim, and was stationed against Moreau on the Upper Rhine. Moreau remained quiet, while Jourdan began to act vigorously. On the 31st of May his left wing, under Kleber, issued from the lines of Dusseldorf, and, advancing towards the Sieg, defeated the Imperialists. Thereafter they were driven successively from Ukareth and Altenkirchen, across the Lahn. Jourdan, having advanced with his centre and right wing, forced the Austrian posts on the Nahe, crossed the Rhine, and formed the blockade of Ehrenbreitstein. By these movements the Archduke had Moreau in his front, while Jourdan, with a victorious army, commanded his rear. He therefore crossed the river, leaving the fortresses of Mentz and Manheim to keep Moreau in check; and encountered Jourdan's advanced guard, which he compelled to retire after an obstinate conflict. Jourdan withdrew to his former positions, the Archduke pressing hard upon him, till he raised the blockade of Ehrenbreitstein. On the 24th of June 1796, Moreau effected the passage of the river opposite to fort Kehl. This was an enterprise of considerable difficulty; for a sudden swell, by covering a part of the islands with which the river abounds, had prevented the Austrians from being taken by surprise. The entrenchments on such islands as were occupied by troops were speedily carried by the bayonet, and 2600 French landed on the opposite shore, but without cavalry or artillery. Here they were exposed to the attacks of the Austrian horse from the camp of Wilstedt, and to the fire of the cannon of the fort. They maintained their ground, however, till the boats, which had been sent back, returned with a reinforcement. The whole redoubts and the fort were then taken by storm. The departure of the Archduke to the Lower Rhine in pursuit of Jourdan, and the large detachments

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tachments, which had recently been ſent toward Italy to oppoſe Bonaparte, now enabled Moreau to enter Swabia with a great ſuperiority of force. On the 26th of June he drove the Auſtrians from their camp of Wiſſtedt; and on the 27th he advanced with his army, in 3 columns, againſt another camp of 15,000 men in front of Offenburg. Gen. Wurmſer ſent a ſtrong reinforcement from Manheim to the aſſiſtance of theſe troops; but having encountered two French columns on its way, the reinforcement was defeated, and the the camp at Offenburg was evacuated. The Auſtrians made an obſtinate ſtand at Renchen, near Philipſburg, on the 29th, but were compelled to retire with the loſs of 1200 priſoners, and ſeveral cannon. On the 2d July a diviſion of the French army, under Gen. Laroche ſeized the mountain Knubis, which is the higheſt of the *Black Foreſt*. On the 3d, after an obſtinate conflict, the Auſtrians were driven from the paſs of Friedenſtadt; by which they loſt all communication with the emigrant troops under the Pr. of Condé, and other Imperial troops on the Rhine. On the 6th, the left wing of the French, under Deſſaix, encountered the Imperialiſts at Raſtadt, where they were at laſt compelled to give way, and retire to Ettingen. The Archduke Charles now arrived with his army from the Lower Rhine, where he had left Wartenſleben to oppoſe Jourdan, who inſtantly reſumed the offenſive upon his departure. Kleber advanced from the lines of Duſſeldorf, while the centre and right wing croſſed the Rhine near Coblentz. The poſts of Ukareth and Aitenkirchen were forced, and on the 9th of July the whole of Jourdan's army croſſed the Lahn. On the 10th, Wartenſleben was defeated near this river, after great ſlaughter on both ſides, with the loſs of 500 priſoners; and the French on the 12th entered Franckfort. The two Imperial armies were now placed in the centre between thoſe of Moreau and Jourdan. The archduke was therefore under the neceſſity of making his final exertion for the ſafety of Germany, againſt Moreau at Ettingen, on the 9th of July, without having formed any junction with Wartenſleben. The battle was moſt obſtinately fought. The French were four times repulſed in their attempts to force the heights of Rottenſolhe; and it was not till after a dreadful ſlaughter that they at laſt carried the field by the bayonet. The loſs of the battle of Ettingen compelled the two Imperial armies to retire eaſtward. After placing ſtrong garriſons in Mentz, Manheim, and Philipſburg, the Archduke retreated through Swabia towards Ulm, where his magazines were placed. At every ſtrong poſition, however, he made an obſtinate ſtand; thus endeavouring to render the progreſs of the French under Moreau as tardy as poſſible. Wartenſleben, with the other Imperial army, retired through Franconia, reſiſting Jourdan in the ſame manner. Many bloody battles were fought, in all of which the French were ſucceſsful. They gradually preſſed forward till Moreau's army compelled the Archduke to croſs the Neckar, and afterwards the Danube, leaving the whole circle of Swabia in the rear of the French. Wartenſleben was in like manner driven through Aſchaffenburg, Wurtzburg, Schweinfurt, &c. and was obliged to croſs the Rednitz, on the 6th Aug. Bamberg, to avoid the preſſure of Jourdan's army in his rear. This army continued to advance till its right wing, under Bernadotte, was poſted at Neumarck, with his advanced poſts at Teining, while the body of the army had driven Wartenſleben beyond the Nab, and had reached Amberg on the 22d Aug. Excepting a part of the mountains of Tyrol, three French armies, under Jourdan, Moreau, and Bonaparte, now occupied the whole country from the frontiers of Bohemia to the Adriatic Sea. The alarm throughout Germany was extreme. The Duke of Wirtemberg obtained peace from the French on condition of paying 4,000,000 of livres. The circle of Swabia did the ſame, on engaging to pay 12,000,000 of livres, and to deliver 8,400 horſes, 5,000 oxen, 100,000 quintals of wheat, 50,000 quintals of rye, 100,000 ſacks of oats, 100,000 pairs of ſhoes, and a large quantity of hay. The Margraye of Baden obtained peace on ſimilar terms. The electors of Bavaria and the circle of Franconia offered large payments; and even the diet of Ratiſbon ſent a deputation to treat with the French generals for neutrality. The King of Pruſſia now entered into a new treaty with the French; the conditions of which were concealed, but its nature appeared in the advantage which he took of the progreſs of their arms to take poſſeſſion of NUREMBERG (See that article.) SPAIN alſo entered into a treaty of offenſive and defenſive with France, which was followed by a declaration of war againſt Britain. The danger of the houſe of Auſtria was now very great; the emperor, deſerted in all quarters by the members of the coalition, ſtill retained an ally in Great Britain, whoſe riches, liberally beſtowed in the form of a loan, extricated him from his difficulties, and enabled him to ſend one army after another to oppoſe Bonaparte in Italy. The Archduke, having received powerful reinforcements, reſolved to make a ſtand, on the 11th Auguſt, 1796, againſt Moreau at Umenheim. A ſevere battle was fought during 17 hours; but the Archduke hearing that Wartenſleben could not maintain his ground againſt Jourdan, thought it neceſſary to retreat, and adopt new meaſures. On the 17th Aug. he left Gen. La Tour, with a part of his army, to oppoſe Moreau; and having croſſed the Danube at Neuburg and Ingoldſtadt, he marched to Wartenſleben's aſſiſtance to fall upon Jourdan with united forces. On the 23d he attacked Bernadotte at Teining, and forced him to retire towards Nuremberg. The Archduke was thus upon the right of Jourdan, while Wartenſleben was on his front. The French general, finding his poſition dangerous, began to retreat on the 24th. The French armies, at the commencement of this campaign, had been extremely ill equipped and ill paid. Hence the armies of Moreau and Jourdan plundered, without decency or mercy, every place into which they entered. Hence, when they began to retreat, loaded as they were with ſpoil, they ſuffered more from the enraged inhabitants of the countries through which they paſſed, than from the military efforts of the hoſtile army. The Archduke having joined Wartenſleben, ſent off Nauendorf with reinforcements to La Tour, who oppoſed Moreau, and continued to

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to purſue Jourdan towards Wurtzburg. Here the French made a ſtand, on the 3d Sept. and a general engagement took place. Both parties ſuffered great loſs, but eſpecially the French, who retreated during the night. Jourdan now fled by Paldaw to Wetzlaer. Having croſſed the Lahn, where he made ſome reſiſtance, he deſcended along the banks of the Rhine, till his army, on the 15th, reached Coblentz and Duſſeldorf. The ſituation of Moreau's army was now uncommonly dangerous. He maintained his poſition, however, till the 17th Sept. He attempted, without ſucceſs, to withdraw the Archduke from the purſuit of Jourdan, by detaching a part of his troops towards Nuremberg. Many attacks were made upon him, but all without ſucceſs; and the Imperial generals at laſt gave way to him wherever he turned. He had recroſſed the Lech, but now ſuddenly paſſing it again, he drove back Gen. La Tour as far as Landſperg. Having thus obtained freedom for his future movements, he ſet out in full retreat, between the Danube at Ulm and the lake of Conſtance. La Tour, however, preſſed upon his rear; and he found the paſſes of the Black Foreſt occupied by large bodies of Auſtrians and armed peaſants, while Gen. Nauendorf and Petrarſch haraſſed his right flank with 24,000 men. Once more therefore he turned upon La Tour, at Biberach, on the 3d Oct. and having defeated him, took 5000 priſoners; whom he carried to France. He now continued his retreat; his right wing, under Gen. Deſſaix, keeping Nauendorf and Petrarſch in check, while the reſt of the army cleared the paſſages in front till he arrived at the narrow defile of the *Valley of Hell*. (See HELL, N° 5.) The centre of his army, advancing in a maſs, forced this paſſage, while the wings repulſed the Imperial troops under La Tour and Nauendorf. After this deſperate effort he reached Fribourg on the 13th Oct. and was ſoon compelled by the Archduke Charles, who had now arrived from the purſuit of Jourdan, to evacuate all his poſitions on the Swabian ſide of the Rhine, with the exception of Kehl, and a temporary fortification erected at Huningen, called a *bridge-head*, (*tête de pont*,) though there was no bridge at that place.

(37) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE SIEGE AND BLOCKADE OF MANTUA. The Imperial troops had taken advantage of the defenceleſs ſtate of the French frontier to croſs the Rhine at Manheim, and to advance in various detachments to Weiſſemburg, Seltz, Hagenau, and even to the gates of Straſburg, levying contributions and taking hoſtages wherever they came. Their detachments being now recalled, the Archduke reſolved to terminate the campaign, by the capture of Kehl, and the fortification at Huningen. Different ſallies were made by the French, and immenſe numbers of men were loſt on both ſides by the ſword, and by the ſeverity of the ſeaſon. It was not till the 10th of January that the French agreed to evacuate Kehl, and the fortification at Huningen was not given up till February. During this invaſion of Germany, and the reverſes that were ſuffered by the French armies there, Bonaparte ſtill continued victorious in Italy. His ſucceſs and wonderful fortune require that we ſhould give ſome account of the arts by which he was enabled to triumph over the moſt experienced military commanders of the age. In the military art 3 orders of battle, or forms of drawing up an army, have been chiefly adopted by nations whoſe force principally conſiſted of foot ſoldiers. The firſt mode conſiſts of arranging the troops in a deep line; that is, with from 16 to 30 men placed cloſe behind each other. (See PHALANX, § 2.) The 2d or modern order of battle, conſiſts in forming a front of an immenſe extent, with only 2 or 3 men in depth, and uſually ſupporting theſe by another, and perhaps a third equally ſlender line, at a conſiderable diſtance in the rear. Troops thus drawn up derive the greateſt poſſible benefit from their own fire arms, and ſuffer the leaſt loſs from thoſe of the enemy. They are ſeldom very cloſely engaged; and in caſe of a defeat, little loſs is ſuffered, becauſe they can ſcatter themſelves over a wide ſpace, as the rear protects the advanced body; and as the troops in a long line can ſeldom all be engaged at once, they are ſupported by each other in a retreat. This order, however, is eaſily broken; and the moment the flank of an army is turned, it is under the neceſſity of retreating, as troops cannot ſpeedily be brought from other quarters to face the enemy there. The laſt order of battle conſiſts of dividing an army into columns of a narrow front and very great depth, and of ſtationing the columns at ſome diſtance from each other, with a 2d ſet of columns oppoſite to the intervals between the firſt. This arrangement is ſuperior to the phalanx, as it does not expoſe an army to diſorder by inequalities of ground, by the turning of its flank, or even by the defeat of one of its parts. The Romans owed their military ſucceſs, in a great meaſure, to this arrangement of their legion, though the columns were only 16 men in depth. In modern times, however, this order of battle is attended with great difficulties. It expoſes the troops in an engagement to dreadful deſtruction from the powerful fire arms now employed. In every enterpriſe they muſt inſtantly carry their point or be undone, as the fire of a few guns from a ſingle battery or redoubt would exterminate them by thouſands. With all its imperfections, however, this laſt order of battle has at times been employed by enterpriſing men; particularly by Guſtavus Adolphus, and the celebrated Marquis of Montroſe. It was now adopted in all important caſes by Bonaparte. Truſting to it, he puſhed his columns into the midſt of the Auſtrian army at Millefimo, and captured one of its wings. He ventured to throw himſelf into the centre, between the Auſtrian and Sardinian armies, and vanquiſhed the one, by acting againſt it with his whole troops while ſeparated from the other. Being careleſs about the ſhedding of blood, he never heſitated to expoſe his whole army to utter ruin in caſe of a failure. Filled with high notions of military glory, which he derived from the writings of Plutarch, he laboured to inflame, with the ſame ſpirit, the minds of his ſoldiers by proclamations, expreſſed in a very different ſtyle from the formal and more modeſt language of modern times. At the commencement of the French invaſion of Germany, M. Wurmſer was ſent into Italy to ſucceed Beaulieu. On his arrival, he collected

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lected the wrecks of the Auſtrian army, and prepared to confine the French within as narrow limits as poſſible. At the end of June, however, his lines, drawn from lake Garda to the Adige, were attacked and carried by Maſſena's diviſion, which induced Wurmſer to avoid farther exertion till he ſhould receive an increaſe of force. In the mean time Bonaparte was not a little diſturbed by partial inſurrections of the Italians. Soon after his arrival in Lombardy, the inhabitants of Milan and of Pavia had riſen againſt his troops; but were reduced to ſubjection with little bloodſhed. In the beginning of July, farther inſurrections broke out in Romagna. The inſurgents eſtabliſhed their head quarters at Lugo, and repulſed a party of French cavalry. Augereau defeated them, on the 6th, in a battle in which he loſt 200 men. Their town was given up to pillage, and all in arms were deſtroyed. (See LUGO, N° 1.) The firſt part of July was ſpent by Bonaparte in commencing the ſiege of Mantua. In this, however, he had ill calculated the immenſe military efforts which Auſtria, aided by Britiſh money, was capable of making: 20,000 troops had been ſent from the Rhine, and other reinforcements were marching towards Italy from all quarters: ſo that Bonaparte, inſtead of being able to take Mantua, had ſpeedily to defend himſelf againſt the force of a ſuperior army, that threatened to drive him out of Italy. Wurmſer's army deſcended from the Tyrol in two diviſions. One half of it proceeded along the E. ſide of lake Garda, and the other came by the W. to cut off the retreat of the French, who were thus encloſed by the Auſtrians. On the 29th July, at 3 o'clock A. M. Maſſena was driven from Corona, E. of the lake; while 15,000 Auſtrians drove the French from Salo, and took Breſcia, with all the magazines and hoſpitals of Bonaparte's army. There was a fatal error in the plan formed by the Imperialiſts. Their army united was an overmatch for the French; but they had divided it into two parts, placing Bonaparte between them. The error was taken advantage of by their antagoniſt. On the night of the 30th, he ſuddenly raiſed the ſiege of Mantua, and leaving a ſmall body of troops to keep in check the Imperialiſts on that ſide, he marched rapidly weſtward, and on the 1ſt of Auguſt retook Breſcia, with the magazines and hoſpitals. Having the maſs of his army united, Bonaparte ſurpaſſed his antagoniſts in numbers wherever he encountered them. He prepared to attack the Imperialiſts on the 3d at SALO, Lonado, and Caſtiglione, but was anticipated by them. Having formed a large body of his troops into cloſe columns, the Auſtrians, who were not yet aware of his mode of fighting, extended their line to ſurround them; a movement which enabled the columns to penetrate the Imperial army in all directions, and throw it into compleat diſorder; ſo that the French defeated it and took 4000 priſoners, and 20 cannons. A conſiderable diviſion of the Auſtrians, having next day come to Lonado, they ſummoned it to ſurrender, upon the ſuppoſition, that the greater part of the French army had gone eaſtward to encounter Wurmſer. This was actually the caſe; but it ſo happened, that Bonaparte was at Lonado with only 1200 men. He was ſufficiently perplexed by this accident; but having ordered the meſſen to be brought into his preſence, he threatened deſtroy the whole diviſion for having dared to ſult the French army, by ſummoning its comma er in chief to ſurrender. The ſtratagem was ceſsful. The Imperial officers imagined that whole army was in the place, and immediat with their troops, laid down their arms, to number of 4000 men. Some, who think this count incredible, ſay that Bonaparte bribed Auſtrian officers; and add, that this is confe in one of his intercepted letters, where he ſ "the Auſtrian armies in Italy coſt him *more m* than his own." On the 5th and 6th, Bonap attacked Wurmſer, and drove him from Peſch and the Mincio. On the 7th, the Auſtrians w compelled to quit Verona, and to retire once m to the mountains of Tyrol. This conteſt, w had laſted more than ſix days, coſt the Imperia more than 20,000 men, upwards of 15,000 whom were made priſoners. A part of the E peror's troops had been levied in Galicia, were natives of Poland. (See GALICIA, N° Theſe men ſeized the moment of defeat to qu ſervice which they hated, and to go over to French. The French now commenced the ſi of Mantua anew. The garriſon in their abſe had deſtroyed their works, and carried into place 140 pieces of heavy cannon which they left behind them, and procured a conſidera quantity of proviſions. The blockade was ren ed, the French, by the loſs of their artillery, ing unable to proceed to a regular ſiege; and the beginning of Sept. Wurmſer, having recei new reinforcements, was again enabled to atte the relief of the place.

(28.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY THE, TO THE SURRENDER OF MANTUA. Bo parte, hearing of Wurmſer's intended approa left ſufficient troops to keep up the blocka while he advanced northward with his army; on the 4th Sept. drove the Auſtrians from paſſes of St Marco and the city of Roveredo the paſs of Caſſiano, where they made their p cipal ſtand. Here a battle enſued, in which French took no leſs than 6000 priſoners, and tered Trent as conquerors. Upon this def M. Wurmſer adopted a meaſure which ſho his great military ſkill. Inſtead of retiring bef the conqueror, who might have driven him Inſpruck, and arrived at a critical moment at Danube, where Moreau had only commenced retreat, he ſuddenly threw himſelf with his v quiſhed army into Baſſano, upon the flank rear of Bonaparte, and then advanced by ha marches towards Mantua. He attempted make a ſtand at Baſſano on the 8th, but was feated, and 5000 of his men were taken priſone He had ſtill a conſiderable body of troops howev With theſe he puſhed forward; and having fou different diviſions of the French at Cerea, Cal lano, and Duo Caſtello, he effected the paſſage the Adige at Porto Legnano, and entered Mant with the wreck of his army, amounting to abo 4000 infantry, and 4500 cavalry. In this ent priſe the Imperialiſts loſt altogether 20,000 m Theſe events fixed Bonaparte in Italy, where was obliged to remain, keeping under blocka

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the numerous garriſon of Mantua. The ſame, which Bonaparte gained by theſe victories, produced in the Corſicans a deſire to change the Britiſh government for that of France. They accordingly diſplayed ſo mutinous a ſpirit, that the Britiſh Viceroy thought fit to evacuate the iſland, (See CORSICA,) which was no longer of value to Britain, after all Italy had, in a great meaſure, ſubmitted to the French. The Imperial ſubjects in Italy alſo, with the inhabitants of Bologna, Ferrara, and Modena, began now to republicaniſe themſelves under the patronage of the French general. They ſent deputies to a convention, levied troops, and aboliſhed all orders of nobility. (See CISALPINE, and CISPADANE REPUBLICS.) The emperor ſoon ſent into the field a new army, to attempt the relief of Mantua. In the beginning of November the army advanced under M. Alvinzi, towards Vicenza on the eaſt, ſeconded by Gen. Davidovich, with another diviſion from Tyrol. Alvinzi had already croſſed the Piava, when he was met by the French, and compelled to repaſs that river. But Davidovich, after ſeveral engagements, having driven the French down the Adige towards Verona, Bonaparte was obliged to concentrate his forces. He left Vaubois with ſome troops to detain Davidovich, while he advanced in perſon againſt Alvinzi, who was now haſtening towards Verona. He was met, on his way, by the Auſtrians at the village of Arcole. To ſeize this village, which could not be ſpeedily turned on account of a canal, the French were under the neceſſity of paſſing a narrow bridge in the face of the fire of the Auſtrians. They attempted it, but failed. Their officers ruſhed to the head of the column, and in vain attempted to rally the troops. Generals Verdier, Bon, Verne, and Lafnes, were carried off the field. Augereau advanced with a ſtandard to the extremity of the bridge, but no-one followed him. At laſt Bonaparte, who had ſent Guieux with 2000 men to turn the village at two miles diſtance, haſtened to the bridge of Arcole. Seizing a ſtandard, he advanced at the head of the grenadiers, crying, *Follow your general.* They followed him to within 30 yards of the bridge, when they were intimidated by the terrible fire of the Auſtrians, and Bonaparte found it neceſſary to retire. Attempting to mount his horſe to rally the column, leſt the Auſtrians ſhould advance to the purſuit, he was thrown into a moraſs, where ſtill under the fire of the troops in the village; but here he again eſcaped, as the Auſtrians did not attempt to follow up their advantage. The village of Arcole was taken towards the evening by Guieux, and afterwards evacuated by the French. On the following day Nov. 16, 1796, an obſtinate conflict enſued in its neighbourhood. On the 17th the Auſtrians, having preſſed upon the centre of the French army, were taken by ſurprize upon their flank by the left wing of the French, which had been ſtationed in ambuſcade. Their left wing, however, maintained its ground, till Bonaparte ſent round a party of horſe with 25 trumpeters to their rear, who, by the noiſe they made, induced the Auſtrians to believe themſelves ſurrounded, and to fly on all ſides in confuſion. Here again ſome allege there was treachery among the Auſtrian officers, though the battle of Arcole was the moſt ſevere which the French had yet fought in Italy, and extremely fatal to their officers, as well as to their troops. During its continuance, Davidovich had ſucceeded in defeating Vaubois, who was oppoſed to him and Rivoli, and the blockade of Mantua was actually uncovered for a time. But Bonaparte now returned, after having driven Alvinzi acroſs the Brenta, and the poſitions of Rivoli and La Corona were retaken, and Davidovich repulſed into Tyrol. Gen. Wurmſer, however, ſtill held out in Mantua during the remaining part of the year; and from ſo many victories the French nation was led to look on Bonaparte as its only invincible commander, upon whom all its hopes of conqueſt were to depend. During theſe tranſactions, Great Britain had entered into a negociation with France. By paſſports from the Directory, Lord Malmeſbury arrived in Paris, and began the negociation with De la Croix the miniſter for foreign affairs. Tho' the Directory could not decently refuſe to negociate, yet they were unwilling ſeriouſly to conclude a peace with Britain. On the other hand, the Britiſh, miniſtry have ſince declared that, as individuals, they diſapproved of a peace at this time, but they thought it neceſſary both to negociate, and to conclude a treaty, if proper terms could be obtained. Lord Malmeſbury propoſed, that the principle of mutual reſtitutions ſhould be agreed upon as the baſis of the treaty. After much uſeleſs altercation, and many notes had paſſed upon this ſubject, the Directory at laſt agreed to the general principle of mutual reſtitutions, and required that the objects of theſe ſhould be ſpecified. Accordingly, the Britiſh ambaſſador propoſed, that France ſhould relinquiſh the Auſtrian Netherlands, and offered to give up the French foreign ſettlements in return. He alſo offered to reſtore a great part of the Dutch foreign poſſeſſions, on condition that the Stadtholder's ancient authority ſhould be acknowledged in Holland. The Directory now required Lord Malmeſbury to preſent the ultimatum of his conditions within 24 hours. On his complaining of this demand, he was informed, on the 19th Dec. 1796, that the Directory would agree to no conditions contrary to the French conſtitution; and it was added that his farther reſidence at Paris was unneceſſary! During this year, 1795, Great Britain retained her uſual ſuperiority by ſea. A Britiſh ſquadron, under Adm. Elphinſton, had taken poſſeſſion of the Dutch ſettlement at the Cape of Good Hope, on the 16th of Sept. 1795. This ſettlement the Dutch wiſhed much to recover; and they advanced money to enable the French to fit out a ſquadron to co-operate with them in an attack upon it. The French government took the money, but the ſquadron was never equipped. The Dutch themſelves this year ſent a ſquadron of 7 ſhips of war, under Adm. Lucas, to reconquer the Cape; but being no match for the Britiſh ſquadron, and being caught between two fires, without the poſſibility of eſcaping, the Dutch fleet, without firing a gun, was delivered up to the Britiſh admiral. The French, towards the cloſe of 1795, attempted an invaſion of Ire-

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land; but the plan was ill concerted. The whole conduct of it was intrusted to Gen. HOCHE, and no second was prepared to occupy his place in case of any accident. The disaffected faction, with whom the French meant to co-operate, was not warned of their approach, and the fleet was sent towards a quarter of the country where the people were not prepared to receive them. When about to sail, it was detained for some time by a mutiny, which arose in consequence of the enlistment of about 1,200 galley slaves. The frigate in which Gen. Hoche had embarked was separated from the fleet in a gale of wind; so that when the greater part of the fleet arrived at Bantry Bay, on the W. coast of Ireland, nobody had instructions how to proceed. The troops and their officers wished to land, but the admiral, Bouvet, refused to allow them. Having remained several days upon the coast, he sailed for France, and arrived at Brest with a part of the fleet on the 31st of Dec. Gen. Hoche did not reach Bantry Bay till it was too late, and therefore could not land. The fleet suffered great losses in its return. (See IRELAND, § 22.) At the commencement of 1797, the Archduke Charles was still occupied in the reduction of KEHL, and of the French fortifications opposite to Hunningen. Moreau still commanded the army that opposed the Archduke; but Gen. Hoche was appointed to succeed Jourdan on the Lower Rhine. Bonaparte was still engaged in the blockade of Mantua, while the Austrian government was making vast efforts to recruit the army of Alvinzi, after its defeat at Arcole, and to enable that general to make a last and desperate effort for the relief of Mantua. The young men of Vienna were urged to give their assistance, and 6000 of them marched into Italy as volunteers. Alvinzi's army amounted now to nearly 50,000 men; and he commenced his operations on the 8th Jan. 1797, by skirmishing along the whole of the French line, from below Porto Legnano upwards, to La Corona, near Lake Garda. On the 10th Bonaparte was still at Bologna, taking precautions against the escape of Wurmser by that quarter, which, from an intercepted letter, he had learned was in contemplation. Being now informed of the approach of the Austrian army, he hastened to Mantua, and thence to Verona, which was the centre of the line of his army that opposed Alvinzi. He arrived at Verona on the morning of the 12th; and on the 13th, the efforts of the Austrians began to assume a more formidable aspect on the lower part of his line near Porto Legnano; but on that evening he learned, that the upper extremity of his line, where Joubert commanded, had been attacked by an immense superiority of numbers. The post of La Corona had even been forced, and Joubert compelled to withdraw to Rivoli, which he also abandoned. The Austrians still persisted in their unfortunate plan of dividing their army; 10,000 chosen troops, among whom were the Vienna volunteers, were destined under Gen. Provera to penetrate to Mantua by Porto Legnano, at the lower extremity of the French line; while Alvinzi advanced with the mass of the army against Joubert at its other extremity. Bonaparte left Verona on the 13th, and ordered the whole centre of his army under Massena to follow him towards Rivoli with all speed. At day-break of the 14th the attack was begun by Joubert's division, to the no small surprise of the Imperialists, who knew not of the arrival of Bonaparte. The battle, however, was long and obstinate. The superiority of numbers on the side of the Austrians enabled them to defeat all the efforts of the French to turn their divisions. They at last drove back upon the centre the two wings of the French army in considerable disorder. Alvinzi now attacked the centre, which scarcely maintained its position; and the Austrian wings advancing on both sides, completely surrounded the French army. The victory seemed already won, and Bonaparte considered his own situation as very alarming; but his troops having been concentrated by the reputed they had received, he formed 3 strong columns and sent them against the Austrian right wing which they penetrated at different points; and fled in such confusion, that having encountered a party of French that had not arrived in time, 4000 Austrians laid down their arms in a panic, and surrendered. Night put an end to any further contest; but Bonaparte, considering this quarter of his line as no longer in danger, went to oppose Gen. Provera, leaving Joubert to prosecute the victory, which he performed with great success. A detachment under Gen. Murat having marched all the night of the 14th after the battle, seized Montebaldo, to which a division of the Austrians had retreated, while Joubert, next morning, attacked them in front. Finding themselves surrounded, they fell into confusion: 6000 men were made prisoners; many were drowned in attempting to cross the Adige, and the remainder fled to Tyrol. During this sanguinary contest on the upper part of the Adige, Gen. Provera had forced his passage across the lower part of that river at Angiara near Porto Legnano, and compelled the French general Guieux to retire to Ronco. Augereau collected all the troops in the neighbourhood, and marched to attack Provera; but as he hastened towards Mantua, Augereau could only come up with his rear; of which, after an engagement, he took 2000 prisoners. On the 15th, however, Provera arrived in the vicinity of Mantua. The city, which stands in a lake, was blockaded at the two points, by which it has access to the main-land, called *St George* and *Favorito*. Alvinzi was to have formed his junction with Provera at the post of St George. Receiving no intelligence of him, Gen. Provera summoned the French commander to surrender; and on his refusal, endeavoured to carry the position by assault. Having failed in this attempt, he turned his attention towards the post of Favorito, which he attacked on the morning of the 16th; while Wurmser advanced with the troops of the garrison against the same point. But by this time Bonaparte had arrived with reinforcements. Gen. Wurmser was repulsed; and Provera, being completely surrounded by the French, surrendered himself with his troops prisoners of war. The result of all these battles at Rivoli and Mantua was the capture of 23,000 prisoners, and 60 pieces of cannon; and thus 4 Imperial armies had perished in Italy in the attempt to preserve Mantua.

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ſurrendered by capitulation on the 2d Feb. 1797. Bonaparte on this occaſion endeavoured to acquire the reputation of humanity. To allow the French emigrants in the garriſon to eſcape, he conſented to an article in the capitulation, that Gen. Wurmſer ſhould be allowed to ſelect and carry out of the garriſon 700 men, who were not to be examined nor conſidered as priſoners; and the general himſelf was allowed to depart unconditionally.

(19.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE TREATY AT LEOBEN, AND OVERTHROW OF THE VENETIAN REPUBLIC. The Pope, who of all the European princes had the beſt reaſon for diſliking the French cauſe, perſevered in hoſtility, in the hope that ſome one of the Imperial armies might ſucceed in driving Bonaparte from Italy. Having recovered from the panic which induced him to ſolicit an armiſtice when the French firſt entered Lombardy, he had avoided concluding a treaty of peace, and attempted to enter into a cloſe alliance with the court of Vienna. He procured officers to be ſent from thence to take the command of his troops, and flattered himſelf with the vain hope of being able to make an important diverſion in favour of the Imperial troops. As the Emperor and the French were both preparing with all poſſible ſpeed to renew their bloody conteſt on the frontiers of Germany, it was of importance to Bonaparte to leave all Italy in peace on his rear. On the firſt of Feb. 1797, he ſent a diviſion of his troops under Gen. Victor, along with the *Lombard Legion*, conſiſting of Italians, to enter the territory of the Pope; and upon the ſurrender of Mantua, Bonaparte followed in perſon. The Pope's troops made feeble reſiſtance. The new raiſed Lombard legion was made to try its valour againſt them on the river Senio on the 2d. After ſtorming their entrenchments, it took their cannon and 1000 priſoners. Urbino, Ancona, and Loretto, ſucceſſively fell an eaſy prey to the French. From the chapel at Loretto the papal Gen. Colli had carried moſt of the treaſure; but the French ſtill found gold and ſilver articles worth 1,000,000 of livres, and the image of the Virgin was ſent as a curioſity to Paris. Bonaparte now proceeded to Tolentino, where he was met by a meſſenger from the Pope with offers of peace; and concluded a treaty with him on the 19th. By it the conditions of the armiſtice were confirmed; and in addition the Pope promiſed to pay 15,000,000 of livres, and to deliver 800 cavalry horſes, with as many draught horſes and oxen. He alſo engaged to pay 300,000 livres to the family of the French envoy, Baſſeville, who had been murdered at Rome, and to apologiſe by his miniſter at Paris for that event. (See BASSEVILLE.) The French had been ſo unſucceſsful in their late irruption into Germany, that they now reſolved to make their principal effort from Italy under Bonaparte. The Directory detached great bodies of veterans that had fought under Moreau, as ſecretly as poſſible through Savoy into Italy. The court of Vienna gave the command on the ſide of Italy to the Archduke Charles, who brought along with him his beſt troops from the Rhine, and numerous levies were alſo made in all the hereditary ſtates. Bonaparte found that he muſt once more ſcale the ſummit of the ALPS. The council of war at Vienna now committed an important error in the plan of defence. Inſtead of making a ſtand in the defiles of the mountains, the Archduke was ſent down into the plain to defend the paſſages of the rivers. While Bonaparte was advancing into the territory of the Pope, the Auſtrian army was arranging itſelf along the E. bank of the Piava. The French were on the oppoſite bank, and Bonaparte haſtened to join them. The beginning of March, 1797, was ſpent in preparations; but at laſt the troops advanced. Having croſſed the Piava on the 12th of March, the Auſtrians retired, ſkirmiſhing till they had croſſed the Tagliamento, where they made a ſtand with their whole force. Early on the 17th the French army arrived at Valvaſone, on the oppoſite bank; and after ſome heſitation, reſolved to force the paſſage of the river. A recent froſt having diminiſhed the ſtream, the French were enabled to croſs it in the face of the enemy, in columns at various points. The army of Bonaparte was now in 3 diviſions. Joubert, with the left wing, advanced along the courſe of the Adige into Tyrol, and was ordered to croſs over from thence, and to deſcend along the valley of the Drave, which is beyond the higheſt chain of the *Noric Alps*. Maſſena, with the centre, after croſſing the Tagliamento, advanced into the defiles of theſe mountains; while the right diviſion, under Bonaparte, proceeded along the coaſt of the Adriatic. After forcing the paſſage of the Tagliamento on the 19th, the French defeated the Auſtrians on the oppoſite bank, and compelled them to retreat. The other rivers were eaſily paſſed: and on the 19th, the town of Gradiſca, on the Liſonſo, ſurrendered to the right wing of the army, with a garriſon of 3000 men. On the 21ſt Goritz was entered by the ſame diviſion, who found there the the principal Auſtrian magazines and hoſpitals. Trieſte was entered on the 23d; and the French ſent off in waggons, from the quickſilver mines of Ydria, materials worth 2,000,000 of livres. The Auſtrians, in their haſty retreat, entangled themſelves and their baggage among the mountains. On the 24th, a large body of them was hemmed in between Maſſena, who had reached Tarvis, and the French right wing under Guieux. Reinforcements, however, having reached them from the Archduke's head quarters at Clagenfurt, they hazarded an engagement on the 25th, but were defeated, with the loſs of 5000 priſoners, and 400 waggons with baggage. The French left wing under Joubert, Baraguay D'Hilliers, and Delmas, was equally ſucceſsful. On the banks of the Lavis, after an obſtinate engagement, 4000 Auſtrians were taken; and at Clauzen they were again defeated, with the loſs of 1500 priſoners. Having entered Brixen, this diviſion turned E. towards Clagenfurt, where it was met by Gen. Maſſena; the Archduke, after a ſlight conteſt, having evacuated the place, and advanced farther towards Vienna, in which great conſternation prevailed. In 15 days Bonaparte had taken 20,000 priſoners, and croſſed the Alps; and there was no fortified place capable of reſiſting

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his progress towards Vienna. The Austrian chiefs made a last effort, by raising the peasants of the Tyrol in a mass to embarrass the rear of the French. They accordingly gained some successes under Gen. Laudohn, and drove out the French troops that had been left at Botzen and Brixen. The inhabitants of the Venetian states also rose against the troops that remained in their country; and being joined by ten regiments of Sclavonians, which had been in the pay of Venice, they put the French to death wherever they were found, without excepting the sick in the hospitals, of whom 500 were massacred at Verona. A party of Imperialists also drove the French garrison out of Trieste, and thus attempted to surround the invading army. Bonaparte's army amounted to 95,000 men. It had hitherto proved irresistible; and the Austrians knew, that to surround was not to conquer it. He therefore persisted in advancing. On the 2d of April 1797, he forced the strong defiles between Freisach and Newmark, after a bloody battle, in which he took 600 prisoners. On the 4th, his advanced guard reached Hunsmark, where the Austrians were again defeated; and his army occupied Kintenfeld, Murau, and Judenbourg. These advantages compelled the Austrian cabinet to treat for peace, as there was no longer any point at which the Archduke's army could hope to make a stand, till it came to the mountains in the vicinity of Vienna. Generals Bellegarde and Morveld were sent to request from Bonaparte a suspension of hostilities. On being suffered to take possession of Gratz and Leoben, within 50 miles of Vienna, he consented, on the 7th of April, to an armistice. It was followed on the 19th by a preliminary treaty, signed at Leoben; by which it was agreed that the Austrian Netherlands should belong to France, and that the new republic in Lombardy should continue under the name of the CISALPINE REPUBLIC. (See that article.) Bonaparte agreed to withdraw into Italy, on receiving subsistence for his army during its march; and it was resolved, that all farther disputes should be afterwards settled by a definitive treaty of peace. On his return he accused the Venetian government of connivance at the insurrection which had taken place against the French in his absence; and having seized their city and whole territory, he dissolved that ancient and singular, but now feeble, aristocracy. While Bonaparte was advancing towards Vienna, the French armies on the Rhine had begun to press upon the Austrians. The Austrians offered an armistice; but as the French demanded the fortress of Ehrenbreitstein as the price of it, both parties prepared for action. The left wing of the army of Gen. Hoche advanced rapidly from Dusseldorf, while the centre and right wing crossed the Rhine near Coblentz. The Austrians under Gen. Wernecht retreated to the Lahn, where they waited the arrival of the French. Here a violent contest ensued on the 18th of April, in which 400 Austrians were taken prisoners. The French took possession of Wetzlaer, and drove their antagonists to the gates of Francfort. In the mean time, Gen. Moreau forced the passage of the river near Strasburg, and attacked the village of Diersheim, of which he retained possession, after having been more than once driven out, and the village nearly destroyed. The following day, however, the Austrians renewed the attack, and forced the French to give way; but powerful reinforcements having crossed the river, the French were at last enabled to renew the battle with such vigour, that they took fort KEHL, with 5000 prisoners. The Imperialists in this quarter were now pursued towards the Danube; when all military operations were suddenly arrested by messengers from the Archduke Charles and Bonaparte, announcing that peace was concluded. These messengers found the army of Hoche violently attacking Francfort on the Maine, which Gen. Wernecht was endeavouring to defend. The contending troops, throwing aside their weapons, congratulated each other upon the event.

(30.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE TREATY OF CAMPO FORMIO. France now held a very elevated rank, and a formidable character, among the nations of Europe. Spain, Italy, and Holland, were held in dependence; while her victorious armies had compelled the last continental member of the coalition to accept of peace from an army that approached his capital. Had the Austrian officers been faithful, and the court of Vienna less selfish, subsequent events have shewn that the affairs of the Emperor were not yet desperate, and that Bonaparte was not that invincible hero, which his rapid successes gave reason to suppose him. After the perusal of his letters from Egypt, his victories lose much of their brilliancy; nor does any action, or all the actions of his life, display such military skill, as the the retreat of Moreau through Swabia, when pressed on the rear by a victorious army, and surrounded on all hands by an incensed populace. But Bonaparte had been successful, and the court of Vienna was bribed to make a peace. Of all the enemies of the French revolution, Britain alone remained in hostility. From her command of the ocean she was enabled indeed to retain Portugal, attached to her cause; but on land, such was the terrible energy of France, that, with this exception, the British trading vessels were excluded, by her influence, from the continent, from the Elbe to the Adriatic; and the British government was once more induced, in these circumstances, to try the effect of a new negociation. All these external advantages, however, were speedily lost by the French nation; and it seemed the unhappy destiny of this people to be constantly deprived of the fruits of all their sufferings, and their courage by the turbulence of their domestic factions, and the profligacy and unprincipled conduct of their rulers. A serious contest between the executive power and the legislature was now approaching. The Directory was originally selected by those men who had been the associates of Robespierre; and though deserted of late by some of the more violent spirits, who were termed *Anarchists*, it was still considered as the head of the Mountain party. By the victory obtained over the sections of Paris on the 5th Oct. all opposition had been set at defiance; but the nation had never been reconciled to these men. The period now arrived when a third of the legislative body was to be changed.

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On the 19th of May, Letourneur went out of the directory by lot. On the 20th, the new third took their ſeats in the Councils, a third of their predeceſſors having evacuated their ſeats by lot; and on the following day, Barthelemy, the ambaſſador to Switzerland, was choſen to ſucceed Letourneur in the Directory. The election of the members of the new third had almoſt entirely fallen upon men, who were underſtood to be hoſtile to the Directory. Many generals out of employment were choſen; ſuch as Pichegru, Jourdan, and Willot, and many repreſentatives of the families of the ancient nobility who had not emigrated (among whom was the prince of Conti) were now elected into the legiſlature. The moderate or oppoſition party in the two Councils now poſſeſſed a complete majority. Carnot and Barthelemy were underſtood to be favourable to them in the Directory; the former having made his peace with them, and the latter being eſtabliſhed by themſelves. The effect of this change in the ſtate of the Councils ſpeedily appeared in their adopting every meaſure that could embarraſs the Directory, or caſt odium upon the Mountain party, and alter the ſtate of things which it had eſtabliſhed. On the 14th of June, Gilbert Deſmolieres brought forward a report from a committee upon the ſtate of the finances; in which he exhibited and reprobated in the ſtrongeſt terms the prodigality of the Directory, and the profuſion and rapacity of its agents. On the 18th the ſame committee propoſed a new plan of finance, the object of which was to deprive the Directory of any ſhare in the adminiſtration of the public money. On the 17th Camille Jourdan had preſented a long report on the ſubject of religion; in which he endeavoured to demonſtrate the impropriety of prohibiting the public diſplay of its ceremonies, and the injuſtice of the perſecution which its miniſters had undergone, for refuſing to take the oaths preſcribed by the legiſlature. This report was afterwards, on the 25th of July, followed up in the Council of Five Hundred, by a decree, repealing all the laws againſt refractory prieſts, or which aſſimilated them to emigrants. On the 16th another decree, requiring from them a declaration of fidelity to the conſtitution, was only carried by a majority of 210 againſt 204. A propoſal was now brought forward in the Council of Five Hundred by Emery, a new member, to repeal the laws which confiſcated the property of emigrants, and to allow their relations to ſucceed to them, as if they had died at the time of their emigration. Thoſe who had fled into foreign countries from Toulon and other places, during the reign of terror, were alſo encouraged to return, and allowed to expect that their names ſhould be erazed from the liſt of emigrants. The conduct of the Directory towards foreign powers had attacked on different occaſions; and Dubois Dubois had propoſed the appointment of a committee, to enquire into the external relations of the republic. This was a delicate ſubject; as it involved the character of the armies and their leaders, and as it might ſubvert the intereſts of the Directory with ſome of their friends of the Mountain party. The Venetian republic had been overturned by Bonaparte on account of a popular inſurrection. Little account had been given of the immenſe ſums of money that had been levied in Italy. The armies in the preceding year had entered Germany in the character of *plunderers*; which had diſguſted all thoſe in that country, who had once been friendly to their cauſe. The Directory, at the ſame time, inſtead of encouraging the progreſs of revolution, which the Jacobins eagerly deſired, had ſuddenly made peace with the German princes, upon receiving pecuniary contributions, which were left to be exacted according to the ancient laws of the different ſtates, (which exempt the nobles and the clergy,) and thus fell heavily upon thoſe very perſons, who had cheriſhed the new republican principles. The diſcuſſion of theſe ſubjects brought the majority of the Directory and of the Councils into a ſtate of complete hoſtility. Both parties reſolved to violate the conſtitution, under the pretence of preſerving it. The one wiſhed to change the Directory before the time preſcribed by law, and the other to deprive of their ſeats a great number of the new legiſlators elected by the people. Barras was the moſt obnoxious of the directors; and an attempt was made to deprive him of his office, upon the footing that he was leſs than 40 years of age. But this was not proved; and the attempt ſerved only ſtill farther to irritate the contending parties, and they began to prepare for more effectual meaſures. Had not force been ſpeedily uſed on the ſide of the Directory, the Councils muſt have prevailed. The majority of the people confided in them. The national purſe was in their hands; and they hoped to ſubdue the Directory, by avoiding to vote the neceſſary ſupplies. They could enact what laws they pleaſed. They had not indeed the command of the armies; but to remedy this, Pichegru, on the 20th July, preſented a plan for reorganizing the national guard, and placing it more at the diſpoſal of the Councils, by depriving the Directory of the nomination of the officers. In the mean time the Directory was not deſtitute of adherents. The reſolutions of the Councils in favour of the prieſts, and the relations of emigrants, looked ſo like a deſertion of former principles, that many expected a counter-revolution. The royaliſts gained courage, and many journals and newſpapers, favourable to their cauſe, were publiſhed. Emigrants obtained paſſports, and haſtened to Paris in hopes of being ſtruck off the liſt. The effect of all this was, that the purchaſers of national property, and all who had become rich by the revolution, were alarmed. The whole Mountain party, and all who had been active in oppoſition to royalty, rallied round the Directory. The armies, whoſe chiefs were involved in ſome of the accuſations, ſent addreſſes, in which they declared their reſolution to ſupport its power. The Councils declared theſe addreſſes from *armed bodies*, unconſtitutional, and procured counter addreſſes. At laſt the partizans of the two contending powers began to diſtinguiſh themſelves in Paris by their dreſs, and every thing preſaged an approaching appeal to force. On the 20th of July the Councils received intelligence, that a diviſion of the army of Gen. Hoche had advanced within a few leagues of Paris; whereas, by the conſtitution, the Directory incurred the penalty of ten years impriſonment, if it authoriſed troops to

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to approach nearer to the residence of the legislative body than 12 leagues, without its own consent. The Directory denied that they had ordered the march, and ascribed it to a mistake of the officer by whom it was conducted. Their explanation was treated with contempt, and much angry debate took place in the Councils concerning it; but the Directory conducted themselves with moderation. Their antagonists acted a very undecided part. They long hoped to gain La Reveillere Lepaux to their side; in which case they would have had a majority in the Directory. At length the Directory procured an address of adherence from the suburb St Antoine, which, in all the tempestuous days of the revolution, had been the rallying point of the Mountain. Encouraged by this they proceeded to immediate action. Gen. Augereau had been sent from Italy to present some Austrian standards to the Directory, and he was employed as their tool. They commanded the garrison of Paris, and they had brought over to their party the soldiers of the guard of the two councils. Before day-break on the morning of the 4th, Augereau surrounded the Thuilleries with troops. The guard of the Councils refused to resist, and their commander, Ramel, was taken prisoner. Having entered the hall, Augereau found Pichegru and other 12 chiefs of the opposite party in consultation, and immediatly sent them prisoners to the Temple, with some other obnoxious members of the Councils. The director Carnot had escaped on the preceding evening, but Barthelemy remained and was imprisoned. All this was accomplished quickly, without noise. Many members of the Councils, when they came to the hall at the usual hour, were suprised to find seals upon the doors, and no admittance. They were invited, however, to the Surgeons Hall and the theatre of the Odeon, where they were told the Directory had appointed the Councils to assemble. At these places, about 40 of the Council of Ancients, and 80 of the other Council, assembled about noon, and sent to demand from the Directory an account of the proceedings of the morning. They received an answer, declaring, that what had been done was necessary to the *salvation* of the Republic, and congratulating the Councils *on their escape* from the machinations of *royalists*. Being still at a loss how to act, the Council of Five Hundred appointed a committee of four members (of whom Sieyes was one) to report upon the measures to be adopted. On the following day Boulay de la Meurthe presented a report from this committee, in which he announced, that a vast royalist conspiracy, whose centre was in the bosom of the Councils, had been formed to overturn the constitution, but that it had been baffled by the wisdom and activity of the Directory. The report concluded, by proposing the immediate transportation of the conspirators, without a trial. Accordingly, these degraded representative bodies proceeded, after some debate, to vote the transportation to Guiana in South America, of 53 of their members, and 12 other persons, among whom were the directors Carnot and Barthelemy. They annulled the elections in 49 departments, repealed the laws lately enacted in favour of the disaffected clergy and the relations of emigrants; and infringed the liberty of the press, by putting all periodical publications under the i spection of the police for one year. New tax were voted without hesitation; Francis de Neu chateau and Merlin were elected to fill the vaca cies in the Directory; and affairs were endeavou ed to be conducted in their ordinary train. All th time the city of Paris remained tranquil. Th turbulent capital, which had made so many sa guinary efforts in favour of freedom, had been completely subdued since its struggle on the 5 Oct. that it now permitted the national represe tation to be violated, and the most obvious ru of practical liberty to be infringed, without an fort in their defence. The Directory attempt to justify their conduct to the nation, by publi ing various documents to prove the existence o royalist conspiracy. The most remarkable of th was a paper, said to be written by M. d'A traigues, and found by Bonaparte at Venice; which a detail was given of a correspondence tween Gen. Pichegru and the Prince of Conde 1795. At the time of its publication, the genui ness of this correspondence, and of the pa found by Bonaparte, was denied; and nothing appeared since to induce an unprejudiced man think them genuine. Moreau, who was certai involved in this conspiracy, if real, was intru after that period with the command of the arm of the republic; and was so far from being c sidered as a royalist, that the revolutionary gove ment intrusted to his military skill and fidelity last efforts for its existence. From this violat of the representative government, it became vious, that France had passed under the domin of a small faction at variance with the majo of the people. The Directory was all power During the contest with the Councils they protracted the negociations with Lord Malm bury at Lisle, and had suffered those to re which had been entered into between Bonap and the Imperial ambassadors at Campo For near Udina. Great Britain had offered to con to peace, on condition of being allowed to re the Dutch settlement of the Cape of Good Ho and the Spanish island of Trinidad, taken in 1797. The Directory now recalled their for negociators Letourneur and Maret, and sent others, Treilhard and Bonnier, in their st who immediately demanded whether Lord Malm bury had full power to restore all the settlem taken from France and her allies during the Upon his Lordship's declining to answer suc question, because it implied an inquiry, not his *powers*, but into his *instructions*, which w preclude all negociation, he was required to turn home to procure more ample powers. negociation with the Emperor was speedily bro to a conclusion. On the 17th Oct. a defin treaty was signed at Campo Formio. By it Emperor gave up the Netherlands to France Milanese to the Cisalpine republic, (See Ci PINE REPUBLIC,) and his territories in the gaw to the Duke of Modena, as an indemn tion for the loss of his duchy in Italy. He consented that the French should possess the netian islands in the Levant, of Corfu, Zante phalonia, Santa Maura, Cerigo, &c. On th ther hand, the French Republic agreed, tha

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Emperor should possess the city of Venice, and its territory, from the extremity of Dalmatia round the Adriatic as far as the Adige and lake Garda. (See MARITIME AUSTRIA.) The Cisalpine Republic was to possess the remaining territory of Venice in this quarter, along with the city and duchy of Mantua, and the ecclesiastical states of Ferrara and Bologna. Upon whatever principles the war might have hitherto been conducted, the terms of this treaty sufficiently demonstrated to all Europe, that its lesser states had no better reason to expect security from the house of Austria, than from the French republic. This truth would have been still more evident, had the articles of a convention, which was signed by these parties at the same period at Campo Formio, been published. By this secret convention it was stipulated, that the Rhine, including the fortress of Mentz, should be the boundary of the French Republic; that the princes, whose territories were alienated by this agreement, should be indemnified by the secularization of church lands in Germany; that the Stadtholder of Holland should be indemnified for the loss of his estates in that country, by receiving German territory; that the Emperor should receive the Archbishopric of Saltzburg, and the part of the circle of Bavaria situated between that archbishopric, the rivers Inn and Saltz, and the Tyrol; that the Imperial troops should immediately withdraw to the confines of the hereditary states beyond Ulm; and if the Germanic body should refuse peace on the above terms, that the Emperor should supply to it no more troops than his contingent as a co-estate amounted to, and that even these should not be employed in any fortified place.

(31.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE VICTORIES OF SIR J. JERVIS OVER THE SPANISH FLEET, AND OF ADM. DUNCAN OVER THE DUTCH. These treaties were immediately begun to be put in execution. The Austrians left the Rhine, which enabled the French to surround the fortresses of Mentz and Ehrenbreitstein. Of the former, they speedily obtained possession: but the latter cost them a very tedious blockade. (See EHRENBREITSTEIN.) The Imperial troops entered Venice; the French having evacuated that city after carrying off or destroying its navy. The Cisalpine Republic was established, and Bonaparte left Italy; leaving, however, an army of 25,000 men to garrison Mantua, Brescia, Milan, and other places, and to retain this new republic in dependence upon France. Genoa was, at the same time, brought under a similar dependence by means of popular commotions, instigated by the French, and a revolution in its government took place at this period. (See LIGURIAN REPUBLIC.) And thus the French Directory, without the excuse of hostility, began a system of interference in the affairs of weaker neighbouring states, which was speedily carried to an height that were more alarmed all Europe. These men even attempted, at this time, to compel the United States of North America to purchase with money their forbearance from war. This was done through a circuitous channel, by private persons, who were instructed to inform the American ministers at Paris, that a large loan on the part of America would be the best means of securing peace; and it was hinted, that it would be more acceptable, if accompanied with a private present of L. 50,000 sterling to the members of the directory. This last proposal was indeed denied by Talleyrand, who had countenanced this crooked negociation: but the general impression produced by the transaction injured very deeply the character of the French government, in the opinion of those nations that were otherwise disposed to regard it in the most favourable light. Nor was its respectability increased by a law which the two Councils, at the desire of the Directory, enacted, declaring the ships of all neutral states bound for Britain, or returning thence, liable to capture. This law was not less impolitic than unjust. It placed the whole carrying trade of the western world in the hands of the British, and thus enriched the very people whom it was intended to injure. For at this period Britain had acquired over the ocean a degree of uncontrouled dominion, that was altogether unexampled. During the whole year 1797, the French fleet lay blockaded in its own ports, and no enterprise was attempted by sea, excepting in one solitary but singular instance. We have mentioned (§ 28,) that 1200 galley slaves were sent as soldiers with Hoche in his attempt upon Ireland. On the failure of that expedition, the Directory were at a loss how to dispose of these men. They could not now with propriety be sent back to punishment; the troops would not serve along with them in the army; and as the new laws of France allowed no remission of crimes, they could not receive a pardon, nor was it safe to let loose upon the country 1200 criminals. In this dilemma, the Directory resolved to throw them into England. Accordingly, they were sent in two frigates and some small vessels to the coast of Wales, and there landed with muskets and ammunition, but without artillery. In the evening on which they landed, (23d Feb.) they surrendered to a party of militia, under Lord Cawdor. The Directory boasted that, by this enterprise, they had demonstrated the possibility of landing troops on the British coast, in spite of the vigilance of the navy; but this assertion was ill supported by the fate of the two frigates accompanying the expedition; both being captured in attempting to return to Brest. Though the French navy remained in port, during the rest of the year, their allies, the Spaniards and Dutch, suffered severely. On the 14th Feb. a British fleet of 15 sail of the line, under Sir John Jervis, engaged the Spanish fleet, amounting to 27 sail of the line, off Cape St Vincent. In this action, the Spanish force, in the number of men, guns, and weight of metal, was more than double that of the British; but by the skilful manœuvres of its heroic commander, the British fleet twice crossed through the line of the Spaniards, and succeeded in cutting off a part of their fleet from the rest. Four ships of the line were taken, and the Spanish admiral's ship escaped with difficulty. The fleet had been on its way to Brest to join the French fleet there; but in consequence of this action, it returned to Cadiz, where it was blockaded by the British. For his gallant conduct in this engagement, which is perhaps unparalleled in the annals of naval war, Sir John

Jervis

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Jervis was created *Earl St Vincent*, and received the thanks of Parliament. The Dutch were ſtill more unfortunate. The Texel, within which their fleet lay, was blockaded during the whole ſummer by Adm. Duncan. The French intended, by means of the Dutch fleet, to make another attempt upon Ireland. Troops were accordingly embarked, under Gen. Daendels; but a reſolution having been adopted of hazarding an engagement with the Britiſh, the Dutch admiral De Winter, in oppoſition to his own remonſtrances, was ordered to put to ſea. The Britiſh admiral had left his ſtation near the Texel, and gone to Yarmouth to refit. On receiving intelligence, however, that the Dutch had ſailed, he inſtantly proceeded in queſt of them. On the 11th Oct. the Britiſh fleet, amounting to 16 ſail of the line, and 3 frigates, came in ſight of the Dutch fleet, which in force was nearly equal, within about 9 miles of Camperdown in Holland. Adm. Duncan immediately ran his fleet through the Dutch line, and, though on a lee ſhore, began the engagement between them and their own coaſt. A moſt bloody and obſtinate conflict enſued, which laſted nearly three hours, when almoſt the whole Dutch fleet had ſtruck. The ſhips could not all be approached and ſeized, however, on account of the ſhallowneſs of the water upon the coaſt, to which the fleets were now very near. Eight ſhips of the line, with two of 56 guns, and one of 44, were taken, beſides a frigate, which was afterwards loſt near the Britiſh coaſt, and one of the ſhips of 56 guns foundered at ſea. Adm. de Winter was taken with his ſhip, and the Vice-admiral, Rentjies. Similar honours were conferred upon Adm. Duncan as upon Sir John Jervis, and both had each a well merited penſion of L. 2000 a-year for life.

(32.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE ERECTION OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC. The internal hiſtory of France now ceaſed to be intereſting. Political freedom could not be ſaid to exiſt after ſo many of the repreſentatives choſen by the people had been driven from the legiſlature, and the departments reduced to the neceſſity of electing men more acceptable to their rulers. Public ſpirit therefore rapidly declined. The high notions of the freedom and felicity it was about to enjoy, which had once been ſo eagerly cheriſhed by a great part of the nation, now gave way to indifference about political queſtions, and the future deſtiny of the republic; for the people at large found themſelves little intereſted in a government which exiſted independent of their will, which conſiſted of a narrow circle of perſons, and whoſe conduct was not leſs crooked, intriguing, and unprincipled, than that of the ancient royalty, and its court, from which they had eſcaped; whilſt its ferocious cruelty, and total diſregard even of the forms of juſtice, were immenſely greater. But though the Directory was all-powerful, yet its power was limited by the ſtate of things, which denied it the poſſeſſion of an abundant revenue. It had not yet been found poſſible to re-eſtabliſh a ſyſtem of productive taxation. The legiſlative Councils, indeed, who now complied with every wiſh of the Directory, voted abundance of taxes: but theſe were ſcantily paid; partly on account of the loſs of the national commerce, and partly becauſe the people were no diſpoſed to make great exertions for the ſuppor of government. By the conſtitution, they ſti poſſeſſed the election of the judges and other ma giſtrates; the country was filled with veteran ſo diers, who at different times had returned fro the armies after the uſual period of ſervice. Th Directory, kept in awe by theſe circumſtance turned its attention abroad, and found means t eſtabliſh an extenſive patronage, by dividing mong its adherents the plunder of neighbourin ſtates, in whoſe welfare the people of France we little intereſted. The Girondiſt party had forme ly propoſed to propagate their principles by eſt bliſhing a number of petty republics in the vicin ty of France. The Directory now adopted th ſame plan, that, under the pretence of diffuſio liberty, they might obtain new ſources of revenu and of power, by dominion over theſe new repu lics. Holland and the Ciſalpine republic were a ready placed in dependence upon them; an Rome and Switzerland afforded them opportun ties for extending their plan. After the treat with the Emperor had been concluded at Camp Formio, Joſeph Bonaparte, brother of the Gen ral, had entered Rome as ambaſſador from th French Republic. The Pope, now deprived all hope of foreign aid, and accuſtomed to hum liations, had ſubmitted to every demand made b him for reducing the number of his troops, an ſetting at liberty perſons impriſoned on accou of political opinions. But an event ſoon occurre to afford the Directory a pretence for accompliſ ing the ruin of this decayed government. On th 26th Dec. 1799, three perſons had waited upo the French ambaſſador, and ſolicited the protec tion of his government to a revolution which party at Rome meant to accompliſh. He rejecte their propoſals, and diſſuaded them from the a tempt; but did not communicate theſe propoſa to the papal government, to which he was ſen on a friendly embaſſy. On the following da however, a tumult took place, in which th French cockade was worn by about 100 inſu gents. They were ſpeedily diſperſed, but two the Pope's dragoons were killed. The ambaſſa dor, reſolved that his own perſonal conduc ſhould be blameleſs, went on the 28th Dec. to th ſecretary of ſtate, and preſented a liſt of the pe ſons under his protection, who were entitled t wear the French cockade, conſenting that all o thers adopting it ſhould be puniſhed. He alſ agreed to ſurrender ſix of the inſurgents wh had taken refuge in his palace. Towards evening however, the popular tumult became more ſeri ous, particularly in the courts and neighbourhoo of the French miniſter's palace. The governo of the city ſent parties of cavalry and infantry t diſperſe the inſurgents. About 20 perſons, ha ving a Frenchman at their head, had, in the mea time, ruſhed into the palace, and demanded ai towards accompliſhing a revolution. A numbe of French officers, and others who were with th ambaſſador, propoſed to drive the whole inſur gents by force from the juriſdiction of the palace This was certainly a ſalutary advice, and ſuch a could not have been rejected by the ambaſſador had not his deſigns been hoſtile to the eſtabliſhed government.

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government. Rejected, however, it was; for, pretending to believe that his authority would be ſufficient to accompliſh the object in a peaceable manner, he went out into the court to addreſs the multitude. He was prevented from doing ſo by a diſcharge of muſquetry from the military, who were firing within the juriſdiction of the palace. He interpoſed with his friends between the military and the inſurgents; and while a part of the French officers in his train drove back the inſurgents with their ſabres, the ambaſſador advanced towards the ſoldiers, and demanded why they preſumed to violate his juriſdiction? No attention was paid to this arrogant and abſurd demand; and the nature of the ground being ſuch, that the troops could fire over his head upon the multitude in the rear, they made a ſecond diſcharge, which killed ſeveral of the inſurgents. Upon this the ambaſſador advanced cloſe upon the ſoldiers, to prevail with them to depart; but they remained in a menacing attitude, and prepared for another diſcharge. Eager to prevent this, the French General Duphot, who was with the ambaſſador, and was next day to have married his ſiſter, ruſhed into the ranks of the military, intreating them to deſiſt. Here a petty officer of the Pope's troops diſcharged his muſket into the body of Duphot. Upon this, the ambaſſador and his other friends made their eſcape through a bye-way into the palace. The Spaniſh miniſter hearing of this event, ſent to the ſecretary of ſtate to proteſt againſt this violation of the privileges of ambaſſadors. But the government, equally alarmed and perplexed by the fear of a revolution, and of French vengeance, remained during many hours totally inactive. All this while the palace of the French ambaſſador remained cloſely beſet by the military, who occupied the whole of its juriſdiction, and all its courts and paſſages. He at laſt ſent to demand paſſports, to enable him to leave the territories of the Pope. They were granted; but with many proteſtations of the innocence of the government, and its regret on account of this unfortunate occurrence. Joſeph Bonaparte retired to Florence, and thence to Paris. The Pope ſolicited the protection of the courts of Vienna, Naples, Tuſcany, and Spain; but they all ſtood aloof from his misfortunes: and this government, which had once poſſeſſed the moſt uncontrouled dominion over all Europe, now fell without a ſtruggle. Gen. Berthier, at the head of a body of French and Ciſalpine troops, encountered no oppoſition in his march to Rome, where he overturned the government of the Pope, and proclaimed the ſovereignty of the Roman people, with circumſtances of wanton inſult; which convey a ſtriking example of French humanity and French delicacy. The Roman ſtates were converted into a republic after the French model; excepting that the ancient appellations, of *conſuls*, *ſenators*, and *tribunes*, were adopted, inſtead of the new names of a *Directory* and *two Councils*. See CONSUL, § 4. But this oſtentatious grant of freedom was rendered completely illuſory, by a condition annexed to it, that for ten years the French General ſhould poſſeſs a negative upon all laws and public acts. At firſt, however, the conquerors took care to place the government in the hands of the moſt reſpectable perſons in the ſtate favourable to democracy. But theſe men finding that they were merely to be employed as tools to plunder their fellow-citizens, for the emolument of their northern maſters, ſoon renounced their odious dignities, and were ſucceeded by men of more compliant characters, and leſs ſcrupulous integrity. The whole public property was ſeized by the invaders, and contributions were levied without end. The property of the cardinals and others who fled was confiſcated, and thoſe members of the ſacred college who remained were thrown into priſons, from which they could only eſcape by purchaſing their freedom at a high price. When this was done, and generals and commiſſaries had glutted themſelves with wealth, quarrelled about a *juſt* diviſion of the ſpoil, mutinied, and diſperſed, other unpaid, unclothed, unproviſioned armies from the north, with new appointments, ſucceeded; and when at length, even by theſe *conſtitutional* means, nothing more was to be obtained, and artifices had exhauſted every reſource, the maſk was put under the feet that had been long held in the hand: liberty was declared dangerous to the ſafety of the republic, the conſtituted authorities incapable of managing the affairs of the ſtate, and military law the only rational expedient to ſupply their place. Thus at once the mockery of conſular dignity was put an end to, the ſenators ſent home to take care of their families, and the tribunes to blend with the people whom they before repreſented. This new and preferable ſyſtem began its operations with nothing leſs important for the general welfare, than ſeizing the whole annual revenue of every eſtate productive of more than 10,000 crowns; two 3ds of every ſtate that produced more than five, but leſs than ten; and one half of every inferior annual income. The moſt remarkable curioſities of this celebrated city had already been ſent to Paris; and as *national vanity* had now given place to *avarice* in the minds of the Directory, the remaining monuments of ancient or of modern art, with which Rome abounded, were ſold by public auction. Advertiſements were ſent through Europe, offering paſſports to the natives of countries at war with France, if they ſhould wiſh to become purchaſers; (See *Nicholſon's Journ. of Philoſ. May*, 1798.) and thus the wealthier inhabitants of the Roman territory not only ſaw themſelves ſubjected to ſevere exactions, but they beheld with cruel mortification thoſe objects now given up a prey to vulgar ſpeculation, and diſperſed over the world, which had ſo long rendered their city the reſort of all nations. Such was the progreſſive conduct of the *Great Nation* towards an injured and oppreſſed people, whoſe *happineſs*, *intereſts*, *freedom* and *liberty*, the French pretended, were their only objects.

(33.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE INSURRECTION IN THE PAYS DE VAUD, AND INVASION OF SWITZERLAND. More ſanguinary ſcenes were, in the meanwhile, taking place in Switzerland. That country had remained neutral during the conteſt in which France had lately been engaged; and had thus protected the weakeſt portion of her frontier, while the reſt of it was aſſailed by the combined

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forces of Europe. The merit of this ſervice was now forgotten, and the Directory reſolved to render Switzerland one of their tributary ſtates. The wealthier branches of the Swiſs confederacy were in general governed by hereditary ariſtocracies. Some of the cantons had no government within themſelves, but were the ſubjects of neighbouring cantons. In conſequence of this circumſtance, and of the contending privileges of different orders of men, popular inſurrections were more frequent in Switzerland than in any country in Europe, though none was more equitably governed. When an inſurrection took place in one canton, its government was frequently under the neceſſity of ſoliciting the aid of the government of an adjoining canton, or even of the neighbouring monarchs of France or Sardinia, to enable it to ſubdue its own rebellious ſubjects. A dangerous precedent was thus eſtabliſhed; and as the French kings had formerly interfered in favour of the rulers, the republican Directory now interfered in favour of the ſubjects. The canton of Berne was ſovereign of the territory called the PAYS DE VAUD. In this diſtrict diſcontents had always exiſted; and an inſurrection, under the countenance of the French Directory, broke out towards the end of 1797. The government of Berne ſaw the danger of its ſituation; and on the 5th of Jan. 1798, iſſued a proclamation, commanding the inhabitants of the Pays de Vaud to aſſemble in arms, to renew their oath of allegiance, and to reform every abuſe that exiſted in their government. A commiſſion was alſo appointed by the Senate at Berne to examine all complaints, and to redreſs all grievances. The proceedings of this commiſſion, however, did not keep pace with the popular impatience; and the inſurgents began to ſeize the ſtrong places in their country. The government of Berne now reſolved to reduce them by force, and ſent troops againſt them; but their commander Weiſs appears to have acted with much heſitation, if not with treachery. In the mean time, a body of French approached under Gen. Menard. He ſent an aide de camp with two huſſars, with a meſſage to Gen. Weiſs. On the return of the meſſengers, an affray took place, in which one of the huſſars was killed. This was magnified into an atrocious breach of the law of nations. The French advanced; and by the end of January obtained poſſeſſion of the whole Pays de Vaud. Still, however, the government of Berne attempted to preſerve peace, while it endeavoured to prepare for war. The ſoldiers who had killed the French huſſar were delivered up, negociations were begun, and a truce entered into with Gen. Brune, who ſucceeded Menard in the command of the French troops in the Pays de Vaud. As internal commotions were breaking out in all quarters, an attempt was made to quiet the minds of the people, that they might be induced to unite againſt the threatened invaſion. Fifty two deputies from the different diſtricts were allowed to ſit in the Supreme Council of Berne, and a ſimilar meaſure was adopted by the cantons of Zurich, Lucerne, Fribourg, Soleure, and Schaffhauſen. An army of 20,000 men was at the ſame time aſſembled, and intruſted to M. d'Erlach, formerly field-marſhal in the French ſervice. But diſaffection greatly prevailed in this army, and the people could not be brought to any tolerable degree of union. The French knew all this, and demanded a total change of government. M. d'Erlach, dreading the increaſing tendency to defection among his troops, requeſted leave to diſſolve the armiſtice. It was granted by the government and immediately recalled. But the French now refuſed to negociate; and on the 2d of March Gen. Schawenberg, at the head of 13,000 men entered Soleure. Fribourg was afterwards reduced by Brune, and the Swiſs army retreated. The government of Berne was in conſternation, and decreed what was called the *landſthurm*, or riſing of the people; which, in caſes of emergency was authoriſed by their ancient cuſtoms. The people accordingly aſſembled; and their firſt act was to diſſolve the government, and to offer to diſmiſs the army, on condition that the French troops ſhould proceed no farther. This offer was refuſed, unleſs a French garriſon ſhould be received into Berne, and the invaders continued to advance. The regular troops under M. d'Erlach were reduced by deſertion to 14,000. The riſing of the people had indeed ſupplied him with numbers, but there was no time for arranging them. On the 5th of March he was attacked, and driven from the poſts of Newenberg and Favenbrun. He rallied his troops, however, at Uteren, where they made a ſtand for ſome time. They renewed the conteſt at Grauholtz without ſucceſs, and were driven from thence about 4 miles farther to the gates of their capital. Here the Swiſs army made a laſt and bloody effort. Being completely routed, they murdered many of their officers in deſpair, and among others their commander M. d'Erlach. The ſlaughter on both ſides is ſaid to have been nearly equal; but the French obtained poſſeſſion of Berne by capitulation on the evening of the day on which theſe battles were fought. The other more wealthy and populous ſtates ſoon ſubmitted to the French; but the poorer cantons, who had leaſt to loſe, made a terrible effort in defence of their ſmall poſſeſſions, and the independence of their country. They even at firſt compelled Schawenberg to retire with the loſs of 3000 men; but were at laſt overpowered by the ſuperior numbers and military ſkill of the French army. Switzerland was treated as a conquered country. Its public magazines were ſeized by the French, heavy contributions were levied, and a new conſtitution, in imitation of that of France, was impoſed. See HELVETIC REPUBLIC.

(34.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE INVASION AND CONQUEST OF MALTA. While the Directory continued to encroach upon the independence of other nations they were not likely to reſpect the freedom of their countrymen at home. In April, 1798, a third of the legiſlature was changed. Francis de Neufchateau went out of the Directory by ballot, and Treilhard was choſen in his ſtead. The Directory had made great efforts to influence the election in favour of their friends, but with little ſucceſs. They prepared therefore to preſerve the legiſlature in ſubjection to them by a new violation of the conſtitution. On the 2d of May they complain-

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ported to the Council of Five Hundred of the ...ew of anarchists and royalists; by which they argued that the elections had in many places been made to fall on men hostile to the Republic. On the 7th a committee made a report upon this message, and proposed that the proceedings of many electoral assemblies should be totally or partially annulled, according to the characters of the persons they had chosen. Gen. Jourdan, and some others, ventured to oppose this plan, as proceeding upon alleged intrigues of conspirators against the Republic, while no conspiracy had been proved to exist. But the majority agreed to the proposal of the committee, and arbitrarily annulled the whole elections in 6 or 7 departments, besides the particular elections of a great number of individuals. The Directory now carried into effect the grand plan of all their projects, that of sending a powerful army to the east to seize upon Egypt, in order to attack the empire which Britain has erected in India. The treaty with Austria had scarcely been signed at Campo Formio, than the Directory excited the expectation of France and of Europe, by loudly proclaiming their determination to invade Great Britain. They sent troops into their own western departments, called the *Army of England*, and appointed Bonaparte their commander in chief, who had resided during the winter at Paris. Here he seems to have endeavoured to guard against the jealousy of government, and the envy of individuals, by passing much of his time in retirement, and assuming the character of a man of letters. He procured himself to be elected a member of the National Institute; but seldom did he appear in it, that when he attended some of its public sittings, his person was hardly unknown to the members. Greedy of fame, he never failed, when called into military service, to add to his name at all proclamations and dispatches, the designation of *Member of the National Institute*. Whether the expedition to Egypt was suggested by Bonaparte himself, or whether it was not a snare, by which the Directory, impressed upon the vanity of an enterprising young man, to enable them to get quit of him and his victorious army, is not known. It is possible, that Bonaparte might neither be the projector nor the unconscious victim of this plan; but that he took account himself more safe at the head of victorious troops, upon the most hazardous expedition abroad, than exposed at home to the malice of a government that had become jealous of his reputation, and was by no means scrupulous in its conduct. The projected invasion of Egypt was conducted with much secrecy. The world was filled with tales of *monstrous rafts* to be constructed to convey the army of England over into Britain. To favour the deception, Bonaparte made a journey to the W. coast. In the mean time the fleet was preparing at Toulon, and troops assembling near it. When all was in readiness, Bonaparte embarked with 40,000 of the brave veterans, who had fought in Italy. On the 9th of June he arrived at the island of Malta; quarrelled with the Grandmaster, because he refused to admit so large a fleet all at once into his ports to water; landed his troops in different quarters, and endeavoured to reduce the island. The knights were divided into factions. Many of them were of the order of ILLUMINATI, and of course prepared to act the part of traitors. After a very feeble resistance, the Grand Master proposed a capitulation; and thus was treacherously surrendered, in a few days, a fortress which, if defended by faithful troops, might have held out for as many weeks against all the forces of the French Republic. Bonaparte, after leaving a garrison of 4000 men in the island, sailed on the 21st June for Alexandria.

(35.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE INVASION OF EGYPT, AND DEFEAT OF THE FRENCH FLEET. In the mean time, Rear-admiral Nelson, who had signalized himself in a very high degree under Lord St Vincent, had been dispatched in quest of him from the British fleet, which still blockaded Cadiz. Ignorant of the destination of the French, the British admiral sailed first to Naples; and having there been informed of the attack upon Malta, he directed his course to that island. By the time he arrived there, however, Bonaparte had departed. Conjecturing now that Alexandria might be the destination of the French troops, he sailed thither; but they had not been seen in that quarter, and he therefore went eagerly in search of them to other parts of the Mediterranean. Bonaparte, in the mean while, instead of steering in a direct line for Alexandria, had proceeded slowly, with his immense train of nearly 400 transports, along the coast of Greece, till he arrived at the eastern extremity of the island of Candia. Here he suddenly turned southward; and in consequence of his circuitous course, did not arrive at the coast of Egypt till Admiral Nelson's fleet had left it. He landed his troops; and on the 5th of July, 1798, took by storm the city of Alexandria. The inhabitants defended themselves very desperately, but without skill; and for some time a scene of barbarous pillage and massacre ensued. The transports that had conveyed the army were now placed within the inner harbour of Alexandria, and the ships of war under Admiral Brueys cast anchor in a line close along the shore of the Bay of Aboukir. The army proceeded to the Nile, and ascended along the banks of that river, suffering great hardships from the heat of the climate. They were met and encountered by the Mamelukes, but these barbarians could not resist the art and order of European war. Cairo was taken on the 23d July. On the 25th another battle was fought; and on the 26th the Mamelukes made a last effort in the neighbourhood of the celebrated pyramids for the preservation of their empire: 2000 of them were killed on this occasion, 400 camels laden with their baggage were taken, along with 50 pieces of cannon. (See EGYPT, § 21.) A provisional government was now established in Egypt. Proclamations were issued in the Arabian tongue, declaring that the French were friendly to the religion of Mahomet, that they acknowledged the authority of the Grand Signior, and had only come to punish the crimes committed by the Mamelukes against their countrymen trading to Egypt. But on the 1st of August the British fleet appeared at the mouth of the Nile; and the situation of the French fleet having

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forces of Europe. The merit of this ſervice was now forgotten, and the Directory reſolved to render Switzerland one of their tributary ſtates. The wealthier branches of the Swiſs confederacy were in general governed by hereditary ariſtocracies. Some of the cantons had no government within themſelves, but were the ſubjects of neighbouring cantons. In conſequence of this circumſtance, and of the contending privileges of different orders of men, popular inſurrections were more frequent in Switzerland than in any country in Europe, though none was more equitably governed. When an inſurrection took place in one canton, its government was frequently under the neceſſity of ſoliciting the aid of the government of an adjoining canton, or even of the neighbouring monarchs of France or Sardinia, to enable it to ſubdue its own rebellious ſubjects. A dangerous precedent was thus eſtabliſhed; and as the French kings had formerly interfered in favour of the rulers, the republican Directory now interfered in favour of the ſubjects. The canton of Berne was ſovereign of the territory called the PAYS DE VAUD. In this diſtrict diſcontents had always exiſted; and an inſurrection, under the countenance of the French Directory, broke out towards the end of 1797. The government of Berne ſaw the danger of its ſituation; and on the 5th of Jan. 1798, iſſued a proclamation, commanding the inhabitants of the Pays de Vaud to aſſemble in arms, to renew their oath of allegiance, and to reform every abuſe that exiſted in their government. A commiſſion was alſo appointed by the Senate at Berne to examine all complaints, and to redreſs all grievances. The proceedings of this commiſſion, however, did not keep pace with the popular impatience; and the inſurgents began to ſeize the ſtrong places in their country. The government of Berne now reſolved to reduce them by force, and ſent troops againſt them; but their commander Weiſs appears to have acted with much heſitation, if not with treachery. In the mean time, a body of French approached under Gen. Menard. He ſent an aide de camp with two huſſars, with a meſſage to Gen. Weiſs. On the return of the meſſengers, an affray took place, in which one of the huſſars was killed. This was magnified into an atrocious breach of the law of nations. The French advanced; and by the end of January obtained poſſeſſion of the whole Pays de Vaud. Still, however, the government of Berne attempted to preſerve peace, while it endeavoured to prepare for war. The ſoldiers who had killed the French huſſar were delivered up, negociations were begun, and a truce co[ncluded] to with Gen. Brune, who ſucceeded [Erlach in] the command of the French troops i[n] Vaud. As internal commotions [broke] out in all quarters, an attempt wa[s made] the minds of the people, that th[ey] ced to unite againſt the threaten[ing] two deputies from the differe[nt] lowed to ſit in the Supreme C[ouncil]. a ſimilar meaſure was adopt[ed] Zurich, Lucerne, Fribour[g] hauſen. An army of 20,[000] time aſſembled, and [was] formerly field-marſh[al]

diſaffection greatly prevailed in this army, and t people could not be brought to any tolerable d gree of union. The French knew all this, a demanded a total change of government. M. d'E lach, dreading the increaſing tendency to deſ tion among his troops, requeſted leave to diſſo the armiſtice. It was granted by the governme and immediately recalled. But the French n refuſed to negociate; and on the 2d of Mar Gen. Schawenberg, at the head of 13,000 m entered Soleure. Fribourg was afterwards re ced by Brune, and the Swiſs army retreated. T government of Berne was in conſternation, a decreed what was called the *landſturm*, or riſ of the people; which, in caſes of emerge was authoriſed by their ancient cuſtoms. T people accordingly aſſembled; and their firſt was to diſſolve the government, and to offer to miſs the army, on condition that the Fr troops ſhould proceed no farther. This offe refuſed, unleſs a French garriſon ſhould be re ed into Berne, and the invaders continued t vance. The regular troops under M. d'E were reduced by deſertion to 14,000. Th of the people had indeed ſupplied him wit bers, but there was no time for arranging On the 5th of March he was attacked, a ven from the poſts of Newenberg and Fa He rallied his troops, however, at Utere they made a ſtand for ſome time. The the conteſt at Grauholtz without fu were driven from thence about 4 mile the gates of their capital. Here the made a laſt and bloody effort. Bein routed, they murdered many of th deſpair, and among others their c d'Erlach. The ſlaughter on both have been nearly equal; but the F poſſeſſion of Berne by capitulati of the day on which theſe bat The other more wealthy an ſoon ſubmitted to the Fren cantons, who had leaſt to effort in defence of their the independence of their firſt compelled Schawe loſs of 3000 men; but by the ſuperior num French army. Sw quered country. ed by the Fren ed, and a nev of France,

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part of ſuch an enemy, preſſed on towards Naples.
By degrees, Gen. Mack's army being reduced by
the reſult of the battles which it fought, and by
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and arrived at Palermo, in Sicily, on the 27th
Dec. in Lord Nelſon's ſhip. Gen. Mack, in the
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for ſafety, by ſurrendering himſelf, along with the
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governor of Naples offered to the French a con-

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been discovered, Adm. Nelson prepared for an attack. In number of ships the fleets were nearly equal; but in the number of guns and weight of metal the French squadron had the superiority. (See EGYPT, § 34.) It was drawn up, too, in a form which suggested to its commander the idea of its being invincible; but remaining at anchor, the British Admiral was enabled, by running some of his ships between those of the enemy and the shore, to surround and engage one part of their fleet, while the rest remained unemployed and of no service. In executing this plan of attack, a British ship, the Culloden, run aground; but this accident only served as a beacon to warn the others of the spot that ought to be avoided. The battle commenced at sunset, and was continued at intervals till daybreak. At last, 9 sail of the French line were taken; one ship of the line was burnt by her own commander; a frigate was also burnt, to prevent her being taken. The French Admiral's ship L'Orient took fire, and blew up during the action, and only a small number of her crew of 1000 men escaped destruction. Two French ships of the line and two frigates were saved by a timely flight, but were afterwards taken. No naval engagement has in modern times produced such important consequences as this. The unexampled military efforts made by France had gradually dissolved the combination which the princes of Europe formed against her. By the train of victories which Bonaparte had gained, the house of Austria, her most powerful rival, had been humbled and intimidated. The whole continent looked towards the new Republic with consternation; and when the Directory seized upon Rome and Switzerland, none were found hardy enough to interpose in their favour.

(36.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE INVASION OF IRELAND. The current of affairs was now almost instantaneously altered. Europe beheld Bonaparte, with his *invincible* army, exiled from its shores, and shut up in a barbarous country. The enemies of France could not beforehand have conceived the possibility of the event which was now realised; and the hope was naturally excited of being able to form a new and more efficient coalition against a government which had so grossly abused the temporary prosperity it had enjoyed. The northern powers began to listen to the proposals made to them by Great Britain for commencing hostilities anew, and the Italian states prepared to make another effort for independence. The court of Naples in particular openly avowed its joy on account of the recent destruction of the French fleet. The king himself put to sea to meet Adm. Nelson on his return from the Nile. Illuminations took place in the capital, and vigorous preparations were made for war. The Grand Signior, who had possessed of late little authority in Egypt, and might perhaps have been induced to relinquish his claims on that province, rather than engage his decaying empire in war, now entered into close alliance with Britain, and began hostilities against the French. Tippoo Sultan had stipulated for the aid of a French army against the British in India; but Bonaparte, on taking possession of Seuz and the other Egyptian ports on the Red Sea, found no shipping there fit to transport his army to the Indian peninsula. Instead of proceeding therefore upon any splendid scheme of farther conquest, he was compelled to remain in his present situation, and to contend for existence against the whole force of the Ottoman empire. The French at this time did not venture to send forth any large fleet upon the ocean; but wherever their smaller squadrons appeared, the fortune of Britain overpowered them, as it had done in the Mediterranean. They had long promised aid to the disaffected party in Ireland; but weary of fruitless expectation, the Irish had during the summer broken out into rebellion, without waiting the arrival of the troops whom the Directory had engaged to send to their assistance. While the rebellion was at its height, and although the insurgents for some time occupied the sea port of Wexford, the French did not arrive. Afterwards however, when the rebellion had been totally subdued, they attempted to elude the vigilance of the British fleet, and to land men in small parties. On the 22d Aug. Gen. Humbert came ashore at Killala, at the head of 884 men. Even this small party might have been dangerous had it arrived a month earlier; and it actually produced very serious alarm. (See IRELAND, § 23.) It consisted of men selected with great care, and capable of enduring much fatigue. Finding, however, that he was not seconded by additional troops from France, and that 25,000 men under Lord Cornwallis were closing round him, Humbert dismissed his Irish associates; and 4 days thereafter, having encountered one of the British columns in his march, he was rendered. Now, when it was too late, the Directory was very active in sending troops towards Ireland; but all their efforts were defeated by the superiority of the British navy. On the 12th Oct. Sir John Borlase Warren took La Hoche, a ship of 84 guns, and 4 frigates, attempting to reach Ireland with nearly 3000 men on board. The other ships belonging to the French squadron, which conveyed 5000 men in all, escaped by sailing round by the N. of the island. On the 20th another frigate bound for Ireland was taken; and the French finding the sea completely occupied by the British fleet, at last desisted from their enterprise.

(37.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE INVASION OF NAPLES, AND DESTRUCTION OF THE LAZZARONI. Ever since the conclusion of the treaty of Campo Formio, a congress of ministers from the French and from the German princes, had been negociating at RASTADT a treaty between France and the empire. As these negociations terminated in nothing, and were tedious and uninteresting during their progress, it is unnecessary to enter into a detail of them. The intended result of them had been previously arranged between the emperor and the Directory in the secret convention of Campo Formio, § 30. That the articles of this convention might be concealed, the French ministers at Rastadt originally brought forward their propofals in succession for the discussion of the German deputies. The French demanded that the Rhine should be the boundary of their Republic. The Germans refused this. References were made to the diet at Ratis-

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Rastadt, and long discussions and negociations took place among the different princes. When it was found that little was to be expected from the protection of Austria, the German deputies at Rastadt were instructed to offer one half of the territory demanded. This offer was refused, and new negociations took place. The other half was at last yielded up, and a long discussion commenced about the debts due by the ceded territory, which the French refused to pay. The tolls upon the river, and upon the rivers flowing into the same, also gave rise to much altercation. It was even a matter of no small difficulty, after all, to determine the precise boundary of France; whether her territory should extend to the left bank, the right bank, or the *Thalweg*, that is, the middle of the navigable channel of the river. It became also a question how those princes ought to be indemnified who lost their revenues or territories by the new acquisitions of France; and it was agreed that they should receive portions of the ecclesiastical estates in Germany. These discussions, conducted with endless formality and procrastination, still occupied the congress at Rastadt; but it now became gradually probable that no decisive treaty would be concluded at that place. Austria began to strengthen her armies in all quarters. Russia, that had hitherto avoided any active interference in the contest, placed a large body of troops in British pay, and sent them towards the German frontiers. The king of Naples avowedly and eagerly prepared for war. This impatient monarch, resolving to attack without delay the French troops who occupied the Roman territory, procured Gen. Mack and other officers from the court of Vienna to assume the command of his army. Without waiting, however, till Austria could commence the attack, he rashly began the war alone and unaided, excepting by the British fleet, and thus drew upon himself the whole force of the French Republic. When Gen. Mack entered the Roman territory, at the head of 45,000 men, the French troops in that quarter were altogether unequal to the contest. A French ambassador still resided at Naples when this event took place, and war was not declared. When the French General Championnet complained of the attack made upon his posts under these circumstances, he was informed in a letter by Gen. Mack, that the king of Naples had resolved to take possession of the Roman territory, having never acknowledged its existence as a Republic; he therefore required the French quietly to depart into the Cisalpine states; declaring, that any act of hostility on their part, or their entrance into the territory of Tuscany, would be regarded as a declaration of war. Championnet finding himself unable to resist the force now brought against him, evacuated Rome. He left, however, a garrison in the castle of St Angelo, and endeavoured to concentrate whatever troops he could hastily collect in the northern extremity of the Roman state. Towards the end of Nov. Gen. Mack entered Rome without opposition. When these events came to be known at Paris, war was immediately declared against the king of Naples, and also against the king of Sardinia. This last prince had made no attack upon France; but he was accused by the Directory, in their message to the Councils, of *disaffection* to the Republic, and of *wishing* to join the king of Naples in his hostile efforts. This accusation *could not* well be false. From Bonaparte's successful irruption into Italy, the king of Sardinia had felt himself placed in the most humiliating circumstances; his most important fortresses were occupied by the French; they levied in his country what contributions they thought fit; and when they required him to receive a garrison into his capital, he found himself unable to resist the demand. When they performed the useless ceremony of declaring war, he could make no effort in his own defence, but gave them a formal resignation in writing of his whole continental dominions, consenting to retire to the island of Sardinia: upon which the French erected Piedmont, Montferrat, &c. into the temporary PIEDMONTESE REPUBLIC. In the mean time, the contest with Naples was soon decided. The French on their retreat were much harassed by the people of the country. The Neapolitan troops regarded them with such animosity, that they did not observe the modern rules of war to the prisoners who fell into their hands, but tortured them, with the most diabolical cruelty. Even their leaders seemed in this respect to have forgotten the practice of nations; for when Gen. Bouchard, by order of Gen. Mack, summoned the castle of St Angelo to surrender, he declared, that he would consider the prisoners of war and the sick in the hospitals as hostages for the conduct of the garrison; and that for every gun that should be fired from the castle, a man should be put to death. The Neapolitan officers would surely not have acted in this vehement manner, had they not expected support from the immediate co-operation of Austrian troops. But, mindful of her recent calamities, and attentive only to her own aggrandisement, Austria seems to have expected more from negociation than from war, and the territory of Naples soon fell into the hands of the French. Such indeed was the terror of the French name in Italy, or such was the disaffection or cowardice of the Neapolitan troops themselves, that they were beaten by one 4th of their number in different engagements, at Terni, Porto Fermo, Civita Castellana, Otricoli, and Calvi. At the commencement of the contest, a body of Neapolitans, with the assistance of the British fleet, had been landed at Leghorn, for the purpose of taking the French in the rear: but they, disregarding this attempt on the part of such an enemy, pressed on towards Naples. By degrees, Gen. Mack's army being reduced by the result of the battles which it fought, and by desertion, to 12,000 men, he found it necessary to advise the king and royal family of Naples to take refuge on board the British fleet. They did so; and arrived at Palermo, in Sicily, on the 27th Dec. in Lord Nelson's ship. Gen. Mack, in the mean time, requested an armistice, to afford an opportunity for making peace; but this was refused. Being driven from Capua, and his life being in no small danger from the disaffection of his own troops, he at last found it necessary to seek for safety, by surrendering himself, along with the officers of his staff, to the French General. The governor of Naples offered to the French a contribution

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tribution in money, if the commander in chief would consent to avoid entering that city. The offer was accepted, and the invading army remained at Capua. Gen. Serrurier, on the 28th Dec. at the head of a column of French troops, expelled the Neapolitans from Leghorn, and took poſſeſſion of that city. So far as the efforts of regular armies are to be conſidered, the war might now therefore be regarded as brought to a termination; but the French had ſpeedily a new and unuſual enemy to contend againſt. From the mildneſs of the climate, and the fertility of the ſoil, human life can be ſuſtained in the ſouthern parts of Italy with fewer efforts of induſtry than in almoſt any other country in Europe. Hence ariſes a general propenſity to idleneſs, which is increaſed by the numerous charitable inſtitutions to which the Roman Catholic religion gives riſe. In the city of Naples there had long exiſted a body of perſons named *Lazzaroni*, amounting to the incredible number of from 30 to 40,000 men, who did nothing, but ſubſiſted merely by charity, or by ſuch ſhifts as occured to them. One of theſe frequently was menacing the ſtate with an inſurrection, in caſe their wants were not inſtantly ſupplied; which uſually drew from a feeble adminiſtration very liberal diſtributions of money and proviſions. On this occaſion they demonſtrated abundance of loyalty, but the king did not chooſe to entruſt his ſafety to ſuch defenders. During the confuſion which followed the flight of the court and the approach of the French army, the Lazzaroni became mutinous. They heard that the French aboliſhed, wherever they came, all thoſe monaſteries and other religious eſtabliſhments, which are the great ſources of public charity. The Lazzaroni, therefore, conceived the moſt violent hatred againſt them, and againſt all who were ſuſpected of favouring opinions hoſtile to royal government. In the beginning of January 1799, they began to ſhew ſymptoms of diſcontent, and in a few days broke out into open inſurrection. The members of the government left by the king, overcome by habitual terror of the Lazzaroni, conſulted merely their own perſonal ſafety, and made no effort to preſerve the public tranquillity. Prince Militorni had gained conſiderable applauſe on account of his vigorous defence of Capua againſt the French. The Lazzaroni therefore elected him their commander in chief; but he attempted in vain to reſtrain their violence and love of plunder. They declared hoſtility againſt the French and all the adviſers of the armiſtice. They broke open the priſons, and put to death all thoſe who were confined on account of political offences againſt the royal government. They next ſpread themſelves over the city in ſearch of thoſe perſons whom they conſidered as favourable to the invaders, and committed murder and robbery in all quarters, concluding by burning the houſes of thoſe accounted diſaffected. An attempt was made by a conſiderable body of the inhabitants, to reſiſt their fury, by fortifying the convent of the Celeſtins, and retiring thither; but the Lazzaroni, after encountering the fire of cannon and of muſketry, ſucceeded in ſtorming the place, and deſtroyed all who had taken refuge there. Their power and their fury were now equally boundleſs, and the city became in many quarters a ſcene of maſſacre and pillage. Pr. Militorni, therefore, went to Capua, and requeſted Championnet to reſcue Naples from utter ruin by occupying it with his army. For this purpoſe it was arranged, that a column of French troops ſhould ſecretly advance by a circuitous march, and ſuddenly enter the city from the oppoſite quarter. Before the plan could be fully executed, the Lazzaroni had adopted the daring reſolution of attacking the French within the fortifications of Capua. Accordingly two 3ds of them marched out upon this enterpriſe, and ſpent the 19th and 20th of January in attempting to take Capua by aſſault. Multitudes of theſe men periſhed by the artillery of the place; for the French, to favour the capture of Naples by the party that had been ſent eaſtward for that purpoſe, avoided making any ſally, and remained upon the defenſive. The Lazzaroni at Capua, however, having learned on the 21ſt that a French column had marched to Naples, and approached the gates, ſuddenly returned to the aſſiſtance of their brethren in the capital. They were cloſely purſued by the French; but they barricaded the ſtreets, and formed themſelves into parties for the defence of different quarters. A dreadful and ſanguinary conteſt now enſued, which laſted from the morning of the 22d to the evening of the 23d of January. The Lazzaroni, with ſome peaſants who had joined them, diſputed obſtinately every ſpot of ground; and by the energy which they diſplayed, caſt a ſevere reproach upon the feeble and unſkilful government, which had not been able to direct in a better manner the courage of ſuch men. At length, after having been gradually driven from ſtreet to ſtreet, the Lazzaroni rallied for the laſt time at one of the gates of the city, where they were nearly exterminated. The inhabitants rejoiced on account of their own eſcape from immediate ruin; and while the French armies found themſelves become odious in all the other countries which they had entered, they here found themſelves, from the peculiar circumſtances of the caſe, received with unfeigned welcome, in a city which holds the third place in population and ſplendour among the capitals of Europe. It was at this period, that the French erected Naples into the ſhort-lived NEAPOLITAN REPUBLIC.

(38.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE JUNCTION OF THE RUSSIANS WITH THE IMPERIALISTS. The ſucceſs of the French at Naples may be regarded as the laſt triumph enjoyed by the Directory. The conſequences of their conduct were now gathering faſt around them. They were deſervedly unpopular at home; not only from the violations they had offered to the conſtitution of their country, but alſo from the manner in which they conducted public affairs in general. They ſet no bounds to their profuſion, or to the exactions with which their agents vexed the conquered countries. Championnet, aſhamed of the extortions of which the commiſſaries of the Directory were guilty, attempted in Italy to reſtrain them; and the conſequence was, that, upon the complaint of the commiſſary Faypoult, he was deprived of his command, and thrown into priſon. Scherer, the miniſter of war, was appointed his ſucceſſor. Under

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der him the rapacity of the agents of government, and the embezzlement of the public ſtores, were carried to a height. The number of the armies were ſuffered to decline, that the Directory, the commiſſaries, and the generals, might become rich. Thus the ſtate was left totally unprepared againſt the ſtorm which was now rapidly gathering from abroad. Still, however, France was feared by the neighbouring nations, to whom the ſtate of her internal affairs was not known. Tho' an army of 45,000 Ruſſians had advanced to the aid of Auſtria, yet that cabinet heſitated to declare war. Pruſſia was eagerly ſolicited by Britain to take up arms againſt France, and large pecuniary aid was offered; but Sieyes, the ambaſſador of the republic at Berlin, artfully contrived to defeat this negociation, and to counteract the unpopularity of his country in Germany, by publiſhing the ſecret convention at Campo Formio, above mentioned, § 30. This treaty demonſtrated ſo clearly to the German princes the utter unconcern with which their independence and their intereſts were regarded by the head of the empire, that no ſteady co-operation with Auſtria could henceforth be expected from them. The greater number of them, therefore, reſolved to maintain their neutrality under the protection of Pruſſia. On the 2d Jan. 1779, the French miniſters at Raſtadt, preſented a note to the congreſs, in which they intimated, that the entrance of Ruſſian troops into Germany, if not reſiſted, would be regarded by them as a declaration of war. Some negociation took place in conſequence of this note, but no ſatisfactory anſwer was returned. On the 26th of that month, the ſtrong fortreſs of EHRENBREITSTEIN ſurrendered, after having remained under blockade ſince the concluſion of the treaty of Campo Formio. By the poſſeſſion of this place, and of Mentz and Duſſeldorf, France is now rendered very formidable on the Rhine. She poſſeſſed alſo the ſtrong country of Switzerland, and all the fortified places of Italy, ſhe having well prepared, not only for defence, but for offenſive operation; for it is now known, that the conferences of Raſtadt were purpoſely protracted by orders from the Directory, till the French armies ſhould be ready to take the field with advantage againſt an enemy whoſe conduct betrayed the moſt culpable tardineſs. At this time Jourdan commanded on the Upper Rhine from Huningen to Huningen; Maſſena occupied with an army the eaſtern frontier of Switzerland towards the Griſon country; Scherer was commander in chief in Italy; Moreau acted as general of a diviſion under him; and Macdonald commanded the army that occupied the territory of Rome and Naples. But theſe armies that kept in ſubjection Italy and were now to defend ſo many countries, did not amounted to 170,000 men in all, and were greatly outnumbered by the armies which Auſtria alone, without the aid of Ruſſia, could bring into the field. The Directory, however, confiding in the unity of its own plans, in the undecided meaſures of the court of Vienna, and in the conſequent ſlow movements of the Imperial armies, were eager to renew the war; and the two Councils on the 13th March, declared France to be at war with the Emperor of Germany and the Grand Duke of Tuſcany. The war, however, had already been begun. On the 1ſt of March Jourdan croſſed the Rhine at Straſburg, and occupied ſeveral ſtrong poſitions in Swabia. Manheim was taken, and Philipſburg ſummoned to ſurrender by Bernadotte, while St Cyr entered Stutgard. On the 4th of March the Auſtrians croſſed the Lech, under the Archduke Charles, to oppoſe this army. Maſſena advanced into the territory of the Griſons; and ſurpriſing a ſtrong body of Auſtrians, took them all priſoners, with their General Auffenburgh, and the whole of his ſtaff, after a deſperate reſiſtance under the walls of *Coire*. The reduction of the Griſon's territory was the conſequence of this victory. But to complete the plan of the French, which was to effect a junction with their two armies, that of Maſſena in Switzerland with that of Jourdan in Germany, it was neceſſary to carry the important poſt of Feldkirch, which was occupied by the Auſtrian general Hotze, whoſe line extended from the frontiers of the Griſons, to the NE. by the Vorlęberg, to the E. extremity of Lake Conſtance. Vigorouſly repulſed in his firſt attack, Maſſena renewed it, five different times, with freſh forces, and increaſed impetuoſity. But all could not avail againſt the ſteady bravery of the Auſtrians, who drove back the aſſailants with immenſe ſlaughter. The French, however, being in poſſeſſion of the Griſon's country, the invaſion of Engadina and Bormio, by a diviſion of the army of Italy cantoned in the Valteline, under General Caſabianca, was facilitated. The Auſtrians, too weak in that quarter to reſiſt them, retreated into the Tyrol, whither they were purſued by the French, who forced ſome of the defiles by which the entrance of that country was defended, and extended their deſtructive incurſions as far as Glurenz and Nauders. Meanwhile the van-guard of the main army of the Imperialiſts puſhed forward to meet the enemy. On the 20th March it was attacked by Jourdan, who drove in the outpoſts; but on the following day that general was himſelf attacked in the centre of his army, driven from his poſition, and compelled to retire during the night to Stockach. Both parties now prepared for a deciſive engagement. On the 24th, the Archduke encamped before STOCKACH, with his right wing towards Nellenburg, and his left near Wallenweis. On the 25th, at day-break, the French army began the attack. They directed their chief efforts againſt the right wing of the Auſtrians commanded by Gen. Meerfeldt. The battle was long and obſtinate. From five o'clock A. M. till paſt one P. M. its termination remained extremely doubtful. The French ſucceeded in their attempt againſt Gen. Meerfeldt. His poſition was forced, and he retreated into a wood between Liptingen and Stockach. Here he renewed the combat without ſucceſs. He was gradually driven to the extremity of the wood, tho' it is a German mile in breadth. The left wing of the Auſtrians, however, had in the mean time maintained its ground, and reinforcements were ſent from it to Gen. Meerfeldt. With the aſſiſtance of theſe he at laſt made a ſtand, and obliged the French to retire. At length, about 2 o'clock the French found it neceſſary to withdraw from this

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this quarter. The battle, however, was continued in different points till night came on. The French remained upon the ground where they had begun the attack, and they even retained 4000 prisoners whom they had taken during the various movements of the day. The result of the battle, upon the whole however, was fatal to their affairs. Their loss was so great, and the superiority of the Austrians so manifest, that Jourdan dared not to hazard another engagement. On the following day he retired to Weiller near Dutlingen; and finding his army altogether unequal to offensive operations, he sent back part of it to cover Kehl and Strasburg, while he withdrew with the rest towards Switzerland. This event compelled Massena, who was pressing upon Tyrol and Engadana, to return to the defence of Switzerland. He was immediately intrusted with the chief command of the troops in this quarter, in the room of Jourdan. The Austrians continued to advance in every direction, and occupied the whole of the right, or German side, of the Rhine, from Lake Constance to Mentz. In Italy the success of the Austrians was equally conspicuous, notwithstanding the treachery of the French in attacking them before the expiration of the truce. The attempt of the latter to force the advanced posts of the former, on the 26th March, at Santa Lucia and Bussolango was rendered abortive; and at Legnano, the Austrian general, Kray, obtained a complete victory, and compelled them to seek protection under the walls of Mantua. On the 5th April, the Austrians again attacked them in their position at Memirvolo between Mantua and Peschiera, and compelled them, after an obstinate conflict, once more to retreat. The loss of the French in these different actions was undoubtedly great; but it is probably over-rated at 30,000 men, killed, wounded, and taken. The success of the Austrians, however, was dearly purchased. Scherer, who commanded the French army, gained over them, at first, some advantages, which, he did not know how to improve. One division of his army had actually forced the Austrian posts on the 26th March, and taken 4000 prisoners; but the other division being repulsed, he withdrew his troops from their advanced position, and thus relinquished the advantage he had gained. Even on the 5th April, Moreau's division performed prodigies of valour, and took 3000 prisoners; but from the injudicious dispositions which had been made by Scherer, that general was not supported, and the victory of the Austrians was complete. Kray now quickly drove the French from the Mantuan, and compelled them, after having sustained new losses, to relinquish their strong holds on the Mincio and the Adige, and to retreat to the Adda. On the banks of this river Gen. Moreau, to whom the Directory had given the chief command, prepared to make a vigorous defence. The military talents of this man had been rendered unquestionable by his celebrated retreat through a hostile country, and before a victorious army ably commanded. On this occasion he did not belie his former character. Nothing that could give courage or confidence to his troops was neglected. Entrenchments were thrown up wherever the river was considered as passable; and a situation, remarkably strong by Nature, was strengthened by every means which art could supply. About this period, a considerable body of Russians had join the Imperialists; and the chief command of t allied army was now assumed by Field Marsh Suwarrow Rimniski. This celebrated leader h entered into the army at the age of 12, and ri from the ranks to the station of Generalissimo the Russian armies. (See SUWARROW.) His perations in Italy did not disappoint the high pectations which had been formed of them. an age considerably above 60, he began a ca paign not less remarkable for its activity, th any which had preceded it since the comen ment of the French revolution. If the work titled the *History of Suwarrow's Campaigns* be serving of credit, the superiority of that co mander over his rivals and opponents seems have at all times consisted, principally in promptitude with which he formed his plans, a the rapidity with which he carried them i execution.

(39.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY THE, UNTIL THE JUNCTION OF THE SPANI AND FRENCH FLEETS. On the 24th of Ap the combined army advanced to the Adda; a having driven in Moreau's outposts, Suwarr resolved, on the 26th, to attack him in his trenchments. For this purpose, while the sh of an attack was maintained along the whole l a bridge was secretly thrown over among rocks at the upper part of the river, where French had thought such an enterprise unlikely impossible. A party of the combined army thus enabled, on the following morning, a crossing the river, to turn the French fortificatio and to attack their flank and rear, while the forced the passage of the river at different poi The French fought obstinately, but were dri from all their positions, and compelled to re to Pavia, leaving 6000 men on the field; w upwards of 5000 prisoners, including 4 gener fell into the hands of the allies, with 80 piece cannon. Moreau now established the wreck the French army, amounting to about 12, men, upon the Po, between Alexandria and lentia. On the 11th of May he compelled a b of Austrians to retire, though they had passed river, and took many of them prisoners. On 12th, 7000 Russians crossed the Po at Bafign and advanced to Pecetto. Moreau immedia fell upon them with his army. They maintai a long and desperate conflict; but being at thrown into confusion, and refusing to lay do their arms, about 2000 of them were drowne recrossing the river, and the French, with diffi ty, took a small number of them prisoners. Suwarrow soon advanced, and terminated active, but petty warfare, which was all the French could now maintain. Moreau under the necessity of retiring with his tro to the Bochetta, and other passes which lead the Genoese territory; and the combined a commenced vigorously the siege of all the fo ses in Italy which it now occupied. Pesc Mantua, Ferrara, Tortona, Alexandria, and citadels of Turin and Milan, were all attac

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The French were driven from Engadina by Bellegarde; Maſſena, cloſely preſſed in Switzerland by the Archduke Charles, was compelled to retreat to the neighbourhood of Zurich, and almoſt all Piedmont had riſen in inſurrection againſt the French, ſo that in every quarter their affairs ſeemed deſperate. Few or no reinforcements arrived from the interior, and their generals were left to act upon the defenſive, and to detain the enemy at a diſtance from the frontiers of France as long as poſſible. One effort of offenſive war only remained, and, after ſome delay, it was made with much vigour. Macdonald was ſtill with a conſiderable French army in the S. parts of Italy, and occupied the territories of Rome and Naples. No attempt was made on the part of the combined powers to cut off his retreat. And, knowing that he could eaſily retreat through the mountains of Tuſcany and Genoa, he was in no haſte to remove, though the combined army now occupied almoſt the whole territory between him and France. He gradually concentrated his forces, however, and drew near to the ſcene of action. His army amounted to 30,000 men; and he was ordered by the Directory to evacuate the new-born republics of Rome and Naples, and to form a junction, if poſſible, with the army of Moreau. The ſituation of the allies, however, tempted Macdonald to hazard an action by himſelf. Suwarrow had extended his forces near Lombardy and part of Piedmont, to afford protection to the inhabitants of theſe countries; and Macdonald and Moreau had concerted between them a plan for dividing their antagoniſts, and vanquiſhing them, as the French generals had often vanquiſhed their enemies in detail. It was only by Macdonald, however, that any important blow could be ſtruck: but it was neceſſary that Moreau ſhould draw upon himſelf a great part of the Auſtro-Ruſſian forces, that the remainder might be more completely expoſed to his colleague's attack. About the end of April, the French fleet, amounting to 26 ſhips of the line, had ventured out of Breſt harbour. Ireland was ſuppoſed to be the place of its deſtination; and the Britiſh fleet was ſtationed in the ſituations moſt likely to prevent its arrival there. The French, however, intending to form a junction with the Spaniſh fleet, which was ſtill blockaded in the port of Cadiz, ſailed ſouthward. When they approached Cadiz, a ſtorm aroſe, which prevented any attempt on their part to enter the harbour, and any effort on the part of the Britiſh admiral, Lord Keith, to bring them to an engagement. On the 4th and 5th of May, therefore, they paſſed the Strait of Gibraltar, and ſteered for Toulon. Lord Keith kept his ſtation near Cadiz till the 9th of May, and then entered the Mediterranean in queſt of the French fleet. The Spaniards immediately put to ſea, and went into the Mediterranean alſo. The French fleet entered Toulon, and afterwards went out in queſt of the Spaniſh fleet. They ſailed towards Genoa, and afterwards to Carthagena, where they met their allies. The two fleets being now united once more, paſſed Gibraltar, and ſailed round to Breſt, where they arrived in ſafety, without being overtaken by the Britiſh.

(40.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE OVERTHROW OF THE FRENCH POWER IN ITALY, BY GEN. SUWARROW. Gen. Moreau took advantage of the arrival of the French and Spaniſh ſquadrons in the vicinity of Genoa, to ſpread a report, that they had brought him a powerful reinforcement of troops, in hopes of withdrawing from Macdonald the attention of Suwarrow, who was himſelf at Turin. His advanced troops poſſeſſed the paſſes of Suſa, Pignerol, and the Col d'Aſſiette; while, at the lower extremity of the vaſt track of country over which his army was ſcattered, Gen. Hohenzollern was poſted at Modena with a conſiderable force, and Gen. Ott was at Reggio with 10,000 men. On the 12th of June, Macdonald began his operations. His advanced diviſions attacked Hohenzollern at Modena on that day, defeated him, and took 2000 of his men priſoners. The French, at the ſame time, attacked Gen. Ott; and, after obliging him to retreat, entered Parma on the 14th of June. On the 17th, Gen. Ott was again attacked, and compelled to retire upon Caſtel St Giovanni. Suwarrow had been informed of his approach and alarming ſucceſſes; and with his uſual promptitude of energy, ſuddenly left Turin on the 15th of June, at the head of 20,000 men; and having marched 37 leagues in 48 hours, came up with Macdonald's army on the banks of the Tidone. The Ruſſian generals Roſenberg and Forſter commanded the right and the centre; the left wing was commanded by the Auſtrian general Melas; the Ruſſian general, Pr. Prochaſka, commanded the advanced guard, and Pr. Lichenſtein the reſerve. A deſperate action now commenced, which, contended with equal obſtinacy on both ſides, was fought during ſucceſſive days. At length victory declared for the allies. The French, driven off the 18th day from the Tidone to the Trebbia, were there ultimately defeated on the 19th; after a carnage on both ſides, ſuch as ſome of the oldeſt officers of the army declared that they had never before ſeen. The Ruſſians and French repeatedly turned each others line, and were mutually repulſed. Suwarrow, who appeared in perſon wherever the fire was heavieſt, and his troops moſt cloſely preſſed, is ſaid to have had 7 horſes killed under him, and to have ſtript himſelf to the ſhirt on the 19th; running on foot from rank to rank, to urge the troops forward by his preſence and example. With all theſe exertions of heroiſm, however, the iſſue of the conteſt continued doubtful, till the gallant Gen. Kray, in direct diſobedience to the pernicious orders of the Aulic Council at Vienna, arrived at the head of a large detachment from the army beſieging Mantua, and, on the 16th, decided the fate of the day. The French fled during the night; and, on the morning of the 20th Suwarrow purſued them with his army in two columns. German troops can ſeldom overtake the French in a march. The Ruſſians now did ſo, however; and at Zena the rear guard of the French, being ſurrounded, laid down their arms. The reſt of the French army found ſafety in the paſſes of the Appennines and the Genoeſe territory, after having loſt on this occaſion, in killed, wounded,

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wounded, and prisoners, not less than 17,000 men. Moreau, in the mean time, had attacked the Austrians under Gen. Bellegarde near Alexandria. Though superior in numbers, they were completely beaten; but Suwarrow having returned with great rapidity after his victory over Macdonald, the temporary advantage gained by Moreau became of little importance. Suwarrow complained loudly of the conduct of the Aulic Council on this occasion; while they imputed their disaster under Bellegarde to his unskilful distribution of the whole troops, which had exposed an immense army to great danger from the enterprises of an handful of men. But the instructions of the Council to Kray, not to co-operate with the commander in chief of the combined army, seem in the highest degree absurd, if not treacherous. A distrust and mutual misunderstanding thus commenced, which gave reason to suspect that little cordiality of co-operation would long exist between these allies. They continued, however, for some time to enjoy prosperity under Suwarrow. The sieges of the different Italian fortresses were very closely pressed. They all surrendered in succession.

(41.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE SIEGE OF ACRE, AND DEFEAT OF BONAPARTE. About this time the French were as much humbled in Palestine by British valour, as they were in Italy by the united armies of Russia and Austria. The hero of France, the conqueror of Italy, the boasted *legislator* of Europe, after having defeated the Mamelukes, taken possession of Alexandria and Cairo, and professed himself a *Mahometan* in Egypt, led an army into Palestine with the avowed purpose, it has been said, to take possession of Jerusalem, and by rebuilding the temple, and restoring the Jews, to give the lie to the prophecies of the Divine founder of the Christian religion. At the head of a chosen band, exceeding 12,000 in number, and possessed of a staff eminent for military skill and experience, he arrived at the small town of Acre, situated on the sea-coast, 28 miles S. of Tyre, and 37 N. of Jerusalem. To this town, which was wretchedly fortified, and defended only by a small garrison of Mussulmans, he laid siege in form; and the governor would have surrendered unconditionally, had he not been persuaded by Sir Sidney Smith to make a vigorous resistance. The command of the garrison being entrusted to Sir Sidney Smith, who was not to be bribed by French gold, or corrupted by French philosophy, the hero, who, by the aid of these allies, had so quickly routed armies and conquered states in Italy, was detained before the town of Acre *sixty-nine* days; though the number of the allies who defended that town exceeded not 2000 men! Foiled in *eleven* different attempts to carry it by assault, one of which was made during the *truce* which he himself had solicited to bury the dead, he was ultimately obliged to retreat, leaving 8 of his generals, 85 of his officers, and *one half* of his army behind him. The superiority of the British over the Corsican hero was, during this siege, more fully displayed in conduct than even in courage. The true magnanimity evinced by Sir Sidney Smith; his temperate replies to the audacious calumnies and atrocious falsehoods of his adversary; and the moderation and humanity which characterised his dispatches, and invariably marked his behaviour to those whom the fortune of war subjected to his power—give additional lustre to the brilliant victory which his valour, his energy, and his perseverence so essentially contributed to secure. But while we pay a tribute of justice to the merits of our gallant countryman, we must not omit to notice the high deserts of the brave, the loyal, the virtuous PHILIPEAUX, his gallant comrade, the partner of his toils, and the partaker of his glory. The skill of the French officer, as an engineer, was most successfully displayed in the defence of Acre; and, indeed, his exertions on that memorable occasion so far surpassed his strength, that he actually perished through fatigue. The defeat of Bonaparte at Acre, which effectually stopped his destructive career, will be considered as important indeed when it is known that his arts of intrigue had so far succeeded as to prevail on the numerous tribes of the Druses to join his standard with *sixty thousand* men immediately after the reduction of the town. (See DRUSES.) Had this junction been effected, it was intended to proceed to Constantinople, and, after plundering the city, to lay it in ashes! It is scarcely possible to calculate the dreadful consequences of such an event on the political state of Europe.

(42.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE TOTAL RUIN OF THE FRENCH AFFAIRS IN ITALY. During these reverses abroad France had begun to suffer much internal agitation, and the Directory found itself in a very difficult situation. The elections, as usual, were unfavourable to them; and amidst the contempt with which they now began to be regarded, it was no longer possible to secure a majority in the Councils, by unconstitutionally annulling the election of their political opponents. They demanded money, and were answered by reproaches, on account of their profusion, and the rapacity of their agents. The royalists in the south and west began to form insurrections. They were subdued with much difficulty, on account of the absence of the troops. The people had totally lost that enthusiasm which, in the earlier period of the revolution, induced them to submit to so many evils, and to make the most violent efforts without murmuring. They beheld the renewal of the war with regret, and were unwilling to assist by their exertions to restore power and splendour to the faction which had trampled upon their freedom. Amidst all these difficulties, an event occurred which, for a time, gave the Directory the hope of being once more able to rouse the dormant energies of their countrymen. After the defeat of Jourdan, a detachment from the army of the Archduke Charles had occupied Rastadt, where the Congress still sat. On the 28th of April an order was sent by an Imperial officer to the French ministers, requiring them to quit Rastadt in 24 hours. They demanded a passport from Colonel Barbaçy, who had sent the order; but this he could not grant, none having the power but the commander in chief. They declared themselves determined to depart without

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debry, although the evening approached. They were detained about an hour at the gate of the town, in consequence of general orders which had been received by the military to suffer none to pass. In consequence of an explanation, however, and of the interposition of superior officers, they were allowed to depart. The three ministers, Bonnier, Roberjot, and John Debry, were in carriages. The wife of Roberjot, and the wife and daughters of John Debry, were along with them; and they were attended by the ministers of the Cisalpine republic. When they had advanced to a very short distance from Rastadt, they were met by about 30 hussars of the regiment of Szeckler, who made the carriages halt, and advancing to the first of them, containing John Debry, demanded his name. He told them, and added that he was a French minister returning to France. On receiving this answer, they immediately tore him from his carriage, wounded him in several places with their sabres, and cast him into a ditch, on the supposition that he was killed. They treated in the same manner the two other ambassadors, Bonnier and Roberjot, whom they murdered upon the spot. They offered no personal violence, however, to the rest of the company, who were allowed to return to Rastadt; but they robbed the carriages of whatever effects they contained; and the papers of the ambassadors were conveyed to the Austrian commander. After the departure of the soldiers, and the return of carriages to Rastadt, John Debry wandered about the woods all night, and returned to Rastadt on the following day. He claimed the papers belonging to the legation from the Austrian commander; but they were refused to be restored. During the whole of the long period that the Congress had sat, Rastadt and its vicinity had been occupied by French troops, and it was only a few days since the Austrians had obtained possession of it. This event therefore cast, at least, a severe reproach upon the discipline of the Austrian army. The Archduke Charles made haste to disclaim all knowledge of it in a letter to Massena; but the French Directory, regarding it as a fortunate occurrence, from its tendency to rouse the resentment of the nation, addressed to the two Councils, on the 5th of May, a message in which they ascribed it to a deliberate purpose on the part of the Austrian government to insult France by the assassination of her ambassadors. They thus converted the private act of a few desperate individuals into a measure of public policy. Upon the introduction of the new third of this year (1799) into the Councils, a violent opposition to the Directory commenced. Sieyes, who was ambassador at Berlin, and who had enjoyed, during the whole progress of the revolution, a very considerable influence over all the parties that had successively enjoyed the supreme authority, was elected into the Directory. At the first establishment of the constitution he had refused to occupy this station, and it excited much surprise when he readily accepted the office in the then calamitous state of the Republic. His admission into the Directory, however, did not reconcile the public or the two Councils to that body. A violent contest for power betwixt the Moderate and the Jacobin parties seemed to approach; but they soon came to a compromise. Treilhard was removed from the Directory, under the pretence that he had held an office in the state within less than a year previous to his nomination. Merlin and Reveillere were compelled to resign, but Barras still retained his station. Moulins, Gohier, and Ducos, men little known and by no means leaders of parties, were appointed Directors. The power was understood to be divided, and that neither party greatly predominated. An attempt was made to revive public spirit, by encouraging anew the institution of clubs, which had been suppressed by the Directory. The violent Jacobins were the first to take advantage of this licence. They resumed their ancient style, their proposals for violent measures, and their practice of *denouncing* the members and the measures of government. But the Directory, alarmed by their intemperance, obtained leave from the Councils to suppress their meetings before they were able to interest the public in their favour. Considerable efforts were now made by the French government to recruit their armies; but the deranged state of the finances, which the votes of the Councils could not immediately remedy, prevented the possibility of their gaining a superiority during this campaign. The difficulty was also increased by the necessity of resisting immense armies in different quarters at the same time, France being assailed at once on the side of Holland, Switzerland, and Italy. Such however, were the exertions of the Directory, that they seemed able speedily to assume, on the frontier, a formidable, and even menacing posture. In the beginning of August, their Italian army amounted to 45,000 men. The different bodies of troops of which it consisted had been drawn together, and concentrated nearly in the same positions which Bonaparte had occupied before his battles of Montenotte and Millesimo. The command of the whole was given to Joubert, a young man, who had been much distinguished under Bonaparte. On taking the command, he prevailed with Moreau to remain in the army as a volunteer till the first battle should be fought. The allies had now taken Turin, Alexandria, Milan, Peschiera, and Ferrara, with uncommon rapidity. The strong citadel of Turin opened its gates, to the astonishment of Europe, after a bombardment of only 3 days; the citadel of Alexandria surrendered to the Austrian General Bellegarde, on the 22d July, after a siege of 7 days; and the still more important fortress of Mantua surrendered to Gen. Kray, on the 29th, after a siege of only 14 days. The garrison of Alexandria amounted to 2400 men; that of Mantua to 13,000. The former were detained prisoners of war, and the latter were allowed to return to France on their *parole*. The allies next began to besiege Tortona, and Joubert resolved to attempt its relief. He hoped to accomplish this object, and to gain some advantage over their army, before Gen. Kray could arrive to the assistance of Suwarrow with the troops that had been occupied in the siege of Mantua. On the 13th Aug. the French drove in the whole of the Austrian posts, and took posses-

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ſeſſion of Novi. Here they encamped on a long and ſteep, but not high, ridge of hills, with their centre at Novi, their right towards Seravalle, and their left towards Baſaluzzo. On the 14th they remained quiet; and on the 15th they were attacked by Suwarrow, whoſe army was now reinforced by the arrival of Gen. Kray from Mantua. The right wing of the allied army was commanded by Kray, the left by Melas, and the centre was occupied by the Ruſſians, under Pr. *Pongrazion* or *Procration*, and Suwarrow in perſon. The attack began at 5 o'clock in the morning, and was continued many hours. Soon after this, while the French commander, Joubert, was urging his troops to charge with the bayonet, he received a muſquet ſhot in his body, and, falling from his horſe immediately expired. Moreau inſtantly reſumed the command. After an obſtinate conteſt, the allied army gave way, and was compelled to fall back in all quarters. The attack, however, was repeatedly renewed, and much blood was ſhed. From the obſtinate manner in which they fought, the Ruſſians ſuffered very ſeverely. They made three unſucceſsful efforts againſt the centre of the French army, and on each occaſion thoſe immediately engaged were rather deſtroyed than repulſed. The laſt attack along the whole line was made at 3 p. m. The French remained unbroken; and the day muſt have terminated in the defeat of the allies, had not Gen. Melas ſucceeded in turning the right flank of the French line. Their right wing was thus thrown into confuſion. Melas purſued his advantage till he obtained poſſeſſion of Novi, and the whole French army made a rapid retreat under Moreau. According to the accounts given by the Auſtrians, the French loſt in this battle 4000 killed and 4000 priſoners. They acknowledged their own loſs in killed to be equal to that of the French, but the loſs ſuſtained by the Ruſſians was never publiſhed. The reſult of the battle was the total ruin of the French affairs in Italy.

(43.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE VICTORY OVER THE AUSTRIANS AND RUSSIANS BY MASSENA. The allies retained their decided ſuperiority, but did not improve their advantages. They neither invaded Genoa nor France, but quietly proceeded in the ſiege of Tortona. Championnet, who had ſucceeded Joubert, found to his aſtoniſhment that they had rather retreated than advanced; and he immediately occupied the ſame poſitions which his army had held before the battle of Novi. Inſtead of purſuing the advantages they had gained in Italy, the Aulic council at Vienna, now perſuaded Suwarrow to leave that country with his Ruſſians, and to ſet out for Switzerland to drive the French from thence. In the early part of the campaign, the Archduke Charles had ſucceeded, after various attacks, in driving the French from the eaſtern part of Switzerland beyond Zurich, of which laſt city he retained poſſeſſion. The Directory, however, had ſent their new levies chiefly towards this quarter; ſo that, in the middle of Auguſt, Maſſena's army amounted to 70,000 men. The Archduke was now ſo far from being able to purſue the advantages he had gained, that of late the French had reſumed the offenſive, and threatened to endanger his poſition. Their right wing under Lecourbe had even taken poſſeſſion of Mount St Gothard, over which is the great paſs that leads from the centre and eaſtern part of Switzerland into Italy. The cabinet of Vienna probably wiſhed to throw the ſevereſt duties of the war upon their northern aſſociates. The veteran Suwarrow had never, during his long military career, ſuffered a ſingle defeat. His preſumption of ſucceſs was therefore high; and he perhaps felt himſelf flattered by the requeſt to undertake an enterpriſe in which the Auſtrians had failed, though led by their moſt fortunate commander. He agreed to proceed with his troops from Piedmont to Switzerland, where another Ruſſian army had lately arrived. Delays, however, were thrown in his way. Tortona did not fall ſo ſoon as was expected; and when he was ready to march, the Auſtrian commander in Italy refuſed to ſupply him with mules to tranſport his baggage. Unable to reply to the indignant expoſtulations of the Ruſſian hero, this man deſcended to a pitiful falſehood, by aſſuring him that he would find a ſufficient number of mules at Bellinzona where, when he arrived, not one was to be had. He had now no other reſource but to dismount the cavalry, and employ their horſes to drag along the baggage. Under all theſe difficulties, he arrived, by forced marches, on the confines of Switzerland, on the day appointed by him and the Archduke; but the Auſtrian cabinet had, in the mean time, taken a ſtep which made all his exertions uſeleſs. Thinking it degrading to a Prince of the Imperial houſe, who had ſo long held the higheſt military rank, to ſerve under the Ruſſian General, and not having the confidence to require the moſt experienced leader in Europe to receive the orders of a man ſo young as the Archduke, they ſent that prince with his army to attack the French, who, in a ſmall body, had entered into Swabia. He began accordingly to draw off his troops in the beginning of September, before Suwarrow was in readineſs to leave Italy. The number which he took with him has been eſtimated, by ſome at 48,000, by others at 60,000. The former is the moſt probable; for 20,000 would have been adequate to the purpoſe for which he marched. The army which he left behind him conſiſted of 21,000 Ruſſians, 18,900 Auſtrians, Bavarians, and other auxiliaries, forming a total of 39,000 men. Upon what principle of military tactics the Aulic council could ſuppoſe that a ſkilful and intrepid commander like Maſſena, with a force nearly double that of the allies, would remain in a ſtate of inactivity, it is not eaſy to conceive. He perceived at once the advantage to be derived from this unaccountable movement of the Archduke. The French troops in Swabia were therefore ordered to advance rapidly, and to threaten the rear of the Archduke's army. By the repulſe of theſe troops, and the invaſion of France towards Alſace, formed a part of the Auſtrian commander's plan of operations, he manœuvred againſt them with his army. The French made as much reſiſtance as the ſmallneſs of their force would permit. The Archduke, however, gradually drove them towards the Rhine. The better to carry on their plan of deception, they ma-

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a ſerious ſtand in the neighbourhood of Manheim, and were defeated with the loſs of 1800 men. The Auſtrians entered Manheim, and ſeemed ready to croſs the Rhine in this quarter. All this while Switzerland was left completely expoſed to the enterpriſes of Maſſena. Gen. Hotze, with the Auſtrians, occupied the right wing of the allied army there. The newly arrived Ruſſian army was ſtationed in the centre at Zurich, under Gen. Korſakof; and the left, conſiſting chiefly of Bavarians and other troops of the empire, was commanded by Nauendorf. Maſſena remained quiet till he learned that the Archduke had entered Manheim, and that Suwarrow, having taken Tortona, was on his march towards Switzerland by Mount St Gothard. This laſt poſition was defended by Lecourbe; and Maſſena reſolved to anticipate the arrival of Suwarrow. On the 24th Sept. having drawn the attention of the Ruſſians to another quarter by a falſe attack, he ſuddenly croſſed the Limmat, a river which divided the two armies near the convent of Farr, which is 9 miles from Zurich. A part of the French troops engaged the Auſtrians, while the greater part of the army marched againſt the Ruſſians at Zurich. The Auſtrian General Hotze was killed in the commencement of the action. Gen. Petrarch, who ſucceeded him, avoided a total rout, and retired during the night with the loſs of about 4000 men. The conteſt with the Ruſſians was ſingularly obſtinate. In a mountainous country, to which they were ſtrangers, and contending againſt the moſt ſkilful military leaders that the ſouth of Europe had been able to produce, they laboured under every diſadvantage. They could not be put to flight, however; and even when different diviſions of them were ſurrounded, they refuſed to lay down their arms, and were ſlaughtered upon the ſpot. By the retreat of the Auſtrians on the evening of the 25th, they found themſelves on the 26th nearly ſurrounded in Zurich. They now began to retreat alſo; and the ability of Suwarrow was diſplayed in effecting his retreat in ſuch good order, and with ſuch little loſs; for his loſs in killed, wounded, and taken, did not exceed 3000 men. He was obliged, however, to abandon his baggage and cannon to the enemy.

(44.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE VICTORY OVER THE DUTCH FLEET, THE INVASION OF HOLLAND, &c. During theſe operations, Suwarrow was advancing on the ſide of Italy with an army rated, in ſome accounts, at 18,000, in others at only 15,000; and having driven the French from their ſtrong poſitions on Mount St Gothard, deſcended, on the very day on which Maſſena made his general attack, into the valley of Urſeren; and driving Lecourbe before him, with conſiderable ſlaughter, advanced as far as Altorf. He even penetrated on the next day into the canton of Glaris, and took 1000 of the French priſoners; while the Ruſſian general Rekenberg was equally ſucceſsful in the canton of Schwitz, where Gen. Auffenberg had effected a junction with him; and Gen. Linken defeated and took another corps of French, conſiſting of 1500 men. Maſſena, however, now turned upon the Field Marſhal with the greater part of his army; and, by hemming him in on all ſides, expected to have made him, and the Grand Duke Conſtantine, priſoners. Suwarrow, however, defended himſelf againſt every attack with unexampled vigour and addreſs. A ſingle paſs among the mountains was all that remained unoccupied by the French. He diſcovered this, and eſcaped, though cloſely purſued. He loſt his cannon, baggage, and proviſions, among the dreadful mountains and precipices with which that country abounds. He made his way, however, eaſtward through the Griſon country, and at length arrived at Coire with about 6000 men in great diſtreſs. Nothing could exceed the indignation of this old warrior, when he diſcovered the manner in which affairs had been conducted, the hazardous ſtate in which the Ruſſians had been abandoned by the Archduke, and the conſequent ruin which they had encountered. He conſidered himſelf and his countrymen as treacherouſly expoſed to deſtruction; he loudly complained of the commander of the allied forces in Switzerland; publicly taxed the council of Vienna with ſelfiſhneſs and injuſtice; and refuſed all farther co-operation with the Auſtrian army. He ſent an account of the whole tranſaction to St Peterſburgh in a letter, of which the compoſition would do honour to the fineſt writer of the age, and withdrew with his troops to the neighbourhood of Augſburg, to wait for farther orders. In the mean time, Great Britain prepared to invade Holland with an army of 40,000 men, conſiſting of Britiſh troops and Ruſſian auxiliaries. The firſt diviſion, under Gen. Sir Ralph Abercromby, ſailed in Auguſt, under the protection of a fleet commanded by Adm. Lord Duncan. Bad weather prevented a landing from being attempted till the 27th. On the morning of that day the troops landed without oppoſition upon the ſhore of Helder Point in N. Holland, at the entrance to the Zuyder Zee. They had not been expected in this quarter, and the troops in the neighbourhood were conſequently few. The Britiſh, however, had no ſooner begun to move forward, than they were attacked by a conſiderable body of infantry, cavalry, and artillery, who had been haſtily aſſembled from the neareſt towns. The Dutch troops maintained the conteſt with much obſtinacy; but they were gradually fatigued by the ſteady oppoſition they encountered, and retired 6 miles. In the night they evacuated the fort of Helder, of which the Britiſh took poſſeſſion on the morning of the 28th. A detachment from the Britiſh fleet, commanded by Vice Admiral Mitchell, now entered the Zuyder Zee, by the ſtrait of the Texel, to attack the Dutch fleet under Adm. Story; who, inſtead of retiring for ſafety to any of the ports, or to the ſhallow water with which that ſea abounds, ſurrendered the whole fleet on the 30th Aug. without firing a gun, under pretence that his ſeamen were mutinous, and would not fight. Had the expedition terminated here, it might have been regarded as extremely fortunate, and as eſtabliſhing the power of the Britiſh navy without a rival. But it was reſolved to follow up this firſt ſucceſs by an effort on land to reſtore the authority of the Stadtholder, and the ancient government of the United Provinces. Many circumſtances were hoſtile to this enterpriſe. The

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whole army had not been sent at once from Britain. As no more than the first division had arrived, the troops could only rest upon the ground they had gained till reinforcements should be sent. The terror arising from the first appearance of an invading army was thus allowed to pass away, the friends of the Stadtholder were discouraged, and leisure was afforded to adopt effectual measures of defence. The place where the landing was effected was well chosen for an attack upon the Dutch fleet; but for an invasion, with a view to the restoration of the Stadtholder, it was the worst that could have been selected. North Holland, at the extremity of which it was made, is a narrow peninsula, everywhere intersected by canals and ditches, of about 40 miles in length. Here the invaders might be detained, and even successfully resisted, by a force greatly inferior to their own. This also is the quarter of the country the most unfavourable to the cause of the Stadtholder. In Zealand, where his estates are situated, and in Rotterdam, which is full of Scotsmen and families of Scottish extraction, his friends are numerous and powerful; but in Amsterdam, and in N. Holland, which is under its influence, his enemies abound, and the resistance to his power has been very great during every period of the Dutch history. The rainy season too was approaching, which renders a winter campaign in Holland almost impossible. Amidst the pressure of the difficulties which surrounded them, the French Directory hesitated much about undertaking the defence of Holland; but the place, and the time of landing the invading army soon determined them. Gen. Brune was sent with troops to support the Dutch General Daendels. Gen. Abercromby, in the mean time, remained upon the defensive at Schager Brug, waiting for reinforcements. His inactivity encouraged the enemy on the 10th Sept. to venture an attack upon his position. They advanced in 3 columns, two of Dutch, and one of French troops. They were repulsed, however, in all quarters, and retired to Alkmaer. On the 13th the Duke of York arrived with additional troops, and assumed the chief command. The Russian auxiliaries having also arrived, offensive operations were immediately resolved upon. On the 19th the army advanced. Gen. Abercromby commanded the left, which proceeded along the shore of the Zuyder Zee against Hoorne. The centre columns were commanded by Generals Dundas and Pultney; and the right wing, consisting of Russians, was commanded by their own general, D'Herman. By some strange misunderstanding, the Russians advanced to the attack soon after 3 o'clock A. M. which was some hours previous to the movement of the rest of the army. They were successful in their first efforts, and obtained possession of the village of Bergen; but pressing eagerly forward, and being unsupported by the other columns, they were nearly surrounded. Their commander was taken prisoner; and though the British came in time to protect their retreat, they lost at least 3000 men. This failure on the right obliged the British Commander in Chief to recal his troops from the whole advanced positions they had gained, though Gen. Abercromby had actually taken Hoorne with its garrison, and although Gene Pultney's column had carried by assault the pr cipal position of the Dutch army called *Ou Carspel*. The severity of the weather prevent another attack till the 2d of Oct. when, after engagement that lasted from 6 A. M. till 6 P. the British army succeeded in driving the unit Dutch and French troops from Alkmaer and t villages in its neighbourhood. The contest w chiefly conducted among the sand hills in the cinity of the ocean; and the battle was mainta ed with such obstinacy, that the fatigue of t troops, with the difficult nature of the coun prevented the British from gaining any great vantage in the pursuit. The retreating army i mediately occupied a new position between verwyck and Wyck-op-zee. The Duke of Y once more attacked them on the 6th; and a an obstinate and bloody engagement, which maintained till night, he remained in possessio the field of battle. But this was the last succ of the invaders. Finding himself unable to m farther progress, in consequence of the increa numbers of the enemy, the impracticable nat of the country, and the badness of the weath which, during the whole of 1799, was unusu severe, the Duke of York retired to Schager Br and waited for orders from England to ret home. He was, in the mean time, closely pre by the united Dutch and French forces, to th his embarkation must have been attended w much hazard. He therefore entered into a c vention with the French and Dutch generals; which it was agreed, that they should no farth molest him in his retreat, and that, in return, should not injure the country by breaking do any of the dykes which protect it against the and that Great Britain should restore to Fra and Holland 8000 prisoners of war, taken pre ous to this campaign.

(15.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY THE, UNTIL THE USURPATION OF THE G VERNMENT BY BONAPARTE. In consequence the events above related, the affairs of France gan to assume a less unfavourable aspect. Th were indeed driven to the extremities of Ita Championet was defeated in every effort wh he there made against the Austrians during rest of the year, and Ancona, which was the place of any strength possessed by the French, so surrendered on the 13th Nov. to General F lich; but they retained the Genoese territo and Switzerland and Holland continued un their power. The new coalition against th seemed once more ready to dissolve. From commencement of the French revolution, a of selfishness had mingled with all the efforts by the continental powers of Europe again and had rendered them fruitless. To prevent aggrandisement of Austria, Prussia had withdrawn, and still stood aloof. Spain and land were retained under the influence of Fr by the efforts of her arms, and by the unio diffusion of her democratic principles among people. Even the British cabinet, which of all European powers has remained most true to original purpose of the war, sometimes for that object. Thus, when invading Holland,

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Dutch were informed, by a proclamation, that their ancient government was to be reſtored; but no offer was made to reſtore their diſtant poſſeſſions. Of all the coaleſced powers, however, Auſtria purſued her ſeparate intereſts with the leaſt diſguiſe. With much facility ſhe relinquiſhed the Netherlands, and ſuffered the principal bulwarks of Germany, Mentz, and Ehrenbreitſtein, to fall into the hands of the French, upon obtaining in exchange the Venetian territories, which Bonaparte had conquered, and thought himſelf authoriſed to *ſell*. During this campaign, the whole conqueſts made by the united efforts of the Auſtrian and Ruſſian forces were ſeized by Auſtria in her own name, and none of the Princes of Italy obtained leave to reſume the government of their own territories. This conduct on the part of the allies gave every advantage to the French. They broke off the negociations at Liſle, under the pretence of defending the Dutch and Spaniſh ſettlements which the Britiſh government refuſed to relinquiſh. They found it eaſy to alarm the King of Pruſſia, by diſplaying the unbounded ambition of the houſe of Auſtria; and Paul, the Emperor of Ruſſia, having publicly declared to the members of the German empire, that the purpoſe for which he had taken up arms was not to diſmember France, but to reſtore peace to Europe, became jealous of the Court of Vienna, when he ſaw it purſue a conduct ſo very different. This jealouſy was encreaſed by the misfortunes of the Ruſſian troops; and all circumſtances ſeemed now to promiſe that the new coalition would ſpeedily be deſerted by its northern auxiliary. While affairs were in this ſtate, an event occurred which exhibited the French Revolution under a new aſpect. When Bonaparte found himſelf compelled to retreat, baffled and diſgraced, from the ruins of Acre, he learned that a Turkiſh army was ready to invade Egypt by ſea. He returned, therefore, with his uſual celerity, by way of Suez, acroſs the deſert of Arabia Petrea, which divides Syria from that country, and was in the neighbourhood of the Pyramids on the 11th of July, when an army of 18,000 Turks landed from their ſhips at Aboukir. They took this fort by aſſault, and maſſacred the French garriſon of 500 men that it contained. On the 15th, Bonaparte began to march down the country againſt them. On the 25th he came in ſight of them, at 6 o'clock A. M. Like the Auſtrians, they had divided their force into two parts, which were encamped on the oppoſite ſides of a beautiful plain. He had now formed a conſiderable body of cavalry, by obtaining for his men fleet horſes from Arabia. Theſe advanced rapidly into the centre of the Turkiſh army, and cut off the communication between its different parts. His infantry then attacked the right, which was the weakeſt diviſion of the Turks. Panic ſtruck, they attempted to fly to their ſhips, and were all drowned. The left diviſion of the Turks was next attacked. It made a more obſtinate reſiſtance, but was alſo put to flight. Some caſt themſelves into the ſea, and periſhed in attempting to reach their fleet; the reſt took refuge in the fort of Aboukir. The news of this battle reached France about the end of September, and revived the memory of Bonaparte's victories, contraſted with the reverſes which the Republican armies had lately experienced. On the 10th Oct. a diſpatch was received from him by the Directory, and read to the Councils, giving an account of the capture of the fort of Aboukir, with the whole remains of the Turkiſh army. On the 14th, a meſſage from the Directory announced, to the aſtoniſhment of all men, that Bonaparte, along with his principal officers, had juſt arrived in France, and that they left the army in Egypt in a proſperous ſtate. This laſt part of the meſſage was ſoon afterwards proved, by the intercepted letters of Kleber, and the other generals left behind, to be a ſcandalous falſehood. In one of theſe letters, Pouſſielgue ſays, "Every victory carries off ſome of our beſt troops, and their loſs cannot be repaired. A defeat would annihilate us all; and however brave the army may be, it cannot long avert that fatal event." Bonaparte, however, was received at Paris with diſtinction, though nobody could tell why he had deſerted his army and come thither. The parties in the government were equally balanced; and both the Jacobins, and what were called the *Moderates*, ſolicited his aſſiſtance. The Jacobins ſtill poſſeſſed a majority in the Council of Five Hundred; but in the other Council their antagoniſts were ſuperior. The Director Sieyes was underſtood to be of the party of the Moderates; and the Jacobins had of late unſucceſsfully attempted to remove him from his office, under pretence that the interval appointed by the conſtitution had not elapſed from his going out of the Council of Five Hundred to his election to the office of director. Neither party was ſatisfied with the exiſting authorities; but none of the uſual indications of approaching hoſtilities appeared. The Jacobins were far from ſuſpecting that Sieyes had a plot ripe for execution, which was to overwhelm them in an inſtant. They were even in ſome meaſure laid aſleep by an artful ſcene of feſtivity, in which the whole members of the Councils were induced to engage, on the 6th of November, under pretence of doing honour to the arrival of Bonaparte. On the morning of the 9th, one of the committees of the Council of Ancients, called the committee of Inſpectors of the Hall, preſented a report; in which they aſſerted, that the country was in danger, and propoſed to adjourn the ſitting of the legiſlature to St Cloud, a village about ſix miles from Paris. We have already mentioned, that the conſtitution entruſted to the Council of Ancients the power of fixing the reſidence of the legeſlative bodies, and that this Council could in no other caſe aſſume the initiative, or propoſe any law; their powers of legiſlation being otherwiſe limited to the unconditional approbation or diſapprobation of the decrees of the Council of Five Hundred. The Council of Ancients now ſuddenly decreed, that both Councils ſhould meet next day at St Cloud. As the Council of Five Hundred had no conſtitutional right to diſpute the authority of this decree, and as the ruling party in it was completely taken by ſuprize, its members ſilently ſubmitted, and both Councils aſſembled on the 10th of November at St Cloud. The Council of Five Hundred exhibited a ſcene of much agitation. They received a letter from Lavarde, ſecretary

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secretary to the Directory, stating, that four of its members had sent resignations of their offices, and that the fifth (Barras) was in custody by order of General Bonaparte, who had been appointed commander of their guard by the Council of Ancients. While the Council were deliberating, Bonaparte entered the hall, attended by about 20 officers and grenadiers. He advanced towards the chair, where his brother Lucian Bonaparte sat as president. Great confusion ensued; he was called a Cromwell, a Cæsar, an usurper. The members began to press upon him, and his countryman Arena attempted to stab him with a dagger. He was rescued by his military escort. Lucian Bonaparte then left the chair, and cast aside the badge of office which he wore as a member of the Council. The confusion did not diminish; but in a short time a party of armed men rushed into the hall, and carried off Lucian Bonaparte. A tumultuous debate now began; in which it was proposed that Bonaparte should be declared an outlaw. The debate was soon terminated, however. The doors of the hall were once more burst open. Military music was heard; and a body of troops proceeding into the hall in full array, and the members compelled to disperse. The Council of Ancients, in the mean time, setting aside the constitution, passed a variety of decrees. They abolished the Directory, and appointed in its stead an Executive Commission; to consist of Bonaparte, Sieyes, and Roger Ducos, under the appellation of CONSULS. They adjourned the sittings of the legislative bodies till the 20th of February, and appointed two committees, consisting of 21 members, selected from each of the two councils, to act as legislators in the mean time. They also expelled a great number of members from their seats in the councils. Most of the members of the Council of Five Hundred returned to Paris, after having been driven from their hall by the military; but a part of them remained at St Cloud, and, on the evening of the same day, confirmed all the decrees of the Council of Ancients. The new government entered upon its functions at Paris the following day. The city remained tranquil, and the public funds even rose on the occasion. On the 17th Nov. the consuls decreed the transportation of a great number of the leading Jacobins and zealous republicans to Guiana, and ordered many others to be imprisoned; but these decrees were speedily recalled, and affairs went on as quietly as if nothing unusual had occurred. While Bonaparte was obtaining boundless personal aggrandisement in Europe, the African expedition in which he had been engaged was unsuccessful in all its objects. His intended Indian expedition, (to which the invasion of Egypt was designed to pave the way,) was never attempted. In that quarter of the globe British valour proved completely successful, by the conquest of all Tippoo's extensive dominions. See INDIA, § 29. But to proceed with the usurpation of Bonaparte, in the middle of December, the Consuls, with their legislative committees, produced to the public their plan of a new constitution, which they presented to the primary assemblies, and which was accepted by them without opposition. We must now speak of it, as of all the other constitutions of this fluctuating *revolutionary republic*, in the *past* tense; as, by the *imperial* dignity, lately assumed by the ci-devant *first consul*, all the power of the whole French empire now centres in Bonaparte. It was a very singular production, and neither admitted of representative government, nor indeed of any other form of political freedom. Eighty men who elected their own successors, possessed under the name of a *Conservative Senate*, the power of nominating the whole legislators and executive rulers of the state; but could not themselves hold any office in either of these departments. The sovereignty was concentrated in one man, who, under the title of *First Consul*, held his power for ten years, and might be re-elected. The whole executive authority was entrusted to him, and he enjoyed the exclusive privilege of proposing new laws. He was assisted by two other consuls, who joined at his deliberations, but could not controul his will. The legislative power was entrusted to two assemblies, the one, consisting of 100 members, called a TRIBUNATE: and the other of a SENATE, of 300 members. When a law was proposed by the First Consul, the Tribunate might debate about it, but had no vote in its enactment. The Senate voted for or against its enactment, but could not debate about it. Neither the Consuls, nor the members of the legislative bodies, nor of the conservative senate were responsible for their conduct. The ministers of state, however, who were appointed by the Chief Consul, were responsible for the measures they adopted. The citizens in the primary assemblies elected one 10th of their number as candidates for inferior offices; those thus chosen, elected one 10th of themselves as candidates for higher offices; and these again elected a 10th of themselves as candidates for all the highest offices of the state. Out of this last tenth the Conservative Senate nominated the consuls, legislators, and members of their own body. But this last regulation was to have no effect till the 9th year of the republic. In the mean time the same committees that framed the constitution appointed also the whole persons who were to exercise the government. Bonaparte was appointed Chief Consul, and Cambaceres and Lebrun second and third Consuls. Sieyes, with his usual cautiousness, avoided taking any active share in the management of public affairs, and was appointed, or appointed himself, a member of his own Conservative Senate; the whole being regarded as presided by him. As a gratuity for his services, the Chief Consul and his legislators presented to him an estate belonging to the nation, called *Crosne*, in the department of Seine and Oise. Thus, after all their sanguinary struggles for freedom, the Corsican drive from their stations the representatives of the French nation, and assume possession of the government of that country, with a power more absolute than ever belonged to its ancient monarchs. The established privileges of the clergy, the nobles, and the parliaments, always restrained, in some degree, the despotism of the kings of France; these being now destroyed, the will of Bonaparte could meet with no controul. The usurper, however, he has not hitherto been a tyrant, unless the anecdotes recorded of his conduct in Syria, by Sir Robert Thomas Wilson, and Dr Wittman, be true; who both agree in relating

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the latter murthered 5000 Turkish prisoners at the siege of Jaffa, and poisoned about as many of their own heroes of Italy, who were sick of the pestilence, rather than be at the expence of maintaining them. (See the works published by these authors.) In Europe he has rather attempted to influence the French nation to acquiesce in his authority, in consequence of the mildness with which it has been exercised, and of the ability and reputation of the men whom he has employed in the public service. But this has been an art practised by most usurpers, to govern mildly, in order to reconcile the people to their usurpations. Julius Cæsar and Augustus governed Rome with mildness, but what a set of bloody tyrants followed them!

(46.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE BATTLE OF MARENGO. To render the usurpation popular, as well as to strengthen the power lent by an union of the exertions of all the great men in the republic, Bonaparte and his colleagues took care to fill the new offices of Senators and Councillors, with men of acknowledged moral or literary; such as Kellerman, Carnot, Cornè, Lenoir, Laroche, Latourche, Berthollet, Monge, Laplace, Lacepede, Volney, Garat, Chaptal, Cornudet, Chaffet, &c. in the Senate; and Fourcroy, Chaptal, Cantheaume, Regnault, Boissy de la Meurthe, Emmery, Petit, Jollivet, Tarbé, Roederer, Berlier, &c. in the Council of State. One of the first acts of the Consuls, after their installation, was to publish a manifesto addressed to the Western departments, where civil war had long prevailed, of a mild and conciliatory nature; which produced a treaty of pacification with Gen. Hedonville, and a general submission of the royalists throughout France. Another was, to pass acts in favour of emigrants, and refractory priests, &c. And while the organisation of the government was preparing, agreeably to the principles of the New Constitution, and various ameliorations were taking place throughout the republic, the chief consul endeavoured to open a communication with foreign courts to bring about a general peace. With this view, he wrote a letter to his Majesty, prefaced with the words "LIBERTY" and "EQUALITY," proposing peace; which was answered by Mr Grenville, in the refusal, chiefly on account of the then unsettled state of the French government; the solidity of which (it was observed) would require to be confirmed "by the result of experience and the evidence of facts." About this period, although no regular opposition was, or indeed could, with any probable success, be formed, in the tribunate, against the measures of government, yet the laws, when it proposed, were often the objects of keen animadversion, and sometimes of decisive refusal; as was particularly the case with the *Droit D'Aubaine*, one of the most iniquitous branches of the old system of despotism, which Bonaparte wished to have established. (See AUBAINE, and INSTRUCTION, Public.) Every attempt at a negociation for peace with Britain and Austria having failed, Bonaparte resolved to prosecute the war with vigour; and having appointed Carnot minister of war, and another commander of the army of reserve, he himself set out from Paris on the 5th of May, 1800, took the command of the army, and by a rapid and dangerous march over the precipices of mounts St Bernard, St Gothard, and other mountains of the Alps, passed the Sezia, and the Tesino, taking Novara and other towns by the way, and arrived at Milan on the 2d of June; where he and his troops were joyfully received by the inhabitants; not from gratitude for former benefits, but because the oppressions of the French had been much inferior to those of their successors, the Russians and Austrians. Mean time the advanced guard under Gen. Lannes took Pavia, where they found immense quantities of military stores: (See PAVIA, N° 1.) Gen. Duhesme pursued the Austrians across the Adda; Gen. Murat took Placentia with 2000 prisoners; Cremona and other towns successively surrendered; and Bonaparte proceeded to the re-organisation of the CISALPINE REPUBLIC. The retreat of the Austrians from the Maritime Alps made Gen. Suchet again master of that country as far as Savona, and the whole country of Nice, which had been the scene of various engagements, submitted. The Austrians, under Gen. Otto, however, made an obstinate stand against the French at Casteggio, near Montebello, which they defended with above 15,000 men. The battle was bloody; Casteggio was taken and retaken several times, and victory remained long doubtful. At last the Austrians gave way, leaving 3000 killed and wounded, and 6000 prisoners; while the French pursued them as far as Voghera. This victory was gained on the 10th of June, and was only a prelude to a still greater and more decisive one, gained by Bonaparte on the 14th at Marengo. (See MARENGO, N° 2.) Although this important victory was chiefly owing to the bravery and conduct of Gen. Desaix, who fell in the action, yet Bonaparte, with his usual good fortune, reaped all the glory and advantages resulting from it. The acts of heroism performed by the troops on both sides are hardly paralleled in the annals of history. An armistice was next day proposed by Gen. Melas, and agreed to by Bonaparte, which paved the way for the general peace, in 1801-2.

(47.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTO THE CONCLUSION OF THE TREATY OF PEACE IN 1802. The internal government of France, at this period, where the First Consul's will was almost the sole law, contains nothing interesting. But Bonaparte was not satisfied with ruling in France alone. He had conquered the greatest part of Italy, and he was resolved to govern it also. The democratic constitution of the CISALPINE REPUBLIC had been restored, and a new division made of it into 12 departments, on the 13th of May, 1802, when the citizens considered themselves as possessing a high degree of liberty; till Dec. 1801, when Bonaparte called a meeting of the *Consulta* at Lyons, to new-model their government. This consulta consisted of 450 of the Italian notables, convoked under the authority of the existing government. Talleyrand, the French minister, met with them at Lyons on the 21st Dec. and citizen Marescalchi acted as deputy from the Cisalpine notables. Bonaparte arrived at Lyons on the 11th Jan. 1802, and was received through triumphal arches, &c. with all

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the ſervile adulation, that his vanity could deſire. To prevent oppoſition to his plan, a committee of 30 was appointed to prepare the buſineſs for the aſſembly of the Conſulta. Their report was prepared by the 24th. Under the pretence, that it was neceſſary to obtain the recognition of the Ciſalpine republic from the powers of Europe, this report propoſed veſting the chief government in the hands of Bonaparte. It hinted alſo, that it was *not yet time* for the French troops to *leave it*. A minority of the conſulta expreſſed their diſſent, but the majority agreed. Taken by ſurpriſe, in a foreign country, and ſurrounded by foreign troops, reſiſtance ſeemed to be vain. On the 26th a numerous deputation from the conſulta conducted Bonaparte into their hall, ſeated him in a regal ſtate under a canopy, and informed him of his election as preſident. Never was greater vanity and ſelf-confidence exhibited in any ſpeech, than in his reply to them, or greater contempt expreſſed for the abilities of the electors, than on this occaſion. "With reſpect to that of Preſident, (ſaid he) I have found *among you no perſon*, who has *ſufficient claims* on the public opinion; who is independent enough of local attachment, or has *rendered his country ſuch important ſervices as to merit* having it conferred upon him!" After this *polite* oration, the conſtitution was read, and the name was changed from CISALPINE to ITALIAN REPUBLIC. As under that article, § 4. we have only given a ſketch of its extraordinary conſtitution, we ſhall here add the following particulars:—"The religion of the ſtate is the Roman Catholic: The *ſovereignty* reſides in the *whole of the citizens*:" (the *truth* of this will appear from what follows:) "the territory is divided into diſtricts, departments, and communes: (See ITALIAN REPUBLIC, § 5, 6.) The rights of citizenſhip belong to thoſe born of Ciſalpine fathers, who reſide in the republic: ſtrangers and perſons of talents may be naturalized. There are three electoral colleges, who meet once in two years, and ſit 14 days: 1. The college of POSSIDENTI conſiſts of 300 citizens, *poſſeſſed* of an annual income from land of 8000 livres. They meet at Milan. Every department ſends a member in the proportion of one to 30,000. 2. The College of the *Dotti* conſiſts of 200 citizens, choſen from thoſe moſt eminent in arts and ſciences. It meets at Bologna. 3. The College of *Commercianti* conſiſts of 200 citizens, choſen from among *commercial* men. The *Cenſurati* is a committee of 21 members, nominated by the colleges, of whom 17 is a quorum. It ſits only 10 days. The government reſides in the Preſident, Vice-preſident, Conſulta of State; miniſters and legiſlative body. The preſident retains his office 10 years, and is re-eligible. With him *all laws originate*, and he has the ſole conduct of all diplomatic negociations. He has the *whole executive power*. He appoints the vice-preſident, the miniſters, the civil agents, chiefs of the army, &c. His ſalary is 500,000 livres of Milan: that of the Vice-preſident is 100,000. The *Conſulta of the State* conſiſts of 8 perſons, aged above 40, elected for life by the colleges. They are charged with all matters reſpecting foreign affairs; yet nothing comes under their deliberation, *except what the Preſident chooſes*. Their ſalaries are 30,000 livres each. The *Legiſlative Council* conſiſts of 10 members, aged above who are appointed by the Preſident. They h a deliberative voice on the projects propoſed the Preſident, and are ſpecially charged w drawing up the laws. Their ſalary is 20 livres each. The *Legiſlative Body*, (which is tinct from the Legiſlative *Council*,) is compo of 75 members, aged above 30, choſen by e department, according to its population: half are taken from the colleges: One third g out every two years. The going out of the and 2d third is decided by lot. The governm convokes and prorogues the legiſlative body: ſeſſion cannot be leſs than two months annu The ſalary of each member is 6000 livres. *Tribunals*, civil and military, are on the pla the French. The judges are for life. The m bers of the Colleges, the Cenſurati, the Preſid Vice-preſident, and Conſulta are *not reſponſi* but the miniſters are. The freedom of religi worſhip is declared. No armed body can d berate." Such is the conſtitution given by Firſt Conſul of France, to the Citizens of It who had ſtruggled ſo hard for their liberty. It quires no comment. The reader will ſee, th more arbitrary ſyſtem does not exiſt. Thus dominion of the faireſt portion of Italy was ad to the overgrown power of France, and with centered in the perſon of the Firſt Conſul. Ab this period too the duchies of PARMA and P CENTIA were annexed to the French republi more properly *empire*. Yet at this time B parte had not attained to unlimited power in French republic. The ſeſſion of the legiſla bodies terminated in 1801, not entirely to the tisfaction, either of the members, or of the F Conſul. The diſpleaſure of the latter was evin in his concluding meſſage, dated 28th Dec. 18 which withdrew the plans ſubmitted to t conſideration reſpecting the civil code. It preſſed, that "it was with regret the governm found itſelf obliged to poſtpone to another per the confideration of laws ſo anxiouſly expec by the people; but the time was *not yet* arriv when theſe diſcuſſions might take place with t calmneſs and unity of intention which they quired." From this meſſage, it was evident, ſome alteration was to be made in theſe a blies. Accordingly, in Feb. 1802, the time fo electing the members of the legiſlative body tribunate, among the 5th part, who were exc ed by the vote of the ſenate, were the chief ponents of the court meaſures, viz. Alexan Bailleul, Barra, Barthelemy, Cambe, Chaal, C nier, Benj. Conſtant, Courtois, Daunon, De naudes, Ganilk, Garat, Maillin, Ginguene, Iſn Legier, Parent Real, St Aubin, Thibault, Thieſſe; many of them among the moſt reſp able patriots who had appeared in the courſ the revolution. The ſame mode was purſued w reſpect to the legiſlative body, and every th foreboded the ſpeedy and total extinction of f dom, even to the very *name*. Among the pr ratory ſteps taken for this purpoſe by Bonapa was the inſtitution of a new ariſtocracy, ema ing from himſelf alone, under the name of *Legion of Honour*; in which every man to be rol

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refusal was to have attained a certain rank in the army, or to have performed some eminent military service. Bonaparte next exhibited his zeal for religion, by promoting a plan for the re-establishment of the Catholic Church. This was concerted with the Pope, Pius VII, who owed his elevation to Bonaparte, and is well known by the name of the *Concordat*. With its terms, which we need not quote, as it contains only mutual concessions, the majority of the French clergy readily complied. Like the politic Henry VIII, Bonaparte took care to retain in his own hands, the power of nomination to the benefices of all the dignified clergy. An oath of fidelity to the French republic is enjoined by the Concordat to be taken by all clergymen, and prayers to be put up for them, for the republic and the *Consuls*. Many French citizens, however, protestants, free-thinkers, &c. were displeased with the Concordat. While these measures were carrying on in France, negociations for a general peace were proceeding slowly at Amiens. The preliminary articles had been signed in Oct. 1801, but during the conferences among the plenipotentiaries, many difficulties had occurred, particularly respecting the island of MALTA, which protracted the negotiations for near 6 months. Lord Cornwallis acted as plenipotentiary for Great Britain; Joseph Bonaparte, a brother of the Chief Consul, for the French republic; Don Joseph Nicolas D'Azara, plenipotentiary for Spain; Roger John Schimmelpenninck for the Batavian republic. At last the general terms were agreed upon, and the treaty signed: Of this treaty, which consists of 22 articles, the following are the principal; 1. Peace to be established. 2. Prisoners to be exchanged. All possessions and colonies conquered by the allies to be restored, except Trinidad and Ceylon, (q. v.) which are ceded to Britain by the king of Spain and the Batavian republic. 6. The port of the Cape of Good Hope to be restored to the Batavian republic, and the ships of all the contracting parties to have free entry to it. 7. The territories of the Q. of Portugal to be preserved entire, and the boundaries of French and Portuguese Guiana to be fixed by the river Arawari, from its mouth to its source, and thence to Rio Branco; the navigation being common to both. The arrangements of their boundaries in Europe to be adhered to according to the treaty of Badajos. 8. The territories of the Sublime Porte to be adhered to as before the war. 9. The republic of the Seven Islands is recognised. 10. The islands of Malta, Gozo, and Comino, to be restored to the Order of St John of Jerusalem, as before the war: and neither the English nor French languages to be used in them. The British troops to evacuate them within 3 months. Their independence guaranteed by France, Great Britain, Austria, Spain, Russia, and Prussia; their neutrality proclaimed; and their ports open to all nations. 11. The French to evacuate Naples, and the British Porto Ferrajo. 12. These evacuations, cessions, &c. to be executed within a month, as in America and Asia, within 3 months. 13. The forts restored to be put *in statu quo*. The inhabitants to have time to move, &c. 14. All sequestrations to be taken off. 15. The fisheries of Newfoundland to be regulated as before the war. 16. Ships and property taken after this period to be restored. 17. Ambassadors to be sent as formerly. 18. The Stadtholder to be compensated for his losses. 19. The Sublime Ottoman Porte to be invited to accede to this treaty. 20. The contracting parties mutually to deliver up criminals flying from justice. 21. They reciprocally guarantee to each other all the above stipulations. 22. The treaty to be ratified in 30 days, and the ratifications exchanged at Paris. Dated at Amiens, 4 Germinal, year 10; March 25th, 1802; and signed by *Bonaparte*, *Cornwallis*, *Azara*, and *Schimmelpenninck*. On Easter Sunday, the 18th April 1802, the restoration of peace, and of religion, were celebrated at Paris, with great splendor; and at different periods all over Europe.

(48.) REVOLUTION OF FRANCE, HISTORY OF THE, UNTO THE CORONATION OF NAPOLEON, EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH. The peace with Britain having left the seas once more open to the French marine, Bonaparte embraced the opportunity to gratify his despotic disposition, by endeavouring to subjugate a people, who had long struggled for liberty, and had at last attained it in a considerable degree, though they were still willing to own the French republic, as their mother country. These were the Negroes and people of colour in the island of Hispaniola, or St Domingo, of whose long and bloody contest for their liberties, and of whose excellent republican constitution, enacted by their general Toussaint L'Ouverture, we have given a particular account under the article, HISPANIOLA, § 4 and 7. This extraordinary negro, by his courage, humanity and other virtues, had reconciled the jarring factions that had long distracted the island, mitigated the ferocity of his countrymen, and restored peace and harmony among the inhabitants. Had Bonaparte possessed a particle of virtue, or humanity, he would have venerated such a character, and by conciliatory measures have preserved the attachment of the people to the French republic. But force was more agreeable to his temper and habits, and therefore he resolved to make this unfortunate island once more a scene of blood and slaughter, rather than allow a republic to exist, which enjoyed more *freedom* than France, or a legislator to govern it upon more liberal principles, than he himself wished to cherish. For this purpose he fitted out a fleet on the 14th Dec. 1801, of 26 ships of war, with transports, under Adm. Villaret, on board of which were embarked 25,000 men, the flower of the French armies, under Gen. Leclerc, Bonaparte's brother-in-law. A Spanish squadron and a fleet from the Texel also accompanied it. Single ships and small squadrons sailed afterwards with re-inforcements; so that the whole may be estimated at 40,000 men. On approaching the harbour of the Cape, on the 4th Feb. the French Admiral was refused admittance by the negro general, Christophe, who threatened to burn the town, if the French attempted to land. A deputation from the inhabitants also intreated him to desist, and prevent their destruction. Mean time he learned, that Rochambeau had landed at

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Fort Dauphine on the 5th, and on the 6th he landed his troops just in time to save the lower part of the city, which had been set on fire, and the negroes retreated. We hasten through the rest of this bloody business. On the 17th Feb. the French divisions advanced under great disadvantages of ground; on the 29th the 3 grand divisions made a farther movement; and on the 30th that of Gen. De Fourneux took Plaisance, without resistance, when the French were joined by one of the black generals, with 300 cavalry and 300 infantry. Gen. Hardy's division took Marmelade, which was defended by the negro general, Christophe, with above 1500 troops. Gen. Michaud took St Michael, which was defended by 490 men. Mean time the negroes under Maurepas had gained some advantages over Gen. Humbert, who formerly commanded in the invasion of Ireland, and was now compelled to retreat with considerable loss on the 20th Feb. 1802. On the 22d Gen. Christophe was again defeated, and dislodged by Gen. Hardy from a post near Plaisance; whence he retreated to Gonaives, burning and destroying every thing in his way, according to the French accounts. On the 24th Gen. Rochambeau entered a ravine at Coleure, where Toussaint L'Overture with a guard of 1200 men, 100 dragoons, and 20000 irregular troops had taken a strong position. Leclerc owns, that they fought well, but were obliged to yield to superior numbers. Toussaint retired in disorder, leaving 800 men on the field. On the 27th Gen. Boudet took St Mark. Maurepas still retained his position, but Leclerc, following his brother-in-law's example, bought off this general, who afforded the first instance of treason which Toussaint experienced. Maurepas had with him 2000 regulars, and 7 pieces of cannon; and had previously disbanded 8000 negroes, whom probably he found not so pliable. After these defeats Toussaint was no longer able to keep the field; yet he had many resources in the natural ruggedness of the island, the many fastnesses it affords, the constitutions of the negroes inured to the climate, and their desultory mode of warfare. In the beginning of March, Gen. Leclerc arrived at Port Republicain, which he found uninjured; and the good state of the adjacent country he ascribed to the negro general La Plume. The town of Leogane was, however, burnt by Dessalines, another negro general, who has since succeeded L'Ouverture, and now governs the island; though with much more barbarity. The fort of Crete a Pierrot, 8 leagues from St Mark, fell soon after Fort Republicain. The loss of the Negroes in these battles is estimated by Leclerc at 8000 men; his own at 508. The baggage of Dessalines was taken in the fort. After remaining for some time an exile in the woods, at the head of 500 men, the indefatigable L'Ouverture, in April, effected a junction with Christophe, who had still 300 negroes; and attacked Gen. Des Fourneux before Plaisance, but was repulsed. He however, rallied, raised the planters of the North, and attacked the Cape; but it was defended by Gen. Boyer, and the artillery from the fleet, and finally relieved by Gen. Hardy. After this Dessalines being again defeated, and Christophe, the mulatto general, having submitted, as well as Paul L'Ouverture, the brother of Toussaint, with 2000 negroes, Toussaint himself entered into negociations with the French general, through the medium of Gen. Boudet, which ended in their submission. The infamous part, which the French government has since acted to Gen. L'Ouverture, has rendered necessary for it to conceal, with an impenetrable veil, the *terms* of this treaty. But it is universally supposed to have had for its basis not only the personal liberty and indemnity of Toussaint but also the secure and unisturbed possession of his property; without which, it is incredible, that at the head of so respectable a force as he still possessed, he could have submitted. It is said that even *more* was promised, but when compacts are not intended to be kept, the party who means to violate may promise very liberally. A series of perfidy and cruelty, almost unexampled laid the foundation of fresh calamities to the French in Hispaniola. Leclerc no sooner got the negro chief in his power, and the tranquillity of the colony apparently re-established, than he planned the basest act of treachery that ever disgraced a government. Toussaint was accused of a conspiracy, which it was evident, there was not time, from his submission to his seizure, even to mediate, much less to organise: and on the 18th May, the brave negro, with his *whole family*, were put aboard a frigate, and contrary to the most solemn treaty, shipped off for France. The cruelty of this proceeding justly excited the indignation of all Europe. Had Toussaint been guilty of a conspiracy, some evidence of it ought to have been laid before the public; but not a shadow of proof has been offered, but the simple assertion of Leclerc. But had the supposed crime of Toussaint even been proved by the most satisfactory evidence, still his infant children merited no part of the punishment. Thus fell a negro hero, who if he had not trusted to French faith, might by perseverance either have expelled the enemy from the island as his successor Dessalines has since done, or at least have died gloriously in the field, instead of perishing in a prison at Paris. The consequences of this illiberal and treacherous system of policy are such as the French merited. The negroes of Hispaniola saw themselves deceived and betrayed. They were promised freedom, but were again sold as slaves. Christophe and Dessalines fled to the woods. The whole island revolted. The climate assisted these avengers of tyranny and falsehood. The perfidious Leclerc fell a victim to it. And a series of horrors and atrocities even worse than those which disgrace the memories of Marat, Robespierre and Carrier, and which will long remain a stain on the French character, the republic had to regret the loss of 60,000 of her best troops in a vain attempt to subjugate a colony, which by mild measures, might have been conciliated and produced a lasting benefit and revenue to the mother country, to the end of time. The French are now (1805,) totally expelled from it, and the name and character of a Frenchman held in abhorrence by the whole inhabitants. In the island of GUADALOUPE, the arms of the republic were more successful, and her agents more prudent. The year 1801, however, had terminated with an insurrection of the mulattoes,

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de ma Pelagie; who seized the governor, Gen. Lacrosse, and forced him on board a vessel in the road ready to sail. This vessel was soon after taken by a British ship, and carried into Fort Royal, in Martinico. The British governor, having just heard, that the preliminaries of peace were signed, sent back the governor to Guadaloupe, who sent the mulatto general, Pelagie, had dismissed all the white people from their offices; re-established the municipalities abolished by Lacrosse; placed people of colour at the head of every department, and disorganised the army. He did not however abuse his power. The troops under Gen. Bonvet and Gen. Richepanse, did not arrive till the 7th of May. The people received the French with shouts of *Vive la republique*. The troops formed in the Place de la Victoire, when Pelagie assured the general of the entire submission of the whole island. Ignace, however, another rebel chief, stood out for a few days, but after a little skirmishing, the negroes and mulattoes were totally dispersed, and the rebellion completely reduced by the 23d of May. But while these transactions were going on in the colonies, it was not consistent with the base and unenlightened policy of the consular government, that any benefit should arise out of all the sufferings and calamities, which the French revolution had occasioned; or that human nature should derive any advantage in one single point from all that French valour and humanity had enacted; but that every ancient abuse should be restored; even in a worse form than it existed in before. By a law passed by the legislative body, on the 17th May 1802, SLAVERY was re-established in all the French Colonies, on the same footing on which it existed previous to 1789; and the SLAVE TRADE, and importation of the negroes, were ordered to be renewed with all the encouragement, which had been given to that detestable traffic during the ancient government. Bonaparte having now acquired an unlimited control over the whole of Italy, the Batavian, Ligurian, and Helvetic republics, began to increase his power and influence in the French republic, which he had now evolved into a kind of military tyranny. All Europe was astonished at the insidious insolence of a proposal made in the Tribunate on the 6th of May to decree some *striking* mark of the *national gratitude* to Bonaparte. But what gratitude, it was naturally asked, was due to Bonaparte, more than to Moreau, Massena, or even the ill used Pichegru? Bonaparte had been already by far over paid, for all his services. The mark of national gratitude, proposed by the tribunate, was explained by the Senate to be the *re-election* of Bonaparte as First Consul, for *other ten years*, succeeding the ten for which he was already elected. This new dignity was received by the First Consul with his usual solemnity of grimace and affectation; but he pretended to decline till it should be confirmed by the votes of the citizens. It was therefore decreed that registers should be opened for inscribing the votes of the citizens. But while this apparently popular measure was carrying forward, the chief consul, whose ambition was not yet gratified, took care, that his adulators should have the question, "Shall Bonaparte be First Consul *for life?*"—At such a crisis, and under a military government, the citizens could refuse nothing. Among the millions of democrates, which the Revolution had exhibited, only two men had the courage to express their dissent, viz. the celebrated ex-director, CARNOT: who added to his dignified vote and signature, "I have signed *my own proscription;*"—and a Clerk in the treasury, whose name seems to have been concealed by his friends, for we have never met with it. But Bonaparte's vanity was not even *yet* fully gratified. Before these two questions had time to receive the assent of the citizens, a 3d was started, "Shall Bonaparte be invested with the power of *naming his successor?*"—The first, who had the insolence to affix this liberticide sentiment to his suffrage was the mayor of Paris! Mean time addresses approving of all these measures poured in from various quarters. But addresses do not always express the sense of a nation. The citizens of Paris appeared extremely backward in affixing their signatures; and it was the 29th of July nearly 9 months from the opening of the registers, before a communication was made by government to the Senate, of the result. The Senate appointed a committee to inspect the registers: and on the 2d of Aug. 1802, a *senatus consultum* was issued declaring the state of the votes to be 3,568 185 in favour of the question that "Bonaparte should be first consul for life." Thus, after all the exertions of Bonaparte and his flatterers, with all their wide extended influence, they were only able to procure little more than 3½ millions to approve of the flavish measure, out of a population of about 28 millions! The act of the Senate was presented to the First Consul on the 3d Aug. and Barthelemy the president, disgraced a character hitherto respectable, by becoming the organ of a piece of gross flattery to a man, who had long been the decided enemy to liberty. Bonaparte, with his usual hypocrisy replied, "The life of a citizen belongs to his country. The French people wish, that the whole of mine should be devoted to them. I obey their *will*:" adding, that "he was *called by* HIM, *from whom all things emanate*, to restore upon earth justice, order, and *equality*." The usual nonsense of illuminations, &c. followed in the evening of the 4th Aug. and foreign monarchs were mean enough to send addresses of congratulation to this *upstart* sovereign. The *Legion of honour* formerly mentioned was proposed on the 15th May, in the Legislative body by Roederer, as a means of preserving the *grandeur* of the Republic. It was now instituted, and ordained to consist of a grand council of administration, and 15 cohorts; to each of which is assigned an annual produce of 200,000 francs, or L. 5000 Ster. The first consul is chief of the legion, and of the grand council. Each cohort consists of 7 grand officers, whose pay is L. 200 each; 20 commandants; 30 officers, whose pay is L. 40 each; and 350 legionaries, whose pay is L. 20 each. Military men, who have received arms of honour, are members of the legion; and those who have rendered eminent services to the state, in the cause of *Liberty!!!* may be nominated members. Thus the consular throne was not only made permanent, but a new order of *nobility* was created for its protection;

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tection; at the head of which was placed Joſeph Bonaparte, the Conſul's brother. All this however, was not enough for Bonaparte. On the 4th of Aug. a *project* was introduced into the ſenate from the Council of State, which in the fitting of a *ſingle day*, was adopted and promulgated as a *Senatus Conſultum*, or act of the *Conſervative Senate!* It conſiſts of ten titles or chapters. I. The 1ſt. expreſſes, that each *Juriſdiction* of a Juſtice of the peace has a cantonal aſſembly; that each cantonal diſtrict, or ſub-prefecture, has an electoral college for the circuit or diſtrict; and each department an electoral college for the department. II. The 2d regards the *Cantonal Aſſemblies*, which are compoſed of all the citizens in the canton. The Firſt Conſul appoints the Preſidents of theſe. Their functions continue for 5 years; and they may be re-appointed indefinitely. Each of them is aſſiſted by 4 inſpectors: 2 of them the oldeſt, and 2 of them the *moſt heavily taxed* of the citizens. The cantonal aſſembly is divided into ſections. It returns 2 perſons, out of whom the firſt conſul nominates a juſtice of the peace and a *ſuppleant*, who hold their places ten years. In cities containing 5000 perſons, the cantonal aſſembly preſents 2 perſons for each ſeat in the municipal council; the members of which are taken, by each cantonal aſſembly, from a liſt of 100 of the moſt heavily taxed in the canton. The municipal councils are renewed one half in ten years. The firſt Conſul chooſes the mayors and aſſiſtants, of the municipal councils, who remain 5 years, and may be re-appointed. The central aſſembly nominates to the electoral college of the circuit, or to that of the department. The members of the electoral colleges muſt reſide in their circuits or departments. The government convokes the central aſſemblies, and fixes the time and object of their meeting. III. The *Electoral Colleges* of the circuits have one member for every 500 inhabitants: the number cannot exceed 200, nor be leſs than 120. The departmental Colleges have one member for every 1000 inhabitants; and cannot exceed 300, nor be under 200. The members of electoral colleges are for life. If a member be denounced by government, the college gives its opinion; but 3 4ths of the members are neceſſary to expel him. A member abſent 3 times loſes his place. The preſidents are appointed by the Firſt Conſul. They name 2 inſpectors and a ſecretary. To form the electoral colleges of the departments, a liſt is drawn up, by the miniſters of finance of 600 citizens the moſt heavily taxed, from which the cantonal aſſembly ſelect the members to be appointed to the departmental college. The Firſt Conſul *may add* to the electoral colleges of circuit 20 members from the legion of honour: to thoſe of the departments 20; viz. 10 from the legion, and 10 from the 30 moſt heavily taxed. The electoral colleges of circuit, preſent to the Firſt Conſul 2 citizens for each vacant ſeat in the council. The councils of circuits are renewed by 3ds every 5 years. The electoral college of the department preſents 2 citizens, to form a liſt from which the legiſlative body is to be choſen. The members of the legiſlative body cannot attend the electoral colleges, to which they belong; other public functionaries may attend and vote. The electoral colleges can only aſſemble by order of government, and can only take cognizance of things preſcribed by it. If they exceed their powers, they may be diſſolved by the government. IV. The CONSULS are for life: they are members of the Senate, and act as preſidents. The 2d and 3d conſuls are appointed by the Senate, on the preſentation of the Firſt. On a vacancy the Firſt Conſul preſents; and if the perſon be not accepted, a 2d or 3d. But the 3d *muſt* be accepted. If the Firſt Conſul chooſes, *he names his ſucceſſor*. Oaths to the republic are taken by the Conſuls and all other officers of ſtate. If the perſon named by the Firſt Conſul be not appointed, or if he neglect to name one, the 2d and 3d conſul name one, &c. The 3d nomination is definitive. The ſucceſſion muſt be declared 24 hours after the death of the Firſt Conſul. V. The SENATE by organic *ſenatus conſulta*, regulates the conſtitution of the colonies; every thing not provided for by the conſtitution; interprets the articles of the conſtitution. By ordinary ſenatus conſulta *it ſuſpends the functions of juries;* proclaims departments *out of the protection of the law*, determines *when* perſons arreſted are to be brought before tribunals; annuls judgments; diſſolves legiſlative bodies, &c. A ſimple majority determines an ordinary ſenatus conſultum; for an organic ſenatus conſultum two 3ds are required. The projects of all ſenatus conſulta are diſcuſſed previouſly by a privy council appointed by the Firſt Conſul. He ratifies treaties with advice of privy council. He nominates 14 to complete the number of 80 ſenators, from a liſt choſen by the electoral colleges. The members of the grand council of honour are members of the Senate. The Firſt Conſul may nominate any diſtinguiſhed perſons to the Senate without being preſented by the electoral colleges, the number not to exceed 120. The ſenators may be conſuls, miniſters, &c. The miniſters have ſeats, but not votes in the Senate, unleſs they be ſenators. VI. The *Counſellors of State* do not exceed 50. The Council is divided into ſections. The miniſters have ſeats and votes in the Council. VII. The *Legiſlative Body* is choſen from the departments in proportion to the extent of population, &c. The departments are divided into 5 ſeries; to be renewed in the year to which each ſeries is referred. The government convokes, adjourns, &c. the legiſlative body. VIII. The TRIBUNATE, in the year 13, is to be reduced to 50; and till this time, thoſe who go out are not to be replaced. The legiſlative body and tribunate, on diſſolution, are renewed wholly by the ſenate. IX. For the adminiſtration of JUSTICE there is a grand Judge, who has a place in the ſenate and council of ſtate. He ſuperintends all tribunals and juſtices of peace. The tribunals of appeal have a ſuperintendance over the civil tribunals within their juriſdiction; and the civil tribunals over the juſtices of peace of their diſtrict. The commiſſioners of government to the tribunals of Caſſation ſuperintend the tribunals of appeal and criminal tribunals. The TRIBUNAL OF CASSATION is appointed by the ſenate on the preſentation of the Firſt Conſul, who preſents three candidates for each vacant place. X. The First Conſul has the right of *pardoning!*"—Such is the conſtitutio

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conſtitution given by this military deſpot to the people of France; after all their long and bloody ſtruggle for liberty: a conſtitution wherein there does not exiſt one particle of freedom; wherein the whole power of the ſtate is ultimately and arbitrarily veſted in one man, and that ſo completely, as to render all the ſubordinate offices of ſenate, legiſlative body, tribunate, electoral aſſemblies, &c. perfectly nugatory, and therefore only a ſelect burden and expence to the community, anſwering no purpoſe whatever, but to conſtitute profitable ſinecures for the dependants of government. In the perſon of the Firſt Conſul, are veſted all the powers and functions of the moſt abſolute monarch; and even one privilege more, viz. the power of appointing a ſucceſſor from his own family, without regard to age, primogeniture, virtues, merits, or abilities, but merely according to his own predilection and partiality. The iron chain of ſlavery which the French have thus wreathed about their own necks, is clenched by the military, who are a diſtinct body, inveſted with high privileges, under the immediate nomination and controul of the Firſt Conſul, and artfully introduced into all the other departments of the ſtate. But the moſt execrable part of the monſtrous code of tyranny is the adminiſtration of *juſtice*. A *grand Judge*, appointed by the Conſul, preſides over the tribunal of ultimate appeal, and has power of *cenſure* and *diſcipline* over all the other tribunals. Thus the *purity* and *independence* of juſtice is completely deſtroyed. The French juries are a burleſque upon the inſtitution, being ſtationary and permanent, and not choſen by lot: and even this imperfect imitation of Britiſh juriſprudence, is rendered totally nugatory by the Conſul's code, where it is only once mentioned, and where the power is veſted in another body, of *ſuſpending its functions*, or in other words *annihilating* its utility. Such are the bleſſings which France has gained by this *fatal revolution*; a revolution which has coſt oceans of blood, and torrents of individual miſery. But the wretched generation of Frenchmen merited no better fate, who were not contented with the beneficial limited monarchy eſtabliſhed in 1789—91, but after murdering a monarch, who had made every reaſonable conceſſion to the people, ſacrificed the men of the greateſt abilities, and the beſt friends of Liberty in the nation. While Bonaparte thus extirpated freedom in France, he endeavoured to ſtrengthen his deſpotiſm by alliances with foreign deſpots; connecting himſelf by treaties not only with the emperors of Turkey and Ruſſia, but even with the deſpicable ſovereign of ſea robbers, the Dey of Algiers. After all this aſſumption of power and extenſion of influence, Bonaparte's vanity was not ſatisfied. Something more was to be done by his all-complying *Republican* ſubjects, to raiſe him to a level with the higheſt hereditary monarchs, in *title*, as well as in power. Accordingly, after many formalities and preliminary preparations, he was elected *emperor of the French*, and that he might be placed quite on a level with their great monarch, CHARLEMAGNE, he was formally crowned emperor by Pope Pius VII. in the cathedral of Notre Dame, with the crown and other imperial enſigns of that great monarch, on Sunday the 2d of Dec. 1804, amidſt the acclamations of thouſands of the fickle mob of Paris. Of the machine, commonly called *infernal*, by which he was in the moſt imminent danger of his life, but which, if it had ſucceeded, might have been ſtyled *celeſtial*, we have not taken notice, that we might not interrupt our account of the progreſs of his deſpotiſm; which has extended not only through France, and all the ſtates in alliance with it, but has even been exerted in the dominions of an independent German prince, viz. the duke of Enghien, whom this modern Nero cauſed his minions to carry off out of his own territory, and tried, condemned, and executed him within 24 hours.

(VII.) REVOLUTION OF GENOA. See GENOA, § 5; and LIGURIAN REPUBLIC. This ſmall republic has had various revolutions during this turbulent period. The ſmall ſtates in connection with France, like ſatellites in the vortex of a great planet, were generally whirled about with the ſame political motion, that moved the great nation. The revolution of the 18th and 19th Brumaire, (Dec. 7, 1799,) at Paris, was exactly imitated at Genoa. A corps of French troops cooperated in this meaſure. The Council of Sixty met and formed themſelves into a ſecret committee. The deputy Montebruno preſented a project, ſimilar to that of the French of the 19th Brumaire. It differed, however, in this reſpect, that the whole of the legiſlative and executive power was entruſted to *ten* citizens. But this conſtitution afterwards underwent other changes; and at preſent the conſtitution has ſo entirely reverted to the old ſyſtem, that the very title and office of *Doge* has been reſtored.

(VIII.) REVOLUTION OF GERMANY. In the courſe of the late revolutionary war, as well as ſince the peace, many changes have been made upon the integrity of the German empire. The whole German territories on the left bank of the Rhine, have been added to the French republic, now alſo an *empire*; the old electorates of the PALATINATE, MENTZ, TREVES, and COLOGN, have been aboliſhed; (ſee theſe articles;) 4 new electorates are erected, viz. *Aſchaffenburg*, *Baden*, *Wirtemberg*, and *Heſſe-Caſſel*; and many of the eccleſiaſtical principalities have been ſecularized, and partitioned among different princes, who had loſt their dominions in the courſe of the revolutionary war, by way of *indemnities*. Of theſe, the following, ſettled by Bonaparte and the emperor of Ruſſia, in 1802, is the moſt accurate account we have met with. 1. To the archduke, grand duke, for Tuſcany, the archbiſhopric of SALTZBURG, the biſhoprics of TRENT and *Brixen*, and that part of PASSAU ſeated between the Iltz and the Inn. 2. To the ci-devant D. of Modena, for the Modeneſe, &c. the *Briſgau* and ORTENAU. 3. To the elector palatine of Bavaria, for the duchies of Deux Ponts and Juliers, and the palatinate of the Rhine, the marquiſate of BERG OP ZOOM, the lordſhip of Ravenſtein; the biſhoprics of Paſſau, Bamberg, Aughſted, Freiſengen, and Augſburg, the provoſtſhip of Kepton; the imperial towns of Rothenburg, Weiſſenburg, Windſheim, Muhldorf, Schweinfort, Gochſheim, Sennefield, Allthanſen,

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Kempten, Memmingen, Nordlingen, Ulm, Bopfingen, Buchorn, Waugen, Ravensburg, and Aichhausen, with 10 abbeys. 4. To the K. of Prussia, for the duchies of Cleves, Gueldre, &c. the bishoprics of Hildesheim and Paderborn; the territories of Erfort, Untereichsfeld, Eichfeld, Treffort, part of MUNSTER, the towns of Olphen, Munsten, Mulhausen, Northausen, and Goslar; with five abbeys. 5. To the princes of Nassau, a variety of places, particularly described, but so involved with *exceptions* of particular spots as to be almost unintelligible. 6. To the elector of BADEN, the bishopric of Constance; part of those of Spire, Basle, and Strasburg: the bailiewics of Ladenburg, Bretten, and Heidelberg; with the cities of HEIDELBERG and MANHEIM; the imperial towns of Offenburg, Zell, Hamersbach, Gengenbach, Ubelingen, Biberach, Pfullendorf, and Wimpfen; with 8 abbeys. 7. To the elector of WIRTEMBERG, the provostship of Elwangen; the abbey of Zwifalten, and the imperial towns of Reutlingen, Weil, Essingen, Rothweil, Giengen, Aukenhall, Gmeind, and Heilbronn. 8. To the Elector of Hesse-Cassel, Amenebourg, Feitzlar, and Holzhausen. 9. To the landgrave of Hesse D'Armstadt, the bailiewic of Lindenfel and Otzburg; part of Oppenheim; part of the duchy of Westphalia; the bailiewics of Germsheim, Bensheim, and Hoppenheim; part of the bishopric of Worms, E. of the Rhine, and the town of Freidberg. 10. To the prince of Hohenloe, and others, the bailiewic of Taxburg, parts of Mentz and Warzburg, and two abbeys. 11. Other indemnities were also granted to the inferior princes, of Loewanstein, Linange, Salm, Weld-Runkel, Solms, Aremberg, Wilgenstein, Holberg, Nemburg, Tour-Taxis, Brixenheim, Dietrichstein, &c. but too tedious and immeate to be particularised.

(IX.) REVOLUTION OF HISPANIOLA. See HISPANIOLA, § 4; and REVOLUTION, § VI, 48.

(X.) REVOLUTION OF HOLLAND. See HOLLAND, N° I; REPUBLIC, § 4; REVOLUTION, § VI, 19; and UNITED PROVINCES.

(XI.) REVOLUTION OF ITALY. See CISALPINE REPUBLIC; CISPADANA; ITALIAN REPUBLIC; REVOLUTION, § VI, 47, 48: and next article.

(XII.) REVOLUTION OF LUCCA. In 1799, this small state was revolutionized by the French Directory. The constitution was sent to Gen. Serrurier, who after dissolving the Senate, named the members of the Directory, and gave them the constitution, on which they were to act. The Directory consisted of five members, and the legislative body of two councils. The salaries were in proportion to the smallness of the state. The directors had 30 crowns a-month; the ministers 25; and the members of the legislature 12 each.

(XIII.) REVOLUTION OF NAPLES. See NAPLES, NEAPOLITAN REPUBLIC, and REVOLUTION, § VI, 37.

(XIV.) REVOLUTION OF POLAND. See POLAND, § 24—26.

(XV.) REVOLUTION OF PORTUGAL. See PORTUGAL, § 14, 15.

(XVI.) REVOLUTION OF ROME. See REVOLUTION, § VI, 32, 33; and ROME.

(XVII.) REVOLUTION OF SWEDEN. See SWEDEN.

(XVIII.) REVOLUTION OF SWITZERLAND. See HELVETIC REPUBLIC; REVOLUTION, § VI, 4 and SWITZERLAND.

(1.) REVOLUTIONARY, *adj.* [*Revolutionnaire*, Fr.] Of or belonging to a revolution of government; a new word derived from the late state of France and all Europe.

(2.) REVOLUTIONARY TRIBUNAL, a bloody tribunal, instituted during the French revolution; by which many of the greatest men in France were murdered, who might otherwise have preserved that country from its present despotism. See REVOLUTION, § VI, 13, 20.

To REVOLUTIONIZE, *v. a.* To change the form of a government; to new-model the government of a country: another new word of recent invention.

* *To* REVOMIT. *v. a.* [*revomir*, Fr. *re* and *vomit.*] To vomit; to vomit again.—They might cast it up, and take more, vomiting and revomiting what they drink. *Hakewill on Providence.*

REUSS, a river of Switzerland, which rises from the lake of Locendro, on Mount St Gothard, between Mount Petina and Locendro; runs through the lake and town of Lucern, crosses the canton of Uri, and running N. joins the Aar, and falls into the Rhine, opposite Waldschut, a miles S. of Klingan in Baden.

REUSSEN, a principality of Germany, in Upper Saxony, in the Vogtland.

REUT, a river of European Turkey, which runs into the Dneister, near Ustia, in Moldavia.

REUTH, a town of Upper Saxony, in the Vogtland: 6 miles WSW. of Plauen.

REUTLINGEN, a town of Germany, in Suabia, on a rivulet which runs into the Necker. It was walled and made imperial by Frederick II. 1220.

REUTTE, a town of Suabia, in the county of Bregentz.

REUTTEN, or REITA, a town of Germany, in Tyrol; 32 miles NW. of Innspruck, and 80 N. of Trent.

REUVEN, Peter, an eminent Dutch painter, born in 1650, a disciple of Jord. He ornamented the palace of Loo in Holland, with many fine pieces, and died in 1718.

(1.) * REVULSION. *n. s.* [*revulsion*, Fr. *revulsio*, Latin.] The act of revelling or drawing humours from a remote part of the body.—Derivation differs from *revulsion* only in the measure of the distance, and the force of the medicines used: if we draw it to some very remote or contrary part, we call it *revulsion*; if only to some neighbouring place, and by gentle means, we call it derivation. *Wiseman of Tumours.*—There is a way of revulsion to let blood in an adverse part. *Bacon.*—I have heard of some strange cures of frenzies, by cataplasms applications of fire to the lower parts, which seems reasonable enough, by the violent revulsion it may make of humours from the head. *Temple.*

(2.) REVULSION, in medicine, is the turning a flux of the humours from one part to another by bleeding, cupping, friction, sinapisms, blisters, fomentations, bathings, issues, setons, stronger purging of the bowels, &c.

* REVULSIVE. *adj.* Having the power of revulsion.—His flux of blood breaking forth again

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with greater violence, was not to be ſtopped by applications, nor the *revulſives* of any kind. *Fell.*

REUX, a fortified town of the French empire, in the dept. of Gemappes, and ci-devant prov. of Auſtrian Hainault; 8 miles NE. of Mons.

REWARI, a town of Indoſtan, in Allahabad; 37 miles SSW. of Allahabad, and 116 NNE. of Delhi. Lon. 81. 36. E. Lat. 24. 35. N.

To REWARD. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Recompenſe given for good performed.—*Rewards* and puniſhments do always preſuppoſe ſomething willingly done well or ill; without which reſpect, though we may ſometimes receive good, yet then it is only a benefit and not a *reward*. *Hooker.*—

To myſelf I owe this due regard,
Not to make love my gift, but my *reward*. *Dryd.*

—Men have conſented to the immortality of the ſoul and the recompenſes of another world, promiſing to themſelves ſome *rewards* of virtue after this life. *Tillotſon.* 2. It is ſometimes uſed with a mixture of irony, for puniſhment, or recompenſe of evil.

To REWARD. *v. a.* [*re* and *award*.] To give in return. *Skinner.*—Thou haſt *rewarded* me good, whereas I have *rewarded* thee evil. 1 *Sam.* xxiv. 17.—They *rewarded* me evil for good. *Pſ.* xxxv. 12. 2. To repay; to recompenſe for ſomething good.—God *rewards* thoſe that have made uſe of the ſingle talent. *Hammond.*—

To judge th' unfaithful dead, but to *reward*
His faithful, and receive them into bliſs. *Milt.*

—There is no more reaſon to *reward* a man for believing that four is more than three, than for being hungry or ſleepy. *Wilkins.*—The ſupreme being *rewards* the juſt. *Broome.*

REWARDABLE. *adj.* [from *reward*.] Worthy of reward.—Men's actions are judged, whether in their own nature *rewardable* or puniſhable. *Hooker.*—The action that is but indifferent, and without reward, if done only upon our own choice, is an act of religion, and *rewardable* by God. *Taylor.*

REWARDER. *n. ſ.* [from *reward*.] One that rewards; one that recompenſes.—

A liberal *rewarder* of his friends. *Shak.*

—As the Supreme Being is the only proper judge of our perfections, ſo is he the only fit *rewarder* of them. *Addiſon.*—Ill judges, as well as *rewarders*, have popular aſſemblies been, of thoſe who beſt deſerved from them. *Swift.*

REWARI, a town of Indoſtan, capital of a diſtrict ſo named: 48 miles SW. of Delhi, and 100 NW. of Agra.

To REWORD. *v. a.* [*re* and *word*.] To repeat in the ſame words.—

Bring me to the teſt,
And I the matter will *reword*. *Shak. Hamlet.*

(1.) REY, a town of Perſia, in Irac Agemi, now in ruins; anciently called EUROPUS, under the Macedonian monarchs; and afterwards *Arſacia*. It was deſtroyed by the Arabians, but rebuilt by Abdallah Manſor, caliph of Babylon; and contained 100,000 houſes, with many moſques, colleges, and other magnificent buildings. It was laſt ruined by the Tartars. It is 129 miles E. of Amadan.

(2.) REY, a river of England, in Wilts, which runs into the Thames, near Cricklade.

(3.) REY ISLE, an iſland in the Bay of Panama, near the W. coaſt of America. Lon. 80. 5. W. Lat. 8. 0. N.

REYGADA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira: 6 miles NNE. of Pinhal.

REYGATE, a town of Surry, in the valley of Holmſdale, 24 miles from London: famous for fuller's earth, and medicinal plants.

REYGNY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Rhone and Loire: 7 miles E. of Roanne.

REYN, John DE, an eminent hiſtory and portrait painter, born at Dunkirk in 1610. He was a diſciple of Vandyke, was the firſt performer in his ſchool, and was ſo attached to his maſter that he followed him to London, where it is thought he continued as long as he lived. In theſe kingdoms he is moſtly known by the name of *Lang Jan*. He died in 1678. The ſcarcity of his works is ſaid to be occaſioned by ſo many of them being imputed to Vandyke; a circumſtance which, if true, is beyond any thing that could be ſaid in his praiſe.

REYNA, an ancient town of Spain, in Andaluſia, ſeated in a plain; with a caſtle, built on an eminence, in a territory abounding with vines and cattle: 3 miles from Lerma.

REYNEAU, Charles Rene, a member of the French Academy, and an eminent mathematician, born at Breſſac, in Anjou, in 1650. He taught philoſophy at Toulon, and became profeſſor of mathematics at Angers, in 1683. He publiſhed a famous work, entitled *Analyſis Demonſtrated*; in which he reduced into a body the theories of Newton, Deſcartes, Leibnitz, &c. He died in 1728, aged 72.

REYNEL, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Marne: 12 miles W. of Bourmont, and 13½ NE. of Chaumont.

REYNER, John, a learned divine, born at Lincoln, and educated at Emanuel College, Cambridge, of which he was a fellow. He was ejected from his living for nonconformity in 1662; and died at Nottingham, where he had practiſed phyſic. His writings are chiefly theological.

REYNESBURCH, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Delft; 3 miles NW. of Leyden.

REYNOLDS, Sir Joſhua, the celebrated painter, was born July 16, 1723, at Plympton, in Devonſhire. His father was miniſter of the pariſh, and alſo maſter of the grammar ſchool. He taught young Reynolds, who ſoon diſplayed a happy knowledge of what he read. He diſcovered likewiſe talents for compoſition, and a natural propenſity to drawing. But his father deſigning him for the church, he ſent him to one of the univerſities. Soon after this period he grew paſſionately fond of painting; and, on the peruſal of Richardſon's theory of that art, reſolved to make it his profeſſion. At his own requeſt, therefore, he was removed to London; and about 1742, became a pupil to Mr Hudſon. About 1749, Mr Reynolds went to Italy under the auſpices, and in the company, of Commodore Keppel. Having remained about two years in Italy, and acquired the language as well as the arts of the country, he returned to England. The firſt pieces that diſtinguiſhed him were a portrait of Com. Keppel, of Lord Edgecombe, and a few others, which introduced

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him to the first business in portrait painting; and he afterwards painted so many illustrious characters, that we feel the less regret for his having left behind him so few historical paintings; though what he has done in that department shows him to have been qualified to excel in both. The only landscape, perhaps, which he ever painted, except those beautiful ones which compose the back grounds of many of his portraits, is "A View on the Thames from Richmond," which in 1784 was exhibited by the Society for promoting Painting and Design in Liverpool. In 1764 Mr Reynolds first commenced the *Literary Club*. Upon the foundation of the Royal Academy of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture, he was appointed president, with the cordial approbation of all the lovers of art. On this occasion, his majesty conferred on the president the honour of knighthood; and Sir Joshua delivered his first discourse at the opening of the Academy on Jan. 2, 1769: each succeeding year, on the distribution of the prizes, Sir Joshua delivered to the students a similar discourse; all of which have been collected and published. In autumn 1785, he went to Brussels, where he expended about 1000 l. on the purchase of paintings, which had been taken from the different monasteries and religious houses in Flanders and Germany. In 1790, being desirous to procure the vacant professorship of perspective in the academy for Mr Bonomi, an Italian architect, whom he had got admitted an associate, by his own casting vote, he exerted all his influence to procure Bonomi an academic seat; but being in this outvoted by 2 to 1, he resigned the presidency, which he had held so honourably for 21 years. He was, however, prevailed on to resume the office for 18 months longer, when he was obliged to give it up from his health declining. The academy, however, continued him president for life, and elected a deputy to act for him. From this period Sir Joshua never painted more. He died Feb. 23, 1792, aged 68; with the character of a man, than whom no one had passed through life with more observation of men and manners. Mr Burke says of him, that "he was the first Englishman who added the praise of the elegant arts to the other glories of his country. In taste, in grace, in facility, in happy invention, and in the richness and harmony of colouring, he was equal to the great masters of the renowned ages. In portrait he went beyond them."

REYNOSA, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 35 miles NW. of Frias.

REYRAC, Francis Philip St Laurent De, a learned French author, born at Longeville, in Limousin, in 1734. He was bred to divinity, and became canon regular of Chancelade. He wrote a Letter on the eloquence of the Pulpit; Sacred Odes; and several other pieces in poetry and theology. He died in 1782.

REYS, Anthony Dos, a learned Portuguese writer, born at Pernes, in 1690. He published several works, particularly a volume of Latin Poems, which are esteemed. He died at Lisbon, in 1738.

(1.) REZ, a town of Germany, in imperial Austria; on the frontiers of Moravia.

(2.) Rez, a river of Russia, which runs into the Irtit; in Lon. 80. 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 57. 50. N.

(1.) REZAN, an ancient town of Russia, and capital of Rezanskoi, with an archbishop's see. It was formerly considerable for its extent and riches; but it was almost ruined by the Tartars in 1568. It is seated at the conflux of the Tambesh and Occa; 100 miles SE. of Moscow. Lon. 42. 37. E. Lat. 54. 54. N.

(2.) Rezan, or } a province and duchy of Rus-
REZANSKOI, } sia, populous and fertile in corn: formerly governed by its own princes.

REZI, a fort of Hungary; 6 miles SSE. of St Crot.

REZITZA, a town of Russia, in Polotskoi, 91 miles NNW. of Polotsk. Lon. 44. 50. E. Ferro. Lat. 56. 25. N.

(1.) REZZATO, a territory, and ci-devant quadra or district of the Italian republic, in the department of the Mella, district and late duchy of Brescia. It contained 11 parishes and 14,000 citizens in 1797. Of these the town of *Calcinato* on the Seriola, contained 3000; and *Castenendolo* on an eminence, 2000.

(2.) Rezzato, the capital of the above quadra, seated on the Naviglio; contained 2000 citizens, in 1797.

(1.) REZZONICO, Count, a learned Italian nobleman, who wrote the *Life of Pliny the Elder*, a work much esteemed.

(2.) Rezzonico, Gaston Della Torre, Count, the son of the preceding, was born at Parma, in 1740. He made early acquisitions in literature; was admitted a member of the academy of Arcadia, and was appointed by the D. of Parma, president of a new academy of fine arts, which he had established. After this, falling out of favour with the duke, he was deprived of his places, and left Parma. After this he travelled through France, England, and other places in Europe, and made himself master of both languages. He wrote several works both in prose and poetry, but the latter are most admired, and rank him among the best Italian poets. He died at Rome, in 1798. A collection of his Poems was printed at Parma in 2 vols.

* RHABARBARATE. *adj.* [from *rhabarbara* Lat.] Impregnated or tinctured with rhubarb.—The salt humours must be evacuated by the sensate, *rhabarbarate* and sweet manna purgers, with acids added, or the purging waters. *Floyer.*

RHABBOTHIN, [from *Rhabbotsen*, Heb. a great gulf or bay,] an ancient name of Phoenicia.

RHABDOLOGY, or Rabdology, *n. s.* in arithmetic, a name given by Napier to a method of performing some of the more difficult operations of numbers by means of certain square little rods. Upon these are inscribed the simple numbers; then by shifting them according to certain rules those operations are performed by simply adding or subtracting the numbers as they stand upon the rods. See Napier's *Rhabdologia*, printed in 1617. See also the article Napier's Bones.

* RHABDOMANCY. *n. s.* [ῥάβδος and μαντεία.] Divination by a wand.—Of peculiar *rhabdomancy* is that which is used in mineral discoveries, with forked hazel, commonly called Moses's rod, which freely held forth, will stir and play, if any mine be under it. *Brown.*

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RHACOMA, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the tetrandria claſs of plants.

RHADAMANTHUS, in fabulous hiſtory, the ſon of Jupiter and Europa, born in Crete. He became king of Lydia, and reigned over the Cyclades and ſeveral Greek cities in Aſia, with ſo much juſtice and impartiality, that the poets make him one of the three judges of hell.

RHÆTEUM, an ancient city of Phrygia.

RHÆTI, or RÆTI, an ancient warlike nation of Italy in Etruria. They were driven from their country by the Gauls. *Plin.* iii. c. 20. *Juſt.* xx. c. 5. See next article.

RHÆTIA, in ancient geography, a country in the north of Italy, between the Alps and the Danube, which now forms the territories of the Grisons, the TYROLESE, and part of Italy. Its chief towns were *Curia*, TRIDENTUM, (now TRENT,) *Belunum*, and *Feltria*. It was divided into 3 parts, called,

1. RHÆTIA PRIMA, which extended from the ſources of the Rhine to thoſe of the Licus, a ſmall river which runs into the Danube.

2. RHÆTIA SECUNDA, or } which extended
2. RHÆTIA VINDELICIA, } from the Licus to the Oenus, another ſmall river towards the E.

RHÆTIANS, [RHÆTI,] the ancient inhabitants of Rhætia. They rendered themſelves formidable to the Romans, by their frequent invaſions; but were at laſt conquered by Druſus, the brother of Tiberius, and others under the ſucceeding emperors. *Strab.* iv. *Plin.* iii. c. 20.

RHAGADES, in medicine, denotes chaps or clefts in any part of the body. If ſeated in the anus, and recent, the patient muſt ſit ſtill, and ſit over the ſteam of warm water. The epulotic cerate may alſo be applied. If the lips of theſe fiſſures are callous, they muſt be cut, or otherwiſe treated as to become new ulcerations.

RHAIODERGWY, a town of S. Wales in Radnorſhire, ſeated on the Wye, in a hilly country; 18 miles W. of Radnor, and 177 WNW. of London.

RHAMA, or RAMA, an incarnate deity of the ſixth rank, in Indian mythology. Sir William Jones believes he was the ſon of Cuſh, grandſon of Ham, and the firſt monarch in that part of Aſia: and that he was the DIONYSOS of the Greeks, whom they named *Bromius*, without knowing why; and *Begnes*, when they repreſented him *horned*, as well as *Lyæus* and *Eleutherios* the deliverer, and *Triambus*, or *Dythyrambos*, the triumphant. "Moſt of thoſe titles (ſays Sir William) were adopted by the Romans." The feſtival of Rhama is held on the 9th day of the new moon of Chaitra, on which the war of Lanca is dramatically repreſented, concluding with an exhibition of the fire ordeal, by which the victor's wife Sita gave proof of her conjugal fidelity. Among the Hindoos there are a variety of very fine dramas of great antiquity on the ſtory of Rhama. There are 3 Rhamas mentioned in the Indian mythology, who, together with Criſhna, the darling god of the Indian women, are deſcribed as youths of perfect beauty. The third Rhama is Criſhna's elder brother, and is conſidered as the 8th Avatar or *preſerver*, inveſted with an emanation of his divine radiance. Like all the Avatars, Rhama is painted with gemmed Ethiopian or Parthian coronets; with rays, encircling his head, jewels in his ears, two necklaces, one ſtraight and one pendant on his boſom, with dropping gems; garlands of well-diſpoſed many-coloured flowers, or collars of pearls, hanging down below his waiſt, &c.

RHAMANIE, a town of Egypt, 9 miles S. of Foua; memorable for a bloody battle fought near it, on the 21ſt March 1801, between the Britiſh under Gen. Sir Ralph Abercrombie, and the French republicans; wherein the latter were defeated, with the loſs of 2000 killed, and 500 priſoners. The loſs of the Britiſh troops was 300 killed and 1200 wounded; among the latter were Sir Ralph Abercrombie, and Sir Sydney Smith; but the greateſt loſs was, that the worthy general died of his wounds on the 28th March. Rhamanie was taken by Gen. Hutchinſon on the 12th May 1801.

RHAMNOETZ, a town of Sweden, in Weſtmanland: 20 miles N. of Stroemſholm.

(I.) RHAMNUS, in ancient geography, a town of Attica, famous for a temple of Amphiaraus, and a ſtatue of NEMESIS, thence called RHAMNUSIA. This ſtatue was made by Phidias, out of a block of fine Parian marble, which the Perſians had brought to erect as a monument of their expected conqueſt of Greece. *Pauſ.* i. *Plin.* 36.

(II.) RHAMNUS, the BUCKTHORN, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 43d order, *Dumoſæ*. The calyx is tubulous, with five minute ſcales ſurrounding the ſtamina; there is no corolla; the fruit is a berry. There are 27 ſpecies; of which the moſt remarkable are,

1. RHAMNUS ALATERNUS, the common *alaternus*, is an evergreen, and a native of the ſouth of Europe. There are ſeveral varieties, the moſt remarkable are the broad-leaved and the jagged-leaved alaternus, which have all been confounded with the phillyrea.

2. RHAMNUS ALPINUS, rough-leaved frangula, or berry-bearing alder, is alſo a deciduous ſhrub, and native of the Alps. It differs in no reſpect from the common ſort, except that it has no thorns, and that it will grow to be rather taller, with tough, large, and doubly laciniated leaves. The ſmooth-leaved Alpine frangula is a variety of this ſpecies, with ſmooth leaves and of a lower growth.

3. RHAMNUS CATHARTICUS, or common *purging buckthorn*, growing naturally in ſome parts of Britain. This grows to the height of 12 or 14 feet, with many irregular branches at the extremities. The leaves are oval-lanceolate, finely ſerrated on the edges, their nerves converging together. The flowers grow in cluſters, one on each footſtalk, white, and in this ſpecies divided into four ſegments: the fruit is a round black berry, containing four ſeeds. The juice of the berries is a ſtrong purgative, and is made uſe of for making the common ſyrup of buckthorn kept in the ſhops. The bark is emetic: the juice of the unripe berries, with alum, dyes yellow, of the ripe ones a fine green; the bark alſo dyes yellow. The green colour yielded by the berries, called *verde veſſie*, is

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much esteemed by miniature painters. Of this species there are two varieties, *viz.* the dwarf buckthorn, a shrub of about a yard high, of a greenish colour but little show; and the long-leaved dwarf buckthorn, which is a larger shrub, with leaves somewhat larger, but in other respects very similar to the dwarf buckthorn.

4. RHAMNUS FRANGULA, or berry-bearing alder, is a deciduous shrub, a native of England and most of the northern parts of Europe, and affords several varieties.

5. RHAMNUS INSECTORIUS, or *narrow-leaved buckthorn*, is an evergreen shrub or tree, and native of Spain. It grows to 10 or 12 feet, and sends forth several branches from the bottom to the top. They are covered with a blackish or dark-coloured bark, and each of them is terminated by a long sharp thorn. The fruit continues on the trees all winter, making a beautiful appearance among the narrow-clustered leaves at that season.

6. RHAMNUS LOTUS, the LYBIAN LOTUS, has the leaves, prickles, flowers, and fruit, of the zizyphus; only with this difference, that the fruit is here round, smaller, and more luscious, and at the same time the branches, like those of the paliurus, are neither so much jointed nor crooked. The fruit is in great repute, tastes something like gingerbread, and is sold in the markets all over the southern districts of these kingdoms. The Arabs call it *aneb enta el feedra*, or *the jubeb of the feedra*; which Olavus Celsius had so high an opinion of, that he has described it as the *dudaim* of the scriptures. This species is very common in the Jereede and other parts of Bombay; and has been supposed by some to be the same plant with that celebrated by Homer for its enchanting property; though the latter is more generally supposed to have been a species of *Diospyrus*. See DIOSPYROS, N° 1. It is proper, however, to distinguish between both these shrubs and an herb often mentioned by the ancients under the name of *lotus*, which, Homer says, was fed upon by the horses of Achilles, and Virgil mentions as proper to increase the milk of sheep. See LOTUS. They are also different from the Egyptian lotus described by Herodotus; for which see NYMPHÆA, § II, N° 3.

7. RHAMNUS OLEOIDES, the *olive-leaved buckthorn*, is an evergreen shrub, a native of Spain, and grows to 8 or 10 feet. It sends forth numerous branches, each of which is terminated by a long sharp spine. The flowers are small, of a whitish green colour, and are succeeded by round black berries.

8. RHAMNUS PALIURUS, or *Thorn of Christ*, is a deciduous shrub or tree, a native of Palestine, Spain, Portugal, and Italy. It will grow to nearly the height of 14 feet, and is armed with sharp thorns, two of which are at each joint, one of which is about half an inch long, straight, and upright; the other is scarcely half that length, and bent backward; and between them is the bud for next year's shoot. June is the time of flowering, and the flowers are succeeded by a small fruit, surrounded by a membrane. "This plant (says Hanbury) is undoubtedly the sort of which the crown of thorns for our Blessed Saviour was composed. The branches are very pliant, and the spines of it are at every joint strong and sharp. It grows naturally about Jerusalem, as well as in many parts of Judæa; and the ancient pictures of our Saviour's crucifixion confirm this."

9. RHAMNUS ZIZYPHUS, or JUJUB, is a species in which the lac insect forms its cells, and produces the wax called *gum lac*. See COCCUS, N° 4. and LACCA, N° 1.

RHAMNUSIA, a name of Nemesis. See NEMESIS, and RHAMNUS, N° 1.

RHAMPHASTOS, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of picæ. The bill is very large, and serrated outwardly. The nostrils are situated behind the base of the beak; and in most of the species the feet are toed, with 2 toes forwards, and 2 backwards. The tongue is long, narrow, and feathered on the edges. Mr Latham enumerates 15 different species; of which the TOUCANS are the most remarkable, and were formerly divided into 4 or 5 varieties, though Mr Latham makes them distinct species, of which we shall only describe *the red beaked toucan*. The bird is about the size of a jackdaw, and of a similar shape, with a large head to support a monstrous bill: this bill, from the angles of the mouth to its point, is six inches and an half; and its breadth in the thickest part is a little more than two. See *Plate* CCXCV. Its thickness near the head is $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch; and it is a little rounded along the top of the upper chap, the under chap being round also; the whole of the bill extremely slight, and a little thicker than parchment. The upper chap is of a bright yellow, except on each side, which is of a fine scarlet colour; as is also the lower chap, except at the base, which is purple. Between the head and the bill there is a black line of separation all round the base of the bill; in the upper part of which the nostrils are placed, and almost covered with feathers; which has occasioned some to say that the toucan has no nostrils. Round the eyes, on each side of the head, is a space of bluish skin, void of feathers; above which the head is black, except a white spot on each side joining to the base of the upper chap. The hinder part of the neck, the back, wings, tail, belly, and thighs, are black. The under side of the head, throat, and the beginning of the breast, are white. Between the white on the breast, and the black on the belly, is a space of red feathers, in the form of a new moon, with its horns upwards. The legs, feet, and claws are of an ash colour; and the toes stand like those of parrots, two before, and two behind. It is said that this bird, though furnished with so formidable a beak, is harmless and gentle, being easily made tame as to sit and hatch its young in houses. It feeds on vegetables, and prefers pepper. Its bill is hollow, and very light, so that it cannot peck or strike smartly therewith. Its tongue is long, thin, and flat; and is moved up and down, and often extended 5 or 6 inches from the bill. It is of a flesh colour, and fringed on each side with very small filaments, exactly resembling a feather. It is probable that this long tongue has greater strength than the thin hollow beak that contains it. This bird builds its nest in holes of trees, which have been previously scooped out for this purpose. No bird secures it

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s young better from injury than the toucan. It
m naturely birds, men, and ſerpents, to guard
gainſt, but a numerous tribe of monkeys. The
ucan, however, ſcoops out its neſt into the hol-
w of a tree, leaving only a hole large enough
ſpin and out at. There it ſits, with its great
ll guarding the entrance; and if the monkey
kes a viſit, the toucan gives him ſuch a wel-
me, that he is glad to eſcape. The toucan is
ry found in the warm climates of South Ame-
ca, where it is in great requeſt, both for the de-
acy of its fleſh, which is tender and nouriſhing,
d for the beauty of its plumage, particularly
e feathers of the breaſt. The ſkin of this part
Indians pluck off, and when dry, glue to their
ins.

RHAMPSINITUS, an opulent king of Egypt,
o ſucceeded PROTEUS. He built a large ſtone
ſe at Memphis, where he depoſited his riches,
hich he was robbed by the artifice of the ar-
ſt. *Herodot.* ii. c. 121.

RHAMSES, or RAMISES, a powerful king of
gypt, who, with an army of 700,000 men, con-
ered Ethiopia, Lybia, Perſia, and other eaſtern
ations. Pliny ſays Troy was taken in his
ign. (36. c. 8.) Some ſuppoſe him the ſame
ith SESOSTRIS.

RHAPIS, in botany, a genus of the monogynia
der, belonging to the hexandria claſs of plants;
the natural method ranking under the firſt
der, Palmæ. The calyx is a monophyllous tri-
idus; the corolla monopetalous and trifid.
here are two ſpecies, viz.

1. RHAPIS ARUNDINACEA, ſimple leaved rha-
is a native of Carolina.

2. RHAPIS FLABELLIFORMIS, or ground rattan,
native of China.

RHAPSODIST. *n. ſ.* [from *rhapſody.*] One
ho writes without regular dependance of
art upon another.—Aſk our *rhapſodiſt*, if
e knew nothing but the excellence and loveli-
ſs of virtue to preach, and no future rewards or
unishments, how many vicious wretches will
ou reclaim? *Watts.*

RHAPSODI, or } in antiquity, perſons
RHAPSODISTS, } who made a buſineſs
f ſinging pieces of Homer's poems. Cuper in-
rms us, that the Rhapſodi were clothed in red
hen they ſung the Iliad, and in blue when they
ng the Odyſſey. They performed in the thea-
rs, and ſometimes ſtrove for prizes in conteſts
f poetry, ſinging, &c. After the two antagoniſts
ad finiſhed their parts, the two pieces or papers
ey were written in were joined together again;
nce the name, viz. from ῥάπτειν, *ſuo*, *to ſew*,
nd ᾠδή, *cantus*, *a ſong*, but there ſeem to have
been other Rhapſodi of more antiquity than theſe
ſung, who compoſed heroic poems or ſongs in
raiſe of heroes and great men, and ſung their
own compoſitions from town to town for a live-
lihood; of which profeſſion Homer himſelf is ſaid
to have been. See BARD.

RHAPSODOMANCY, *n. ſ.* an ancient kind
of divination performed by pitching on a paſſage
of a poet at hazard, and reckoning on it as a
preſage as to what was to come to paſs. There
were various ways of practiſing this rhapſodo-
mancy. Sometimes they wrote ſeveral papers or
ſentences of a poet on ſo many pieces of wood,
paper, or the like, ſhook them together in an urn,
and drew out one which was accounted the lot:
ſometimes they caſt dice on a table whereon ver-
ſes were written, and that whereon the die lod-
ged contained the prediction. A 3d manner was
by opening a book, and pitching on ſome verſe
at firſt ſight. This method they particularly call-
ed the *ſortes Præneſtinæ*; and afterwards, accord-
ing to the poet, made uſe of, *ſortes Homericæ*, *ſor-
tes Virgilianæ*, &c. See SORTES.

(1.) * RHAPSODY. *n. ſ.* [ῥαψῳδία; ῥάπτω, to
ſew, and ᾠδή, a ſong.] Any number of parts join-
ed together, without neceſſary dependance or na-
tural connection.—

Such a deed, as ſweet religion makes
A *rhapſody* of words. *Shak.*

—This confuſion and *rhapſody* of difficulties was
not to be ſuppoſed in each ſingle ſinner. *Hammond.*—He, that makes no reflexions on what he
reads, only loads his mind with a *rhapſody* of tales
fit for the entertainment of others *Locke.*—The
words ſlide over the ears, and vaniſh like a *rhap-
ſody* of evening tales. *Watts.*

(2.) RHAPSODY, in antiquity, a diſcourſe in
verſe ſung or rehearſed by a rhapſodiſt. Others
will have rhapſody to ſignify a collection of ver-
ſes, eſpecially thoſe of Homer, which having been
a long time diſperſed in pieces and fragments,
were at length by Piſiſtratus's order digeſted into
books called *rhapſodies*, from ῥάπτω *ſuo*, and ᾠδὴ
cantium. Hence, among moderns, *rhapſody* is
alſo uſed for an aſſemblage of paſſages, thoughts,
and authorities, raked together from divers au-
thors, to compoſe ſome new piece.

RHARIUM, or } a plain of Attica, where
(1.) RHAROS, } Triptolemus firſt ſowed
corn. It was ſo named from

(2.) RHAROS, the father of Triptolemus.

RHASES. See RHAZIS.

RHAYADERGOWY. See RHAIODERGWY.

RHAYTYLARFARD, a town of S. Wales, in
Caernarvonſhire.

RHAZIS, or RHASES, a celebrated Arabian
phyſician and chemiſt, of great learning and ex-
perience; born at Rhei, in Chorooſina, in 852.
Dr Mead tranſlated his work *on the Small-Pox*;
the reſt of his works were printed in folio, in
1548.

RHE, or REE, an iſland of France, in the Bay
of Biſcay, near the coaſt of the department of
Lower Charente, and ci-devant territory of Aunis.
It was taken during the war with France, which
ended in 1763, in the expedition commanded by
Hawke and Mordaunt. It is 12 miles long, and
6 broad, and is very populous. It produces a
bitter wine, and much ſalt. The natives make
fine brandy, and aniſe-ſeed water. It is defended
by 4 forts, and lies 8 miles W. of Rochelle. Lon.
1. 29. W. Lat. 46. 15. N.

(1.) RHEA, in the mythology, the daughter of
Coelus and Terra, ſiſter and wife of SATURN;
the ſame with CYBELE or OPS. See theſe arti-
cles.

(2.) RHEA AMERICANA, in ornithology, the
American Oſtrich, is very little ſmaller than the
common one: the bill is ſloped like that of a
gooſe, being flat on the top, and rounded at the
end:

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end: the eyes are black, and the lids furnished with hairs: the head is rounded, and covered with downy feathers: the neck is 2 feet 8 inches long, and feathered; from the tip of one wing to that of the other extended, the length is 8 feet; but from the want of continuity of the webs of the feathers, and their laxity of texture, the bird is unable to raise itself from the ground; it is, however, capable of greatly assisting itself by their motion in running, which it does very swiftly: the legs are stout, bare of feathers above the knees, and furnished with 3 toes, all placed forwards, each having a straight and stout claw as in the cassowary; on the heel is a callous knob, serving in place of a back toe: the general colour of plumage is dull grey mixed with white, inclining to the latter on the under parts: the tail is very short, and not conspicuous, being entirely covered with long loose and floating feathers, originating from the lower part of the back and rump, and entirely covering it: the bill and legs are brown. Molina says, the body in some is white, in others black. It is a general feeder, but more fond of flies, which it catches with great dexterity, and will also, like the common ostrich, swallow bits of iron and any other trash offered to it. In common with the ostrich of the old world, it lays a number of eggs, from 40 to 60, in the sand, each of them holding a quart; but it differs from that bird in many particulars, especially in wanting the callosity on the sternum, and spurs on the wing. With these last the common ostrich is known to defend itself: in defect of them, the one here treated of uses the feet with such address as to become at once a furious and dangerous antagonist. The female calls its young ones together with a kind of whistling note somewhat similar to that of a man: when young it is very tame, frequently following the first creature it meets with. The flesh is said to be very unpalatable. They are found in various parts of South America, from Patagonia to Guiana, and is known by the name of *Choique*. See *Plate* CCXCV.

(3.) RHEA SYLVIA, the daughter of NUMITOR, king of Alba, and mother of ROMULUS and REMUS. See these articles.

RHEADEÆ. See BOTANY, *Index*.

RHEBAS, or RHEBUS, a river of Bithynia, which runs from mount Olympus into the Euxine Sea. *Flaccus*, vii. 698.

RHEDA, a town of Lower Saxony, in the county of Lingen; 10 miles N. of Lippestadt. Lon. 25. 36. E. Ferro. Lat. 52. 47. N.

RHEDE, a town of the Batavian republic, in the department of the Rhine, and late province of Guelderland, on the Yssel; 7 miles N. of Arnheim, and 8 SW. of Doesburg.

RHEDONES. See REDONES.

RHEEDE, N. Esq. an eminent botanist of the 16th century. He was governor of Malabar, and published a well known work, entitled *Hortus Malabaricus*. We have seen no memoir of him.

RHEEDIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the polyandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking with those of which the order is doubtful. The corolla is tetrapetalous; there is no calyx; and the fruit is a trispermous berry.

RHEGIUM, in ancient geography, a city of Italy, so very ancient, as to be supposed to take name from the violent bursting of the coast of Italy from Sicily; thought to have been form conjoined. (*Mela, Virgil.*) It was a city of Bruttii, a colony of Chalcidians from Eube strong barrier opposed to Sicily; (*Strabo,*) tioned by Luke; surnamed *Julium*, (*Ptol* from a fresh supply of inhabitants sent thithe Augustus, after driving Sextus Pompeius ou Sicily; (*Strabo,*) and thus was in part a col retaining still the right of a municipium. It is called *Reggio*. See REGGIO, N° 3.

RHEGUSCI, an ancient people of Italy, lived in the Alps.

RHEID, a town of the French empire, in department of the Roer, and ci-devant duch Juliers; one mile E. of Gladbeck.

RHEIMS, a city of France, in the dep. of Maine, and late prov. of Champagne, and vant capital of Rhemois. It is one of the ancient, celebrated, and largest places in the pire, and had an archbishop's see. It is abo miles in circumference, and contains several squares, well built houses, and magnif churches. It had a mint, an university, and abbeys, the most famous of which was that Remy. There are also several triumphal a and other monuments of the Romans. It bout 30,000 citizens; with manufactures of nels, coverlets, and other woollen stuffs. seated on the river Vesle, on a plain surro by hills, which produce excellent wine. L 8. E. Lat. 49. 14. N.

RHEIN, a town of Prussia, 60 miles SE. of nigsberg.

(1.) RHEINAU, a town of France, in the partment of the Lower Rhine, seated on Rhine; formerly a large town, but more half of it has been destroyed by inundation the Rhine. It is 10½ miles NE. of Schelest 15 S. of Strasburg.

(2.) RHEINAU, a town of the Helvetic re lic, in Thurgau, on an island formed by Rhine; 5 miles SSW. of Schaffhausen.

(1.) RHEINBACH, or RYNBACH, a tow the French empire, in the department of the er, and ci-devant electorate of Cologn; 18 S. of Cologn, and 53 E. of Liege. Lon. 24 of Ferro. Lat. 51. 39. N.

(2.) RHEINBACH, a river of Upper Sax which rises 6 miles S. of Dolitsch, and join Loderbach, near Bitterfeld.

RHEINBECK, a town of Denmark, in duchy of Holstein; 10 miles E. of Hamburg.

RHEINBERG. See RHINEBERG.

(1.) * RHEIN BERRY. *n. s.* [*spina* and Lat.] Buckthorn, a plant.

(2.) RHEIN BERRY. See RHAMNUS, N° 1

RHEINBRUCK, a town of the French em in the department of the Rhine and Moselle, late electorate of Treves, seated on the Rh 15 miles NNW. of Coblentz, and 6 N. of Ad nach.

RHEINE, or REINEN, a town of Germany the ci-devant bishopric of Munster, on the Ri near a salt spring; 22 miles N. of Munster. appears to be in that part of the late bishop allot

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…ined by Bonaparte's decision of the indemni… to the K. of Prussia.

…NECK, or … a town of the Helvetic re… …NEGG, … public, capital of the Rhe… …, seated on the Rhine, near its junction … Lake Constance. The people are protest… … It is 8 miles SW. of Bregentz, and 26 SE. … stance.

…INFELDEN, a town of Germany, one of … first towns of Austrian Swabia, on the S. … of the Rhine, on the opposite bank of which … ved way in form of a horn-work, joined … them by a bridge. It is 9 miles E. of Basle, … NNE. of Soleure.

…EINHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the … bishopric of Spire, on the E. bank of … Rhine, 3 miles SE. of Spire, and 2 N. of Philips… It appears to be in that part of the in… … allotted by Bonaparte to the elector of … …

…HINMAGEN, or REMAGEN, a town of the … empire, in the department of the Roer, … devant duchy of Juliers, seated near the … anciently called *Regiomagus*; 19 miles … of Coblentz, and 30 from Cologn. Lon. … E. Ferro. Lat. 50. 38. N.

…INTHAL, a ci-devant bailiewick of the … republic, between the canton of Appen… … the Rhine. It is a fertile valley, 30 miles … and from 3 to 8 broad; and produces ex… …wine. Before the late revolutions it was a … common property to nine of the Swiss … It contains about 13,000 citizens, pro… …and papists.

…INWALD, a large valley of the Helvetic … in the country of the Grisons; so called … the Hinder Rhine, a branch of the Rhine, … in Mount Vogelsberg, 12 miles distant, … through it; 20 miles long. Splugen is … capital.

…INZABERN, a town of France, in the … ment of the Isle and Vilaine; 7½ miles SE. … and 13½ NE. of Weissenburg.

…MOIS, a ci-devant territory of France, in … prov. of Champagne, of which RHEIMS … capital. It is now included in the de… …ment of the Marne.

…MUS. See REMUS.

…NA, a town of Lower Saxony, in Meck… …; 12 miles WSW. of Wismar.

…NANUS, Beatus, a learned German, born … at in 1485, whence he removed to Ba… …e he corrected the press with Frobenius, … contracted a friendship with Erasmus. He … *the Life of Erasmus*; *Notes upon Tertullian*, … other classics; but his chief work is his *Res* …, in 2 vols folio. He died at Strasburg, …

…OS, in ancient geography, a small island … Ægean Sea, about 200 yards from DELOS, … it is sometimes called *Little Delos*. It is … 18 miles in circumference. *Thucyd. 3. Stra…*

…RENEN, a town of the Batavian republic, … department of the Dommel and Scheldt, … ci-devant prov. of Utrecht; 20 miles NNE. … le Duc, and 20 SE. of Utrecht.

…RENHAMUS. See RHENANUS.

RHENI, an ancient people of Germany, who inhabited the banks of the Rhine.

(1.) RHENISH, *adj.* Of or from the Rhine.

(2.) RHENISH WINE, that produced on the hills about Rheims. This wine is much used in medicine as a solvent of iron, for which it is well calculated on account of its acidity. Dr Percival observes, that it is the best solvent of the Peruvian bark; in which, however, he thinks its acidity has no share, because an addition of vinegar to water does not augment its solvent power.

(1.) RHENUS, in ancient geography, the RHINE, a large river of Germany, famous in ancient and modern history. It rises among the Alpes Lepontiæ, or Grisons; and first traversing the Lacus Acronius, divides the Rhæti and Vindelici from the Helvetii, and then the Germans from the Gauls and Belgæ; and running from S. to N. for the greatest part of its way, and at length bending its course west, it empties itself at several mouths; (*Cæsar*,) at 3 mouths into the German ocean, (*Pliny*,) viz. the western, or *Helius*; the northern, or *Flevibus*; and the middle between both these, which retains the original name, *Rhenus*: and in this Ptolemy agrees.—Mela and Tacitus mention two channels, and as many mouths, the right and left; the former running by Germany, and the latter by Gallia Belgica: and thus also Afinius Pollio, and Virgil; the cut or trench of Drusus not being made in their time, whereby the middle channel was much drained and reduced, and therefore overlooked by Tacitus and Mela; and which Pliny calls the *Scanty*. To account for Cæsar's several mouths, is a matter of no small difficulty with commentators; they do it by admitting that the Rhine naturally formed small drains or rivulets from itself, the cut of Drusus being long posterior to him; in whose time Afinius Pollio, quoted by Strabo, who agrees with him therein, affirmed that there were but two mouths, finding fault with those who made them more: and he must mean the larger mouths, which emitted larger streams. See RHINE, N° 1.

(2.) RHENUS a name given to Germany by the Romans, especially the poets.

RHESE, John David, M. D. was born in the Isle of Anglesey, in 1534, and elected fellow of Christ Church College, Oxford, in 1555. He took his degree at Sienna, and was so complete a master of the Italian language, as to be appointed moderator in the school of Pistoia, in Tuscany. He died at Brecknock, about 1609.

RHESUS, in fabulous history, king of Thrace, son of the Strymon by the Muse Terpsichore, or of Eioneus and Euterpe. After many warlike exploits in Europe, he went to assist Priam, king of Troy, against the Greeks. The Trojans were anxious for his arrival, as an oracle had declared, that Troy should never be taken if the horses of Rhesus drank the waters of the Xanthus, and eat the grass of Troy. Diomedes and Ulysses were therefore sent to intercept Rhesus: they entered his camp in the night, killed him, and carried off his horses. *Hom. Iliad.* x.

RHETICO, a mountain of Rhætia.

RHETICUS, George, a learned German astronomer, born at Feldkirk, in the Tyrolese, in

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1524. He became professor at Wirtemburg, but left his chair to improve himself under Copernicus; after which he resumed his chair. He went to Poland, and afterwards to Cassaria, in Hungary, where he died in 1576.

RHETORES, amongst the Athenians, were ten orators elected by lot to plead public causes in the senate house or assembly. For every cause in which they were retained, they received a drachm out of the public money. They were sometimes called Συνήγοροι, and their fee τὸ Συνηγορικὸν. No man was admitted to this office before he was 40 years of age, though others say 30. Valour in war, piety to their parents, prudence in their affairs, frugality, and temperance, were necessary qualifications for this office, and every candidate underwent an examination concerning these virtues previous to the election. The orators at Rome were not unlike the Athenian rhetores. See ORATOR.

RHETORIANS, a sect of heretics in Egypt, so denominated from RHETORIUS their leader. The distinguishing tenets of this heresiarch, as represented by Philastrius, was, that he approved of all the heresies before him, and taught that they were all in the right.

RHETORIC. *n. s.* See ORATORY.

* RHETORICAL. *adj.* [*rhetoricus*, Lat. from *rhetorick*.] Pertaining to rhetorick; oratorial; figurative.—The apprehension is so deeply rivetted into my mind, that *rhetorical* flourishes cannot at all loosen it. *More.*—Because Brutus and Cassius met a blackmore, and Pompey had on a dark garment at Pharsalia, these were presages of their overthrow, which notwithstanding are scarce *rhetorical* sequels. *Brown.*—The subject may be moral, logical, or *rhetorical*, which does not come under our senses. *Watts.*

* RHETORICALLY. *adv.* [from *rhetorical*.] Like an orator; figuratively; with intent to move the passions.

* *To* RHETORICATE. *v. n.* [*rhetoricor*, low Lat. from *rhetorick*.] To play the orator; to attack the passions.—'Twill be much more seasonable to reform, than apologize or *rhetoricate*. *Decay of Piety.*

(1.) * RHETORICIAN. *n. s.* [*rhetoricien*, Fr. *rhetor*, Lat.] 1. One who teaches the science of rhetorick.—The ancient sophists and *rhetoricians*, which ever had young auditors, lived till they were 100 years old. *Bacon.*—'Tis the business of *rhetoricians* to treat the characters of the passions. *Dryden.*—A man may be a very good *rhetorician*, and yet at the same time a mean orator. *Baker.* 2. An orator. Less proper.—

He play'd at Lyons a declaiming prize,
At which the vanquish'd *rhetorician* dies. *Dryd.*

(2.) * RHETORICIAN. *adj.* Suiting a master of rhetorick.—

Boldly presum'd with *rhetorician* pride,
To hold of any question either side. *Blackm.*

* RHETORICK. *n. s.* [ῥητορικὴ: *rhetorique*, Fr.] 1. The act of speaking not merely with propriety, but with art and elegance.—We could not allow him an orator, who had the best thoughts, and who knew all the rules of *rhetorique*, if he had not acquired the art of using them. *Dryden.*—Of the passions, and how they are moved, Aristotle, in his second book of *rhetorick*, hath admirably discoursed. *Locke.*—*Rhetorick* instructs to speak elegantly. *Baker.* 2. The power of persuasion; oratory.—

The heart's still *rhetorick*, disclos'd with eyes,

His sober lips then did he softly part,
Whence of pure *rhetorick* whole streams did flow.

Enjoy your dear wit and gay *rhetorick*,
That hath so well been taught.

RHEU, a town of France, in the department of the Ille and Vilaine; 4½ miles WSW. of Rennes and 2 ESE. of Montfort.

* RHEUM. *n. s.* [ῥεῦμα; *rheume*, Fr.] A watery matter oozing through the glands about the mouth. *Quincy.*—

Trust not these cunning waters of his eyes,
For villany is not without such a *rheum*,
You did void your *rheum* upon my face.

Rheums chill the winter, agues blast the

RHEUM, in botany, RHUBARB, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the enneandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 12th order, *Holoraceæ*. There is no calyx; the corolla is sexfid and patent, and there is one triquetrous seed. There are 4 species, viz.

1. RHEUM ARABICUM, the *Arabian* or *currant rhubarb* of Mount Libanus, hath a fleshy root, very broad leaves, full of great protuberances, and with equal foot-stalks; right firm stems, 3 or 4 feet high, terminated by spikes of flowers, surrounded by a purple

2. RHEUM COMPACTUM, the *Tartarian rhubarb*, hath a large, fleshy, branched root, white within; crowned by very large, broad leaves, somewhat lobated, sharply indented, rough leaves, and an upright large stem, 5 or 6 feet high, garnished with leaves singly, and branched above; having all the branches terminated by spreading panicles of white flowers. This is supposed to be the true rhubarb; which, however, though of superior quality to some, is accounted inferior to the rheum palmatum.

3. RHEUM PALMATUM, palmated-leaved Chinese rhubarb, hath a thick fleshy root, white within; crowned with very large palmated leaves, being deeply divided into acuminated segments, expanded like an open hand; upright stems, 6 feet high or more, terminated by large spikes or flowers. (See BOTANY, *Ind.* and *Plate* I. This is now proved to be the true foreign rhubarb, the purgative quality of which is known.

4. RHEUM RHAPONTICUM, *common rhubarb*, hath a large, thick, fleshy, branching, deeply striking root, yellowish within; crowned by very large, roundish, heart-shaped smooth leaves, thick, slightly furrowed foot-stalks: and an upright strong stem, 2 or 3 feet high, adorned with leaves singly, and terminated by thick close spikes of white flowers. It grows in Thrace and Scythia, but has been long in the English gardens. The root affords a gentle purge. It is however of inferior quality to some of the following sorts;

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the plant being aſtringent, its young ſtalk in ſpring, being cut and peeled, are uſed for tarts.

RHEUM UNDULATUM, the *undulated*, or *wavy-leaved Chineſe rhubarb*, hath a thick, branchy, deep-ſtriking root, yellow within; crowned with large, oblong, undulate, ſomewhat hairy leaves, having equal foot-ſtalks, and an upright firm ſtem, about high: garniſhed with leaves ſingly, and terminated by long looſe ſpikes of white flowers. All theſe plants are perennial in root, and the leaves and ſtalks are annual. The roots being thick, fleſhy, generally divided, ſtrike deep into the ground; of a browniſh colour without and yellow within: the leaves riſe in the ſpring, generally come up in a large head folded together, gradually expanding themſelves, having thick foot-ſtalks; and grow from one to two feet high, or more, in length and breadth, ſpreading all round: amidſt them riſe the flower-ſtems, which are garniſhed at each joint by one leaf, and are of ſtrong and expeditious growth, attaining their full height in June, when they flower; and are ſucceeded by large triangular ſeeds, ripening in Auguſt. Some plants of each ſort merit culture in gardens for variety; they effect a ſingularity with their luxuriant foliage, ſpikes, and flowers: and as medical plants, they demand culture both for private and public uſe. They are propagated by ſeeds ſown in autumn, ſoon after they are ripe, or early in ſpring, in an open bed of deep light earth. Thoſe for medical uſe ſhould be ſowed where they are to remain, that the roots may grow large. Scatter the ſeeds thinly, either by broad-caſt, or in drills 1½ feet diſtant. The plants will riſe in ſpring, but not flower till the 2d or 3d year. When they are 2 or 3 inches high, thin them to 8 or 10 inches: thoſe deſigned to ſtand ſhould be ſet out to 1½ or 2 feet diſtant. Keep the ground clean between them; and in autumn when the ſtalks decay cut them down, and dig between the rows: The roots remaining increaſe in ſize annually; and in the 2d or 3d year will ſhoot up ſtalks, flower and perfect ſeeds. In 3 or 4 years the roots will be large; but the oldeſt are preferred. Rhubarb is a mild cathartic. See MEDICINE and PHARMACY, *Indexes*. It has been lately cultivated in this country with ſucceſs; and for medical purpoſes is equal to that from Turkey and Ruſſia. See *Tranſ. of the London Society*, for 1792, 1793, and 1794.

* RHEUMATICK. *adj.* [ῥευματικὸς; from ῥεῦμα.] Proceeding from a rheum or peccant watery humour.—

Rheumatick diſeaſes do abound. *Shak.*

—The blood taken away look'd very ſizy or *rheumatick*. *Floyer.*

(1.) * RHEUMATISM. *n. ſ.* [ῥευματισμὸς; *rheumatiſme*, Fr. *rheumatiſmus*, Lat.] A painful diſtemper ſuppoſed to proceed from acrid humours. —*Rheumatiſm* is a diſtemper affecting chiefly the membrana communis muſculorum, which it makes rigid and unfit for motion; and it ſeems to be occaſioned almoſt by the ſame cauſes, as the exaſtigious glands in the joints are rendered ſtiff and gritty in the gout. *Quincy.*—

Rheumatiſms I ſend to rack the joints. *Dryd.*

(2.) RHEUMATISM. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

* RHEUMY. *adj.* [from *rheum*.] Full of ſharp moiſture.—

And tempt the *rheumy* and unpurged air,
To add unto his ſickneſs. *Shak.*

His head and *rheumy* eyes diſtil in ſhow'rs. *Dryden.*

RHEUNUS, a town of Arcadia. *Pauſ.* 8. c. 23.

RHEXIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the octandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking with thoſe of the 17th order, *Calycanthymæ*. The calyx is quadrifid with 4 petals inſerted into it; the antheræ are declining; the capſule is quadrilocular, within the belly of the calyx.

RHIANUS, an ancient Greek hiſtorian and poet of Thrace, originally a ſlave; who flouriſhed about A. A. C. 200. He wrote an account of the war between Sparta and Meſſenia, which laſted 20 years; and a hiſtory of the principal events and revolutions in Theſſaly. Of this work only a few verſes are extant. *Pauſ.* 4.

RHIDAGO, a river of Hyrcania. *Q. Curt.* 6.

RHINANTHUS, in botany, ELEPHANT'S HEAD, a genus of the angioſpermia order, belonging to the didynamia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 40th order, *Perſonatæ*. The calyx is quadrifid, and ventricoſe; the capſule bilocular, obtuſe, and compreſſed.

(1.) RHINE, a large river of Europe, which riſes in the Griſon Alps, in three ſtreams, which ſoon unite into one. The principal ſtream riſes in Mount St Gothard, and runs into the lake of Conſtance, near Rheineck; paſſing through that lake and the lake of Zell, it runs paſt or near to Stein, Schaffhauſen, Egliſau, Keiſerſthun, Seckingen, Rheinfelden, Baſle, Hunningen, Straſburg, Spire, Worms, Oppenheim, Mentz, Bingen, St Goar, Coblentz, Bonne, Cologn, Zons, Nuys, Duſſeldorp, Duyſburg, Rees and Emmeric; a little below which a large branch ſeparates to the left, under the name of WAAL; then to Hulſen and Arnheim, near which another branch breaks off to the right and joins the Yſſel. The river, which ſtill retains the name of *Rhine*, runs on to Wageningen, and Wyck le Duerſtede, where it again divides; the larger branch to the left taking the name of LECH, and falling into the MERWE, 5 miles NW. of Dort; the ſmaller, retaining the original name of the RHINE, runs by Utrecht, Voorden, Leyden, and falls at laſt into the ſand, a few miles below Leyden, juſt as it reaches the German Ocean.

(2.) RHINE, a river of Brandenburg, which runs into the Havel: 10 miles above Havelburg.

(3.) RHINE, a river of France, which runs into the Loire, near Roanne.

(4.) RHINE, a department of the Batavian republic, one of the 8, into which it was divided at the revolution in 1795. ARNHEIM is the capital; whence it appears to comprehend that quarter of Guelderland, called WELUWE, on the N. bank of the Rhine, of which Arnheim was formerly the chief city.

(5.) RHINE AND MOSELLE, a department of the French empire, one of the four departments into which the conquered German territories on

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the W. or Left bank of the Rhine were divided in 1798; and which were finally ceded to the French republic by the treaties of Luneville and Amiens. It comprehends the late duchy of Deux Ponts and part of the late palatinate. (See § 6.) MENTZ is the capital.

(6.) RHINE AND NAHE, a ci-devant department of the French republic, one of the *fix*, into which the territories on the left bank of the Rhine were firſt divided, in 1797. It comprehended part of the ci-devant electorate of Mentz, and included the territory of Bacharach, as far as Oppenheim, Simmern, Schomberg, Kreutznach, Weldence, Kirn, &c. Mentz was the capital. It is now included in the department of the Rhine and Moſelle. See § 5.

(7.) RHINE, LOWER, a circle of the empire of Germany, bounded by thoſe of Weſtphalia, the Upper Rhine, Franconia, and Suabia; and by the ci-devant duchy of Luxemburg and Franconia. Its real extent was never exactly determined; but, in conjunction with the circle of the Upper Rhine, (See N° 10.) the whole was eſtimated to contain 960 German ſquare miles. Before the late revolutionary war, it contained the ci-devant electorates of Mentz, Treves and Cologn; the Palatinate of the Rhine, and the late biſhopric of Worms. The elector of Mentz was the director. But the whole of theſe territories, that lie on the left or W. bank of the Rhine, were annexed to the French republic in Dec. 1797; and included in the departments of the Roer, the Sarre, the Rhine and Moſelle, and Mont Tonnere; and they now accordingly form a part of the overgrown French empire. Thoſe parts of this circle, that lie on the right or E. bank of the Rhine, form a part of the indemnities ſettled by Bonaparte in Auguſt 1802.

(8.) RHINE, LOWER, a department of the French empire, bounded on the N. by thoſe of the Moſelle, and the Rhine and Moſelle, or ci-devant duchy of Deux Ponts and late Palatinate; on the E. by the Rhine; on the S. by the department of the Upper Rhine; and on the W. by thoſe of the Voſges, the Meurthe, and the Moſelle. It is 70 miles long from N. to S. and 22 broad at a medium. It comprehends the N. part of Alſace, or ci-devant prov. of Lower Alſace. STRASBURG is the capital. See ALSACE.

(9.) RHINE, PALATINATE OF THE. See PALATINATE.

(10.) RHINE, UPPER, a circle of the German empire, bounded by thoſe of the Lower Rhine, Upper and Lower Saxony, Suabia, and Franconia; and by that part of France formerly called Alſace, now the department of the Upper Rhine, and the late duchy of Lorrain, now the departments of the Meuſe, Moſelle, and Voſges. The lower part of this circle includes the territories of Heſſe-Caſſel, Heſſe-Darmſtadt, Heſſe-Rhinefeldt, and Heſſe-Homburg; the counties of Naſſau, Solms, Hanau, Henburg, Wied, Weſterburg, and Waldeck; with the abbeys of Fulde and Hirſchfeld; the imperial towns of Francfort, Friedberg, and Wetzlar; the late biſhopric of Spire, and ci-devant duchy of Deux Ponts. The directors were, the late biſhop of Worms, and count of Sponheim. But the city and part of the biſhopric of Spire, with the late duchy of Deux Ponts, and ſome other pa of this circle on the W. bank of the Rhine, w annexed to the French republic in 1797, and cluded in the departments of the Rhine and M ſelle and Mont Tonnere; and hence now fo part of the French empire.

(11.) RHINE, UPPER, a department of Fra bounded on the N. by that of the Lower Rh (N° 8.) E. by the river Rhine; S. by the Helv canton of Soleure; SW. and W. by the dep ments of Doubs, Upper Saone, and Voſges. comprehends the S. part of Alſace, or ci-de province of Upper Alſace. (See ALSACE.) 50 miles long from N. to S. and 27 broad E. to W. COLMAR is the capital.

RHINEBERG, a town of the French emp in the department of the Roer, and late electo of Cologn. It is ſeated on the Rhine. Lon 39. E. Lat. 51. 30. N.

(1.) RHINECK, a town of the French emp in the dep. of the Roer, late electorate of Col ſeated on the Rhine. Lon. 7. 53. E. Lat. 50. 27

(2.) RHINECK. See RHEINECK.

RHINEFELDT, a ſtrong town of Germany Suabia. See RHEINFELDEN. It has been o taken and retaken in the German wars; and taken by the French, Oct. 21, 1794. Lon. 7. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

RHINEFELS, a caſtle of Germany, in the cle of the Lower Rhine, in a county ſo nam It is one of the moſt important places on Rhine, both in regard to ſtrength and ſituation is near St Goar, and built on a craggy rock. commands the whole breadth of the Rhine, thoſe who paſs pay a conſiderable toll. In time of war it is of great importance. Lon. 5. E. Lat. 50. 3. N.

RHINEGAU, or RHINEGAW, } a beautiful diſtrict of the French empire, in the ci-devant electorate of Mentz, ſituated on the Rhine about 3 miles from the city of Mentz, and ſo po pulous that it looks like one entire town, intermix ed with gardens and vineyards.

RHINELAND, or RHINLAND, a name given to a part of South Holland, which lies on both ſides of the Rhine, and of which Leyden is the capital town. It is now included in the depart ment of the Delft.

RHINE-SABERN, or RHINE-SAVERN, } a town of the French em pire, in the dept. of the Rhine and Moſelle, and late biſhopric of Spire with a caſtle; on the W. bank of the Rhine; miles S. of Spire. Lon. 8. 32. E. Lat. 49. 4. N.

RHINESBERG. See REINSBERG.

RHINLAND. See RHINELAND.

(I.) * RHINOCEROS. *n. ſ.* [ρὶς and κέρας; *rhinocerot*, Fr.] A vaſt beaſt in the Eaſt Indies armed with a horn on his noſe.—

Approach thou like the rugged Ruſſian bear
The arm'd *rhinoceros*, or Hyrcanian tyger. *Shak.*

—Shew a landſcape of the country natural to the beaſt; as to the *rhinoceros* an Eaſt Indian land ſcape, the crocodile, an Egyptian. *Peacham.*

(II.) RHINOCEROS, in zoology, a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of beluæ. The name is entirely Greek; but theſe animals were totally unknown to the ancient Greeks. Ariſtotle takes no notice of them, nor any other Greek write

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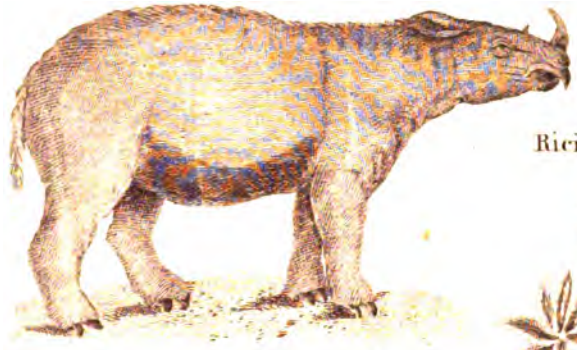
Rhinoceros Bicornis.

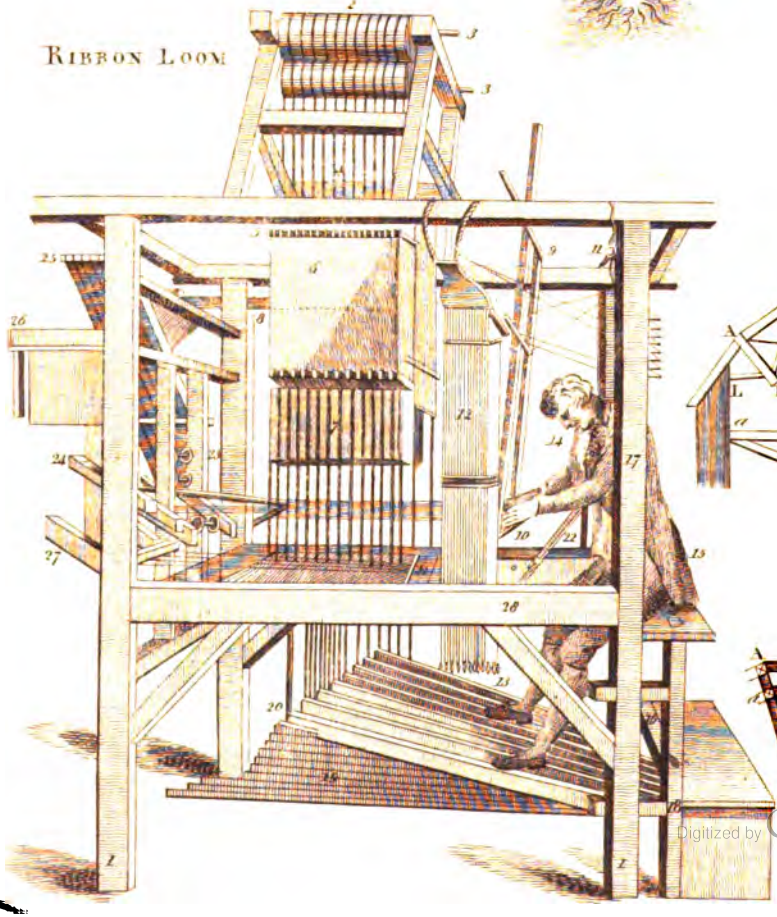
Plate CCXC

Ricinus Communis.

Ricinus Americanus.



RIBBON LOOM.



ROOFS.
Fig. 1.

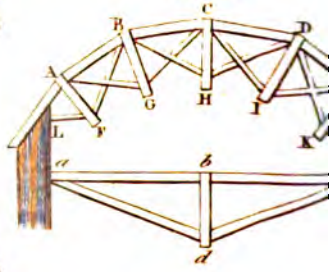
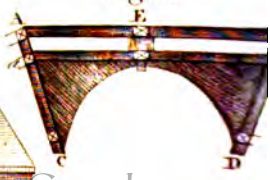


Fig. 2.



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were till Strabo, nor Roman till Pliny. It is probable they did not frequent that part of India into which Alexander had penetrated, since it was near 300 years after it, that Pompey brought them to Europe. From this time till the days of Heliogabalus, they were frequently exhibited in the Roman spectacles; and have often been transported into Europe in more modern times; but they were long very ill represented, and very imperfectly described, till some that arrived in London in 1739 and 1740 were inspected, by which the errors and omissions of former writers were detected. There are two species: viz.

1. Rhinoceros Bicornis was long known in Europe merely by the double horns which were preserved in various cabinets. Dr Sparman, in his voyage to the Cape of Good Hope, killed two of these animals, which he dissected and very minutely describes. The horns, he says, in the live animal are so mobile and loose, that when it walks briskly along, one may see them waggle about, and sometimes clash and clatter against each other. He says, that the horns are extremely sensible. In the *Phil. Transf.* for 1793, we have a description of the double-horned rhinoceros of Sumatra, by Mr Bell, surgeon in the service of the East India Company at Bencoolen; (See *Plate* CXCVI.) It was a male; the height at the shoulders was 4 feet 4 inches; at the sacrum nearly the same; from the tip of the nose to the end of the tail 5 inches.—From the appearance of its horns it was but young, and probably not full size. The shape was much like that of a hog. The general colour was a brownish grey; under the belly, between the legs and under the skin, a dirty flesh colour. The head somewhat resembled that of the single horned rhinoceros; the eyes were small, of a brown colour; the membrana nictitans thick and strong; the skin surrounding the eyes was wrinkled; the nostrils were wide; the upper lip was pointed, and hanging over the under. "There were six *molares*, or grinders, on each side of the upper and lower jaw, increasing gradually larger backward, particularly in the upper; two teeth in the front of each jaw; the tongue was quite smooth; the ears were small and pointed, lined and edged with short black hair, and situated like those of the single-horned rhinoceros. The horns were black, the upper was placed immediately above the nose, rising upwards, and was bent a little back; it is about nine inches, long. The small horn is four inches long, of a pyramidal shape, flattened a little, and placed above the eyes, rather a little more forward, standing in a line with the upper horn, immediately above it. They were both firmly attached to the skull, nor was there any appearance of joint or muscles to move them. The neck was thick and short, the skin on the under side thrown into folds, and these folds again wrinkled. The body was bulky and round, and from the shoulder ran a line, or fold, as in the single-horned rhinoceros, though it was but faintly marked. There were several other folds and wrinkles on the body and legs; and the whole have rather the appearance of softness: the legs are thick, short, and remarkably strong; the feet armed with three distinct hoofs, of a blackish colour, which surrounded half the foot, one in front, the others on each side.—The soles of the feet were convex, of a light colour, and the cuticle on them not thicker than that on the foot of a man who is used to walking; the testicles hardly appeared externally; the penis was bent backward and opened about 18 inches below the anus. The whole skin of the animal is rough, and covered very thinly with short black hair. The animal had not that appearance of armour which is observed in the single-horned rhinoceros. Since I dissected the male, I have had an opportunity of examining a female, which was more of a lead colour: it was younger than the male, and had not so many folds or wrinkles in its skin; of course it had still less the appearance of armour. The only external mark which distinguishes it from the male is the vagina, which is close to the anus; whereas in the male the opening for the penis is 13 inches below the anus." From the difference between this account and Sparman's, which in some particulars is considerable, and from the difference of shape, we are disposed to think them varieties. For further particulars we refer to Buffon, vol. vi. p. 92—117; Sparman's Voyage to the Cape, vol. ii. chap. 12.; and Bruce's Travels, vol. iv. p. 296, &c. and Appendix, p. 85, &c.

2. Rhinoceros Unicornis, the length, says Buffon, from the extremity of the muzzle to the origin of the tail, is at least 12 feet, and the circumference of the body is nearly the same. Their food in a natural state is thistles and thorny shrubs, which they prefer to the soft pasture of meadows; but they are fond of the sugar cane, and eat grain of all kinds. A tame one brought to London from Bengal, in 1739, was fed with rice, sugar, hay and herbs, to the amount of near L 1000 St. "This rhinoceros," (says Buffon,) "at the age of two years, was not taller than a young cow that has never produced. But his body was very long and very thick. His head was disproportionally large. From the ears to the horn there is a concavity, the two extremities of which, namely the upper end of the muzzle, and the part near the ears, are considerably raised. The horn, which was not yet above an inch high, was black, smooth at the top, but full of wrinkles directed backward at the base. The nostrils are situated very low, being not above an inch from the opening of the mouth. The under lip is pretty similar to that of the ox: but the upper lip has a greater resemblance to that of the horse, with this advantageous difference, that the rhinoceros can lengthen this lip, move it from side to side, roll it about a staff, and seize with it any object he wishes to carry to his mouth. The tongue of this young rhinoceros was soft, like that of a calf. His eyes had no vivacity: In figure they resembled those of the hog, and were situated lower, or nearer the nostrils, than in any other quadruped. His ears are large, thin at the extremities, and contracted at their origin by a kind of annular rugosity. The neck is very short, and surrounded with two large folds of skin. The shoulders are very thick, and at their juncture there is another fold of skin, which descends upon the fore legs. The body of this young rhinoceros was

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was very thick, and pretty much resembled that of a cow about to bring forth. Between the body and crupper there is another fold, which descends upon the hind legs. Lastly, another fold transversely surrounds the inferior part of the crupper, at some distance from the tail. The belly was large, and hung near the ground, particularly its middle part. The legs are round, thick, strong, and their joint bended backwards. This joint, which, when the animal lies, is covered with a remarkable fold of the skin, appears when he stands. The tail is thin, and proportionally short; that of the rhinoceros so often mentioned, exceeded not 16 or 17 inches in length. It turns a little thicker at the extremity, which is garnished with some short, thick, hard hairs. The form of the penis is very extraordinary. It is contained in a prepuce or sheath like that of the horse; and the first thing that appears in the time of erection is a second prepuce, of a flesh-colour, from which there issues a hollow tube, in the form of a funnel cut and bordered somewhat like a flower-de-luce, and constitutes the glans and extremity of the penis. This anomalous glans is of a paler flesh-colour than the second prepuce. In the most vigorous erection, the penis extends not above eight inches out of the body; and it is easily procured by rubbing the animal with a handful of straw when he lies at his ease. The direction of this organ is not straight, but bended backward. Hence he throws out his urine behind; and from this circumstance, it may be inferred that the male covers not the female, but that they unite with their cruppers to each other. The female organs are situated like those of the cow; and she exactly resembles the male in figure and grossness of body. The skin is everywhere covered more or less with incrustations in the form of galls or tuberosities, which are pretty small on the top of the neck and back, but become larger on the sides. The largest are on the shoulders and crupper, are still pretty large on the thighs and legs, upon which they are spread all round, and even on the feet. But between the folds the skin is penetrable, delicate, and as soft to the touch as silk, while the external part of the fold is equally hard with the rest. This tender skin between the folds is of a light flesh-colour; and the skin of the belly is nearly of the same colour and consistence. These galls or tuberosities should not be compared, as some authors have done, to scales. They are only simple indurations of the skin, without any regularity in their figure or symmetry in their respective positions. The flexibility of the skin in the folds enables the rhinoceros to move with facility his head neck and members. The whole body, except at the joints, is inflexible, and resembles a coat of mail. Dr Parsons remarks, that this animal listened with a deep and long continued attention to any kind of noise; and that, though he was sleeping, eating, or obeying any other pressing demands of nature, he raised his head, and listened till the noise ceased." These animals never assemble or march together in troops like elephants. Being of a more solitary and savage disposition, they are more difficult to hunt and to overcome. They never attack men, however, except when they are provoked, when they are very furious and formidable; but as they see only before them, and s very sharply, and as they turn with great diffi ty, they may be easily avoided. The skin of th animals is so extremely hard as to resist bul lances, javelins, and even musket balls, the penetrable parts being the belly, the eyes, about the ears. Hence the hunters generall tack them when they lie down to sleep.—T flesh is considered as excellent by the Indians Africans, but especially by the Hottentots; if they were trained when young, they migh rendered domestic, in which case they w multiply more easily than the elephant. inhabit Bengal, Siam, Colchin-China, Quan China, the isles of Java and Sumatra, C Angola, Ethiopia, and the country as low Cape. They love shady forests, the neigh hood of rivers, and marshy places. They low in the mire like hogs, and thus give in the folds of their skins to scorpions, p des, and other insects. Buffon and Edwa ny this; but it is generally thought to be They bring forth only one young at a time, which they are very solicitous. Their skin, hoofs, teeth and even dung, are used in Indi dicinally. The horn, especially that of a rhinoceros, is considered as an antidote poison. This species is supposed to be *Indian Ass*, of Aristotle; and the *bos unicorn fera monoceros* of Pliny. Many writers als der it as the UNICORN of Scripture, Mr Brus ports this opinion by many learned argume

(III.) RHINOCEROS BIRD. See BUCEROS.

RHINOCOLURA, an ancient town of on the borders of Palestine and Egypt. *Jo* c. 11.

RHINOW, a town of Brandenburg, in Middle Mark, on the Rhine; 20 miles Brandenburg.

RHINSBERG. See REINSBERG.

RHION, a promontory of Achaia, oppo Antirrhium in Ætolia, at the mouth of th rinthian Gulf, now called the DARDANELL LEPANTO.

RHIPHA, or } an ancient town of Ar
RHIPHÆ, } *Stat. Theb.* 4. 286.

RHIPHÆI MONTES. See RIPHEAN.

RHITYMNA. See RETIMO.

RHIUM. See RHION.

RHIZINIUM, an ancient town of Illyri *Liv.* xlv. c. 26.

RHIZOBALUS, in botany: A genus of th tragynia order, belonging to the polyandria of plants; and in the natural method ranking der the 23d order, *Tribilatæ*. The calyx is m phyllous, fleshy, and downy; the corolla co of five petals, which are round, concave, and much larger than the calyx; the stamin very numerous, filiform, and longer than the c la; the styli are 4, filiform; and of the length of stamina; the pericarpium has four drupæ, kid shaped, compressed with a fleshy substance in and in the middle a flat large nut contain kidney-shaped kernel. Of this there is only species,

RHIZOBALUS PERIA. The nut is sold in shops as American nuts; they are flat, tuber la

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and kidney-shaped, containing a kernel of ... same shape, which is sweet and agreeable. ... gives a good figure of the nut, and Aublet ... of the whole plant.

RHIZONITÆ, the people of RHIZINIUM.

RHIZOPHAGI. See ETHIOPIA, § 3.

RHIZOPHORA, the MANGROVE, or MANGLE, *Mangle of the Indians*, in botany, a genus of the ... order, belonging to the dodecandria ... plants; and in the natural method ranking ... the 12th order, *Holoraceæ*. The calyx is ...partite, the corolla partite; there is one ... very long, and carnous at the base. These ... are natives of the East and West Indies, and ... grow 40 or 50 feet high. They grow only ... water and on the banks of rivers, where the ... flows up twice a-day. They preserve the ver... of their leaves throughout the year. From ... lowest branches issue long roots, which hang ... to the water, and penetrate into the earth. ... position they resemble so many arcades, ... 5 to 10 feet high, which serve to support the ... of the tree, and even to advance it daily into ... bed of the water. The most natural way of ...gating these trees, is to suffer the several ... small filaments which issue from the main ... to take root in the earth. The most ... method, however, is that of laying the ... lower branches in baskets of mould or ... till they have taken root. This descrip... contains chiefly to a particular species of man..., termed by the West Indians *black mangles*, ...ment of the brown dusky colour of the wood. ... bark is very brown, smooth, pliant when ..., and generally used in the West India islands ... tanning of leather. Below this bark lies a cu..., or skin, which is lighter, thinner, and more ... The wood is nearly of the same colour ... bark; hard, pliant, and very heavy. It is ...ally used for fuel, for which purpose it is ... be remarkably proper: the fires which are ... of this wood being both clearer, more ardent ... durable than those made of any other mate... whatever.—The wood is compact; almost ...ceptible; never splinters; is easily worked; ... were it not for its enormous weight, would ...commodiously employed in almost all kinds of ..., as it possesses every property of good tim... To the roots and branches of mangroves ... are immersed in the water, oysters frequently ... themselves. The *red mangle* or mangrove ... on the sea-shore, and at the mouth of large ...; but does not advance, like the former, into ... water. It generally rises to the height of 20 ...30 feet, with crooked, knotty branches, which ... from all parts of the trunk. The bark is ..., of a brown colour, and, when young, is ..., and adheres very closely to the wood; ... when old, appears quite cracked, and is easily ...ched from it. Under this bark is a skin as ... as parchment, red, and adhering closely to ... wood; from which it cannot be detached till ... tree is felled and dry. The wood is hard, ...pact, heavy, of a deep red, with a very fine ...in. The pith or heart of the wood being cut ...o small pieces, and boiled in water, imparts a ...y beautiful red to the liquid, which communi...es the same colour to wool and linen. From the fruit of this tree, which, when ripe, is of a violet colour, and resembles some grapes in taste, is prepared an agreeable liquor, much esteemed by the inhabitants of the Caribee islands. WHITE MANGLE, so termed from the colour of its wood, grows, like the two former, upon the banks of rivers, but is seldom found near the sea. The bark is grey; the wood, as we have said, white, and when green, supple; but dries as soon as cut down, and becomes very light and brittle. This species is generally called *rose mangrove*, from the use to which the bark is applied by the inhabitants of the West Indies. This bark, which, by reason of the great abundance of sap, is easily detached when green from the wood, is beaten or bruised betwixt two stones, until the hard and woody part is totally separated from that which is soft and tender. This last, which is the true cortical substance, is twisted into ropes of all sizes, which are exceedingly strong, and not apt to rot in the water.

RHO, a town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Olona, district and late duchy of Milan; seated on the Colona: 8 miles W. of Milan.

(1.) RHODA, an ancient sea port town of Spain; now called ROSAS. *Liv.* 34. c. 8.

(2.) RHODA, an ancient town of Gallia Narbonensis, on the banks of the Rhone; from which that river received its original name, RHODANUS.

RHODANUS, a river of Gallia Narbonensis, rising in the Rhætian Alps, and falling into the Mediterranean sea, near Marseilles. (*Mela*, ii. c. 5. *Sil. Ital.* iii, 447.) It is now called RHONE.

(1.) RHODE ISLAND, one of the United States of N. America, bounded on the N. and E. by that of Massachusets; S. by the Atlantic, and W. by Connecticut. It is 47 miles long from N. to S. and its greatest breadth is 37 from E. to W. according to some: but the rev. Dr Morse makes it 68 miles long, and 40 broad; while Mr Joseph Scott, in his *United States Gazetteer*, makes it only 59 miles long. This state corresponds what was formerly styled *Rhode Island and Providence Plantations*; and its total surface is estimated at 1,300 square miles. It is divided into 5 counties; viz. NEWPORT, PROVIDENCE, WASHINGTON, BRISTOL, and KENT; which are subdivided into at least 30 townships. The climate is remarkably healthy: the soil is partly barren, partly fertile, and produces, corn, rye, barley, wheat, and fruits, &c. The population in 1795, was 67,877 citizens, and 948 slaves. The chief islands are RHODE ISLAND, CANONICUT, *Block Island* and *Prudence*. The chief rivers are PROVIDENCE, *Pautucket*, *Patuxet*, *Warren*, and *Mashassuck*. The chief Bay is NARRAGANSET, which, as well as the rivers, abounds with fish. Lobsters, oysters, and other shell fish abound on the coasts. Limestone and iron ore are plentiful, and a copper mine has been discovered. The literature of this state is chiefly cultivated at Providence, where is a college, and Newport. The religious sects are Baptists, (who are most numerous,) Congregationalists, Quakers, Methodists, Episcopalians, Moravians, and Jews. The slave trade is lately abolished. The chief exports are lintseed, lumber, horses, cattle, beef, pork, fish, poultry, butter, cheese, grain, &c. The chief imports are European manufactures,

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W.

W. India goods, and logwood. The chief manufactures are bar and ſheet iron, nails, implements of huſbandry, pots, ſtoves and other utenſils, anchors, bells, the iron work of ſhips, ſpirits, paper, cards, &c. NEWPORT and PROVIDENCE, are the two chief towns. The Conſtitution of this State is founded on a charter from Charles II. in 1663; and it was not eſſentially altered by the revolution. The legiſlature conſiſts of two houſes; viz. a ſenate of ten members, beſides the governor and his deputy; and a houſe of repreſentatives, compoſed of deputies from the towns. The members are elected twice a-year; and hold two ſeſſions annually, the 1ſt Wed. in May, and the laſt in Oct. The executive power is veſted in the governor, or his deputy; who, with the aſſiſtants, ſecretary and treaſurer, are elected annually in May, by the votes of the citizens. There is one ſupreme judicial court of 5 judges, whoſe juriſdiction extends over the whole ſtate, and who hold 8 courts annually in each county. There are alſo, in each county, inferior courts of common pleas and general ſeſſions. This ſtate was firſt ſettled by citizens from Maſſachuſetts, who left that ſtate on account of religious diſſentions and perſecutions, in 1634, 5 and 6. Lon. from 3° 11′ to 4° E. of Philadelphia. Lat. from 41° to 42° N.

(2.) RHODE ISLAND, a beautiful and fertile iſland in the above ſtate, to which it gives name, lying in the mouth of Narraganſet Bay. It is about 16 miles long from N. to S. and 4 broad at an average. It is divided into 3 townſhips; viz. Newport, Portſmouth, and Middleton. In 1795, it contained 8,116 citizens, and 255 ſlaves. In richneſs of ſoil and temperature of climate, it is exceeded by few in the world, whence it is ſtyled *the Eden* of America. During the American war, it ſuffered much; the Engliſh ſoldiers wantonly deſtroying its elegant country ſeats, groves, orchards, foreſts, and fruit trees. Induſtry, manufactures and commerce are now reſtored, and the iſland has recovered its former ſplendor. About 40,000 ſheep, beſides many horſes and black cattle are fed on it. It has a bridge at the N. end, which connects it with the continent at Tiverton; 900 feet long, 36 broad, and ſupported by 42 piers; with a drawbridge in the middle to let ſhips paſs, which one man can move and replace with eaſe. The greateſt depth is 8½ fathoms water. It is 40 miles SW. of Boſton. Lon. 71. 20. W. Lat. 41. 25. N.

RHODEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and county of Waldeck: 24 m. NNW. of Waldeck, and 20 SSE. of Paderborn.

RHODE RIVER, a river of N. Carolina, the W. head water of the NW. branch of Cape Fear River.

(1. 1.) RHODES, a celebrated iſland in the Archipelago, the largeſt and moſt eaſterly of the Cyclades, was known in ancient times by the names of *Aſteria, Ophiuſa, Æthrea, Trinacria, Corymbia, Poeſſa, Atabyria, Marcia, Otoeſſa, Stadia, Telchinis, Pelagia*, and *Rhodus*. In later ages, the name of RHODUS, or *Rhodes*, prevailed, from the Greek word *rhodon, a roſe*; the iſland abounding very much with theſe flowers. It is about 10 miles diſtant from the coaſts of Lycia and Caria, and about 120 miles in compaſs.

(2.) RHODES, ANCIENT ACCOUNTS OF. Pliny and ſeveral other ancient authors aſſert, that Rhodes was formerly covered by the ſea, but gra raiſed its head above the waves, and bec iſland. Philo aſcribes this event to the de of the waters of the ocean. If his conjec not without foundation, moſt of the iſles Archipelago, being lower than Rhodes, mu had a ſimilar origin. But it is much more pr that the volcanic fires, which in the 4th the 135th Olympiad, raiſed Therafia and known at preſent by the name of *Santorin* the depths of the ſea, and have in our days t out ſeveral ſmall iſlands adjacent, alſo pr in ſome ancient era Rhodes and Delos.

(3.) RHODES, ANCIENT INHABITANTS OF. firſt inhabitants of Rhodes, according to Di Siculus, were called the TELCHINÆ, wh originally from the iſland of Crete. Th their ſkill in aſtrology, perceiving that th was ſoon to be deluged, left their habitatio made room for the Heliades, or deſcend Phœbus, who took poſſeſſion of the iſla excelled all other men in learning, invente gation, &c. In after ages, however, being with great ſerpents which bred in the iſlan conſulted the oracle in Delos, which adviſ to admit Phorbas, a Theſſalian, with his fo into Rhodes. This was done, and Phorba deſtroyed the ſerpents, was, after his de noured as a demigod. Afterwards a co Cretans ſettled in the iſland, and a little be Trojan war, Tlepolemus the ſon of H was made king of it, and governed with gr tice. After the Trojan war, all the ancie bitants were driven out by the Dorians, w tinued to be maſters of the iſland for many

(4.) RHODES, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODU The air is ſalubrious, and the ſoil dry and but the numerous ſprings, which water it r extremely fertile; though indifferently cul Corn thrives well. Its grain is yellow and but affords very white flour, which makes e bread. If only half the ſoil were cultivat Rhodians might export vaſt quantities.

(5.) RHODES, COLOSSUS OF. See COLOSSUS, N

(6.) RHODES, GOVERNMENT OF. Mr Cl. Cr well ſays, "the government of Rhodes was *ab* republican, and the ſupreme authority was lod with the people." and others ſay, the governm was at firſt monarchical; but a little before the pedition of Xerxes into Greece, a republican f of government was introduced; during which Rhodians applied themſelves to navigation, became very powerful by ſea, planting ſeveral lonies in diſtant countries. In the time of the loponeſian war, the republic of Rhodes was into two factions, one of which favoured the thenians, and the other the Spartans; but at len the latter prevailing, democracy was aboliſ and ariſtocracy introduced. About 351 B. C. find the Rhodians oppreſſed by Mauſolus kin Caria, and at laſt reduced by Artemiſia his wid In this emergency, they applied to the Athenia by whoſe aſſiſtance they regained their liberty

(7.) RHODES, HISTORY OF, FROM ALEXAN THE GREAT'S DEATH, TILL THE SIEGE BY METRIUS. From the period above mentioned that of Alexander the Great, the Rhodians enjo an uninterrupted tranquillity. To him they vol ta

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ly submitted; and were on that account high-
oured by him: but no sooner did they hear
th of his death, than they drove out the Macedonian
ison, and once more became a free people.
r this time happened a dreadful inundation
Rhodes; which, being accompained with vio-
storms of rain, and hailstones of an extraordi-
ry size, beat down many houses, and killed
numbers of the inhabitants. As the city
s in the form of an amphitheatre, and no
had been taken to clear the pipes and con-
which conveyed the water into the sea, the
ipes were instantly laid under water, and
habitants drowned. As the deluge increas-
many of the inhabitants fled to their ships.
e wall on a sudden bursting asunder, and the
discharging itself into the sea, they were
ved from all farther danger. The Rhodians
overed their losses by trade. During the
among the successors of Alexander, the Rho-
observed a strict neutrality; whereby they
ed themselves so much, that Rhodes became
e most opulent states of that age; insomuch,
they undertook the *piratic war*, and,
their own charge, cleared the seas of the pirates
had for many years infested the coasts of Eu-
and Asia. But as the most advantageous
ches of their commerce were derived from
they were more attached to Ptolemy, than
of the neighbouring princes. When there-
Demetrius, having engaged in a war with Pto-
my about Cyprus, demanded succours of them,
ich they refused him not to compel them to declare
inst their ancient friend and ally. Anti-
immediately ordered one of his admirals to
with his fleet to Rhodes, and seize all the ships
ich were out of the harbour for Egypt. The
ians equipped a number of galleys, fell upon
many, and obliged them to retire, with the
many ships. Hereupon Antigonus threat-
to besiege their city with his whole army.
Rhodians endeavoured by embassies to ap-
his wrath; but the only terms upon which
would hearken to any accommodation were,
the Rhodians should declare war against Ptole-
that they should admit his fleet into their har-
and that 100 of the chief citizens should be
ivered up to him as hostages. The Rhodians,
ever, sent ambassadors to all their allies, and to Ptolemy in
ticular, imploring their assistance. The pre-
ions on both sides were immense. Antigonus
near 80 years of age, committed the manage-
of the war to his son Demetrius, surnamed
iorcetes, or the *Taker of Towns*, who appeared
fore Rhodes with 200 ships of war, and 170
orts, having on board 40,000 men and 1000
vessels laden with provisions and all sorts of
ge engines; insomuch that the whole sea be-
the continent and the island was covered
ships.

RHODES, HISTORY OF, FROM THE COM-
MENCEMENT TILL THE RAISING OF THE SIEGE.
Demetrius, having landed his troops beyond the
of the enemy's machines, detached several
dies to lay waste the country, and cut
the trees, employing the timber to fortify
camp with strong ramparts and a treble pali-
The Rhodians, on their part, prepared for
a vigorous defence. Many great commanders,
who had signalized themselves on other occasions,
came to Rhodes, to try their military skill against
Demetrius. The besieged, taking an account of
those who were capable of bearing arms, found
that the citizens amounted to 6000, and the fo-
reigners to 1000. Liberty was promised to all
the slaves who should distinguish themselves by
any glorious action, and the public engaged to
pay the masters their full ransom. A proclama-
tion was likewise made, declaring, that whoever
died in defence of their country should be buried
at the public expence; that his parents and chil-
dren should be maintained out of the treasury;
that fortunes should be given to his daughters;
and his sons should be crowned at the great fes-
tival of Bacchus; which kindled an incredible ar-
dour in all ranks. Demetrius, having planted all
his engines, began to batter with incredible fury
the walls on the side of the harbour; but was for
8 days successively repulsed by the besieged, who
set fire to the most of his warlike engines. De-
metrius having repaired his engines, ordered a
general assault to be made. But the besieged re-
pulsed the aggressors with great slaughter, and
performed the most astonishing feats of bravery.
Demetrius returned to the assault next day; but
was again forced to retire, after having lost a
great number of men, and some officers. Having
seized and fortified an eminence near the city, he
caused several batteries to be erected there, with
engines, which incessantly discharged against the
walls stones of 150 lb. weight: so that the towers
began to totter, and several breaches were open-
ed in the walls: but the Rhodians, unexpectedly
sallying out, drove the enemy from their post, o-
verturned their machines, and made a most dread-
ful havock. Demetrius now ordered a scalade
by sea and land at the same time; so that the be-
sieged were at a loss what place they should chief-
ly defend. The attack was carried on with the
utmost fury, and the besieged defended them-
selves with the greatest intrepidity. After the
combat had lasted many hours, with great slaugh-
ter on both sides, Demetrius retired to repair his
engines, and give his men some rest. Demetrius,
after having refreshed his men, returned with
new vigour against the fortifications which de-
fended the harbour. When he came within the
cast of a dart, he caused a vast quantity of burn-
ing torches and firebrands to be thrown into the
Rhodian ships, which were riding there; and at
the same time galled, with dreadful showers of
darts, arrows, and stones, such as offered to ex-
tinguish the flames. However the Rhodians put a
stop to the fire; and, having with great expedition,
manned 3 strong ships, drove with such violence a-
gainst the vessels on which the enemy's machines
were planted, that they were shattered in pieces,
and the engines thrown into the sea. Exceptus
the Rhodian admiral, encouraged by this suc-
cess, attacked the enemy's fleet with 3 ships, and
sunk many vessels; but was himself taken pri-
soner: the other two vessels escaped and regain-
ed the port. Demetrius now ordered a machine
of a new invention to be built, which was thrice
the height and breadth of those he had lost. But
as it was entering the harbour, a dreadful storm
arising,

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arising, drove it againſt the ſhore, with the veſſels on which it had been reared. The beſieged, while the tempeſt was ſtill raging, made a ſally againſt thoſe who defended the eminence; and, though repulſed ſeveral times, carried it at laſt, obliging 400 Demetrians to throw down their arms and ſubmit. After this victory of the Rhodians, there arrived to their aid 150 Gnoſſians, and 500 men ſent by Ptolemy from Egypt, moſt of them natives of Rhodes, who had ſerved among his troops. Demetrius, extremely mortified to ſee all his batteries againſt the harbour ineffectual, reſolved to employ them by land, in hopes of carrying the city by aſſault, or at leaſt reducing it to a capitulation. With this view he framed the famous engine called *helepolis*, which was by many degrees larger than any that had ever been invented before. (See HELEPOLIS.) It was moved upon 8 ſtrong and large wheels, whoſe felloes were ſtrengthened with ſtrong iron plates. To facilitate and vary its movements, caſters were placed under it, whereby it was turned in an inſtant to what ſide the workmen and engineers pleaſed. From each of the 4 angles a large pillar of wood was carried to about the height of 100 cubits, and inclining to each other; the machine conſiſting of 9 ſtories, whoſe dimenſions gradually leſſened in the aſcent. The firſt ſtory was ſupported by 43 beams, and the laſt by no more than nine. Three ſides of the machine were plated over with iron, to prevent its being damaged by fire. In the front of each ſtory were windows of the ſame ſize and ſhape as the engines that were to be diſcharged from thence; with ſhutters, to draw up for the defence of thoſe who managed the machines, and to deaden the force of the ſtones thrown by the enemy, the ſhutters being covered with ſkins ſtuffed with wool. Every ſtory was furniſhed with two large ſtaircaſes, that whatever was neceſſary might be brought up by one, while others were going down by the other, and ſo every thing might be diſpatched without tumult or confuſion. This huge machine was moved forwards by 3000 of the ſtrongeſt men of the whole army; but the art with which it was built greatly facilitated the motion. Demetrius cauſed likewiſe to be made ſeveral teſtudoes or pent-houſes, to cover his men while they advanced to fill up the trenches and ditches; and invented a new ſort of galleries, thro' which thoſe who were employed at the ſiege might paſs and repaſs without danger. He employed all his ſeamen in levelling the ground over which the machines were to be brought up, to the ſpace of 4 furlongs. The number of workmen employed amounted to 30,000. The Rhodians, obſerving theſe formidable preparations, raiſed a new wall within which the enemy intended to batter with the helepolis. To accompliſh this, they pulled down the wall which ſurround the theatre, ſome neighbouring houſes, and even ſome temples, after having ſolemnly vowed to build more magnificent ſtructures in honour of the gods, if the city were preſerved. At the ſame time they ſent out 9 of their beſt ſhips to ſeize ſuch of the enemy's veſſels as they could meet with, and thereby diſtreſs them for want of proviſions. As theſe ſhips were commanded by their braveſt ſea-officers, they ſoon returned wi immenſe booty, and many priſoners. A other veſſels, they took a galley richly lad board of which they found a great variety luable furniture, and a royal robe, which herſelf had wrought and ſent as a preſent husband Demetrius, accompanied with a written with her own hand. The Rhodi the furniture, the royal robe, and even the to Ptolemy; which highly exaſperated trius. While Demetrius was preparing t the city, the Rhodians having aſſembled ple and magiſtrates, ſome propoſed in th bly the pulling down of the ſtatues of A and his ſon Demetrius, which till then h held in great veneration. But this propo generally rejected, which greatly allay wrath both of Antigonus and Demetrius ever, the latter continued to carry on the vigour, and cauſed the walls to be ſecreti mined: but a deſerter gave notice of the the Rhodians, who having drawn a deep along the wall, began to countermine, a ing the enemy under ground, obliged th bandon the work. While both parties the mines, one Athenagoras, a Mileſian, been ſent to the aſſiſtance of the Rhod Ptolemy with a body of mercenaries, pro betray the city to the Demetrians, and in through the mines in the night-time. was only to enſnare them; for Alexander, Macedonian, whom Demetrius had ſent choice body of troops to take poſſeſſion agreed on, no ſooner appeared, but he w priſoner by the Rhodians, who were wa him under arms. Athenagoras was cro the ſenate with a crown of gold, and p with five talents of ſilver. Demetrius no all his hopes of reducing the city in the engines which he had contrived. Havi fore levelled the ground, he brought up polis, with 4 teſtudoes on each ſide of other teſtudoes of an extraordinary ſize, battering rams, were likewiſe moved for 1000 men. Each ſtory of the helepolis with all ſorts of engines for diſcharging arrows, and darts. When all things wer Demetrius ordered the ſignal to be given his men aſſaulted the city on all ſides bo and land. But, in the heat of the attack the walls were ready to fall by the repeate of the battering rams, ambaſſadors arri Caidus, ſoliciting Demetrius to ſuſpend ther hoſtilites, and giving him hopes t ſhould prevail upon the Rhodians to ſ an honourable capitulation. A ſuſpenſion was agreed on, and ambaſſadors ſent fr ſides. But the Rhodians refuſing to capit the conditions offered, the attack was with ſo much fury, that a large tower, b ſquare ſtones, and the wall that flanked battered down. The beſieged, neverthele in the breach with ſo much courage an tion, that the enemy, after various unſ attempts, were forced to retire. In this fleet which Ptolemy had freighted with meaſures of corn, and different kinds of the uſe of the Rhodians, arrived very ſe

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the port, notwithstanding the vigilance of the ...'s ships, which cruized on the coasts of the ... to surprize them. A few days after came ... two other fleets, one sent by Cassander, ... 150,000 bushels of barley; the other by ...machus, with 400,000 bushels of corn and as ... of barley. These supplies inspired the be... with new courage, and they formed a de... of setting the enemy's engines on fire, in ... night ensuing. The Rhodian troops sudden... ...ed out, and advancing to the batteries, set ... on fire, while the engines from the walls ... incessantly on those who endeavoured to ... with the flames. The Demetrians on this ... fell in great numbers. The conflagra... was so great, that the helepolis would have ... consumed, had not Demetrius called toge... those whose province it was to move them; ... brought them off. In the mean time, the ...ged, improving the respite allowed them by ... removal of the machines, built a third wall ... form of a crescent, which took in all that ... that was most exposed to the enemy's bat...; and, besides, drew a deep trench behind ... breach, to prevent the enemy from entering ... city that way. At the same time, they de... a squadron of their best ships under A..., who made over to the continent of A... and there meeting with some privateers who ... commissioned by Demetrius, took both the ... and the men, among whom were Timocles ... chief of the pirates, and several officers of dis... of the fleet of Demetrius. On their re..., they took several vessels laden with corn for ... enemy's camp. These were soon followed by ...merous fleet of small vessels loaded with corn ... provisions sent them by Ptolemy, with 1500 ..., under Antigonus a Macedonian of great ex...ence. Demetrius, having repaired his ma..., brought them up anew to the walls; ... he incessantly battered till he opened a ... breach and threw down several towers. But ... he came to the assault, the Rhodians, under ...ias, defended themselves with such intrepi... that he was three times repulsed with great ...ghter. The Rhodians likewise lost several of...; and among st others, the brave Amnias. ... the Rhodians were thus signalizing them...es in the defence of their country, a second ...ssy of 50 ambassadors arrived from Athens ... the other cities of Greece, soliciting Deme... to make a peace with the Rhodians. A ces... of arms was agreed upon, but the terms of... by Demetrius being anew rejected by the ...odians, hostilities were renewed; and Deme... formed a detachment of 1500 of his best ... under Alcimus and Maricus, two officers ...experience, ordering them to enter the breach ... midnight, and possess themselves of the strong ... about the theatre. To facilitate the exe...tion of so dangerous an undertaking, he a...sted the enemy with false attacks on all sides ... sea and land. Accordingly the detachment ...entered the breach, and fell upon those who de...ended the ditch, with such vigour, that, having ...lain the most part of them they advanced to the ...theatre, and seized on the post adjoining to it. This occasioned a general uproar in the city; but the commanding officers sent orders to the soldiers not to quit their posts. Having thus secured the walls, they put themselves at the head of a chosen body of their own troops, and of those lately come from Egypt, and with these charged the enemy's detachment. But the darkness of the night prevented them from dislodging the enemy. Next day the Rhodians fought like men in despair, the enemy defending their posts several hours without giving ground. At length the Rhodians breaking into the enemy's battalion, killed both their commanders. The rest were easily put into disorder, and all to a man either killed or taken prisoners. The Rhodians also lost many of their best commanders; and among the rest Damoetis, their chief magistrate, a man of extraordinary valour, who had signalized himself during the whole time of the siege. Demetrius was making the necessary preparations for a new assault, when he received letters from his father, enjoining him to conclude a peace with the Rhodians upon the best terms he could get. At the same time ambassadors arrived from the Ætolian republic, soliciting the contending parties to put an end to a war which might involve all the east in endless calamities. Demetrius, however, was preparing to advance his helepolis against the city, when a Rhodian engineer rendered it quite useless. He undermined the tract of ground over which the helepolis was to pass the next day to approach the walls. Demetrius, not suspecting any stratagem, caused the engine to be moved forward, which coming to the place that was undermined, sunk so deep into the ground that it was impossible to draw it out again. This misfortune determined Demetrius to make up a peace upon the following conditions: That the republic of Rhodes should be maintained in the full enjoyment of their ancient rights, privileges, and liberties, without any foreign garrison; that they should renew their ancient alliance with Antigonus, and assist him in his wars against all states and princes except Ptolemy king of Egypt; and that, for the effectual performance of the articles stipulated between them, they should deliver 100 hostages, such as Demetrius should make choice of, except those who bore any public employment. Thus was the siege raised, after it had continued a whole year; and the Rhodians amply rewarded all those who had distinguished themselves in the service of their country. They also set up statues to Ptolemy, Cassander, and Lysimachus; to all of whom they paid the highest honours, especially to the first, whom they worshipped as a god. Demetrius at his departure presented them with the helepolis, and all the other machines which he had employed in battering the city; from the sale of which, with some additional sums of their own, they erected the famous COLOSSUS.

(9.) RHODES, HISTORY OF, TILL THE WAR WITH PHILIP V. The Rhodians after this applied themselves entirely to trade and navigation; by which means they became quite masters of the sea, and much more opulent than any of the neighbouring nations. As far as lay in their power, they endea-

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voured to preſerve neutrality with regard to the jarring nations of the eaſt. However, they could not avoid a war with the Byzantines, the occaſion was this: The Byzantines being obliged to pay a tribute of 80 talents to the Gauls, to raiſe this ſum, they reſolved to lay a toll on all ſhips that traded to the Pontic ſea. This reſolution provoked the Rhodians, who were a trading nation, and they immediately diſpatched ambaſſadors to the Byzantines, complaining of the new tax; but as the Byzantines had no other method of ſatisfying the Gauls, they perſiſted in their reſolution. The Rhodians now declared war, and prevailed upon Pruſias king of Bithynia, and Attalus king of Pergamus, to aſſiſt them; by which confederacy the Byzantines were ſo intimidated, that they agreed to exact no toll from ſhips trading to the Pontic ſea. About this time happened a dreadful earthquake, which threw down the coloſſus, the arſenal, and great part of the city walls of Rhodes; which calamity the Rhodians improved to their advantage, ſending ambaſſadors to all the Grecian princes and ſtates, to whom their loſſes were ſo much exaggerated, that their countrymen obtained immenſe ſums of money under pretence of repairing them. Hiero king of Syracuſe preſented them with 100 talents; and, beſides, exempted from all tolls and duties ſuch as traded to Rhodes. Ptolemy king of Egypt gave them 100 talents, a million of meaſures of wheat, materials for building 20 quinqueremes and the like number of triremes; and, beſides, ſent them 100 architects, 300 workmen, and materials for repairing their public buildings, to a great value, paying them moreover 14 talents a-year for the maintenance of the workmen whom he ſent them. Antigonus gave them 100 talents of ſilver, with 10,000 pieces of timber, each piece being 16 cubits long; 7000 planks; 3000 pounds of iron, as many of pitch and reſin, and 1000 meaſures of tar. Chryſeis, a woman of diſtinction, ſent them 100,000 meaſures of wheat, and 3000 pounds of lead. Antiochus exempted from all taxes and duties the Rhodian ſhips trading to his dominions; preſented them with 10 galleys, and 200,000 meaſures of corn, with many other things of great value. Pruſias, Mithridates, and all the princes then reigning in Aſia, made them proportionable preſents: in ſhort, all the Greek towns and nations, all the princes of Europe and Aſia, contributed, according to their ability, to the relief of the Rhodians on that occaſion; inſomuch that their city not only ſoon roſe from its ruins, but attained to an higher pitch of ſplendor than ever. In the year 203 B. C. the Rhodians engaged in a war with Philip V. of Macedon.

(10.) RHODES, HISTORY OF, TILL THE WAR WITH THE ROMANS. Philip had invaded the territories of Attalus king of Pergamus; and becauſe the Rhodians ſeemed to favour their ancient friend, ſent one Heraclides, by birth a Tarentine, to ſet fire to their fleet; at the ſame time that he diſpatched ambaſſadors into Crete, in order to ſtir up the Cretans againſt the Rhodians, and prevent them from ſending any aſſiſtance to Attalus. Upon this, war was immediately proclaimed. Philip at firſt gained an inconſiderable advantage in a naval engagement; but the next year was defeated with the loſs of 11,000 men, while the Rhodians loſt but 60 men and Attalus 70. After this he carefully avoided coming to an engagement at ſea either with Attalus or the Rhodians. The combined fleet, in the mean time, ſailed towards the iſland of Ægina in hopes of intercepting him; but having failed in their purpoſe, they ſailed to Athens, where they concluded a treaty with the people; and, on their return, drew all the Cyclades into a confederacy againſt Philip. But while the allies were thus waſting their time in negotiations, Philip, having divided his forces into two bodies, ſent one, under the command of Philocles to ravage the Athenian territories; and put with other aboard his fleet, with orders to ſail to Maronea, a city on the north ſide of Thrace. He then marched towards that city himſelf with his body of forces, took it by aſſault, and reduced great many others; ſo that the confederates were in all probability, have had little reaſon to of their ſucceſs, had not the Romans come their aſſiſtance, by whoſe help the war was terminated to their advantage. In the war between the Romans and Antiochus the Great of Syria, the Rhodians were very uſeful allies the former. The beſt part of their fleet was deed deſtroyed by a treacherous contrivance Polyxeniades the Syrian admiral; but they fitted out another, and defeated a Syrian ſquad commanded by the celebrated Hannibal, the thaginian commander; after which, in conjun with the Romans, they utterly defeated the Syrian fleet commanded by Polyxeniades; which together with the loſs of the battle of Magn ſo diſpirited Antiochus, that he ſubmitted whatever conditions the Romans pleaſed. these ſervices the Rhodians were rewarded the provinces of Lycia and Caria but tyranni over the people in a terrible manner, the Ly applied to the Romans for protection. Thi readily granted, but the Rhodians were ſo m diſpleaſed with their interfering in this ma that they ſecretly favoured Perſeus in the which broke out between him and the Roma public. For this offence the two province bove-mentioned were taken from them, but Rhodians, having baniſhed or put to death th who had favoured Perſeus, were again admi into favour, and greatly honoured by the ſena In the Mithridatic war, their alliance with Ro brought upon them the king of Pontus with his force; but having loſt the greateſt part of fleet before the city, he was obliged to raiſe t ſiege. In the war which Pompey made on Cilician pirates, the Rhodians aſſiſted him wi their naval force, and had a great ſhare in his v tories. In the civil war between Cæſar and Po pey, they aſſiſted the latter with a very numero fleet. After his death they ſided with Cæſa which drew upon them the reſentment of C. Ca ſius, who advanced to Rhodes with a powerf fleet, after having reduced the greateſt part of t continent. The Rhodians ſent ambaſſadors offe ing to make up matters, and promiſing to ſtan neuter, and recal the ſhips which they had ſen to aſſiſt the triumviri. Caſſius inſiſted upon the delivering up their fleet, and putting him in poſ ſeſſion of their harbour and city. This demand the

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the Rhodians refuſed to comply with, and began to put themſelves in a condition to ſtand a ſiege; they firſt ſent Archelaus, who had taught Caſſius the Greek tongue while he ſtudied at Rhodes, to accorde with his diſciple in their behalf. Archelaus could not prevail upon him to moderate his demands; wherefore the Rhodians, having created one Alexander, a bold and enterpriſing man, their prætor, equipped a fleet of 33 ſail, and ſent it out under Miniſcus, an experienced ſea officer, to offer Caſſius battle. Both fleets fought with incredible bravery, and the victory was long doubtful; but the Rhodians, being at length overpowered by numbers, were forced to return with their loſs to Rhodes; two of their ſhips being ſunk, and the reſt very much damaged by the heavy ſhips of the Romans. This was the firſt time, that the Rhodians were fairly overcome in a ſea-fight. Caſſius, who had beheld this fight from a neighbouring hill, having refitted his fleet, which had been no leſs damaged than that of the Rhodians, repaired to Loryma, a ſtronghold on the continent belonging to the Rhodians. This caſtle he took by aſſault; and from hence conveyed his land-forces, under Fannius and Lentulus, over into the iſland. His fleet conſiſted of 80 ſhips of war and above 200 tranſports. The Rhodians no ſooner ſaw this mighty fleet appear, but they went out again to meet the enemy. The 2d engagement was far more bloody than the firſt; many ſhips were ſunk, and great numbers of men killed on both ſides. But victory anew declared for the Romans; who immediately blocked up the city of Rhodes both by ſea and land. As the Rhodians had not had time to furniſh the city with ſufficient ſtore of proviſions, ſome of the inhabitants, fearing that if it were taken either by aſſault or by famine, Caſſius would put all the inhabitants to the ſword, as Brutus had lately done at Xanthus, privately opened the gate to him, and put him in poſſeſſion of the town, which he never-theleſs treated as if it had been taken by aſſault. He commanded 50 of the chief citizens, who were ſuſpected to favour the adverſe party, to be brought before him, and ſentenced them all to die, others, to the number of 25, who had commanded the fleet or army becauſe they did not appear when ſummoned, he proſcribed. Having thus puniſhed ſuch as had either acted or ſpoken againſt him or his party, he commanded the Rhodians to deliver up to him all their ſhips, and whatever money they had in the public treaſury. He then plundered the temples; ſtripping them of all their valuable furniture, veſſels, and ſtatues. He is ſaid not to have left one ſtatue in the whole city, except that of the ſun; bragging, at his departure, that he had ſtripped the Rhodians of all they had, leaving them nothing but the ſun. As to private perſons, he commanded them, under ſevere penalties, to bring to him all the gold and ſilver they had, promiſing, by a public crier, a tenth part to ſuch as ſhould diſcover any hidden treaſures. The Rhodians at firſt concealed ſome part of their wealth, imagining that Caſſius intended by this proclamation only to terrify them; but when they found he was in earneſt, and ſaw ſeveral wealthy citizens put to death for concealing only a ſmall portion of their riches, they deſired that the time prefixed for the bringing in their gold and ſilver might be prolonged. Caſſius granted their requeſt; and then through fear they dug up what they had hid, and laid at his feet all they were worth in the world. Thus he extorted from private perſons above 8000 talents. He then fined the city in 500 more; and leaving L. Varus there with a ſtrong garriſon to exact the fine without any abatement, he returned to the continent.

(11.) RHODES, HISTORY OF, TO ITS REDUCTION TO A ROMAN PROVINCE. After the death of Caſſius, Marc Antony reſtored the Rhodians to their ancient rights and privileges; beſtowing upon them the iſlands of Andros, Naxos, Tenos, and the city of Myndus. But theſe the Rhodians ſo oppreſſed with taxes, that Antony, though a great friend to the Rhodian republic, was obliged to diveſt her of the ſovereignty over thoſe places, which he had a little before ſo liberally beſtowed upon her. From this time to the reign of the Emperor Cladius we find no mention made of the Rhodians. That prince, as Dion informs us, deprived them of their liberty for having crucified ſome Roman citizens. However, he ſoon reſtored them to their former condition, according to Suetonius and Tacitus. The latter adds, that they had been as often deprived of, as reſtored to, their liberty, by way of puniſhment or reward for their different behaviour, as they had obliged the Romans with their aſſiſtance in foreign wars, or provoked them with their ſeditions at home. Pliny, who wrote in the beginning of Veſpaſian's reign, ſtyles Rhodes a *beautiful and free town*. But this liberty they did not long enjoy, the iſland being ſoon after reduced by the ſame Veſpaſian to a Roman province, and obliged to pay a yearly tribute to their new maſters. This province was called the *province of the iſlands*. The Roman prætor who governed it reſided at Rhodes, as the chief city under his juriſdiction; and Rome, notwithſtanding the eminent ſervices rendered her by this republic, thenceforth treated the Rhodians not as allies, but vaſſals.

(12.) RHODES, HISTORY OF, TO ITS REDUCTION UNDER THE KNIGHTS OF RHODES. The iſland of Rhodes continued ſubject to the Romans till the reign of the emperor Andronicus; when Villaret, grand maſter of the knights of Jeruſalem, then reſiding in Cyprus, finding himſelf much expoſed to the attacks of the Saracens in that iſland, reſolved to exchange it for that of Rhodes. This iſland too was almoſt entirely occupied by the Saracens; Andronicus the eaſtern emperor poſſeſſing little more in it than a caſtle. Nevertheleſs he refuſed to grant the inveſtiture of the iſland to Villaret. The latter, without ſpending time in fruitleſs negociations, ſailed directly for Rhodes, where he landed his troops, proviſions, and warlike ſtores, in ſpite of the oppoſition made by the Saracens, who then united againſt the common enemy. As Villaret foreſaw that the capital muſt be taken before he could reduce the iſland, he inſtantly laid ſiege to it. The inhabitants defended themſelves obſtinately, upon which the grand maſter thought proper to turn the ſiege into a blockade; but he ſoon found himſelf ſo cloſely ſur-

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founded by the Greeks and Saracens, that he could get no fupply either of forage or provifions for his army. But having at length received a fupply of provifions by means of large funs borrowed of the Florentines, he came out of his trenches and attacked the Saracens, with a full refolution either to conquer or die. A bloody fight enfued, in which a great number of the braveft knights were killed: but at length the Saracens gave way, and fled to their fhips; upon which the city was immediately aflaulted and taken. The Greeks and other Chriftians had their lives and liberties given them, but the Saracens were all cut to pieces. The reduction of the capital was followed by that of all the other places of inferior ftrength throughout the ifland; and in a years after their landing, the whole was fubjugated, and the conquerors took the title of the *Knights of Rhodes*.

(13.) RHODES, HISTORY OF, TO ITS SIEGE BY SOLYMAN. For many years thofe knights continued the terror of the Saracens and Turks, and fuftained a fevere fiege from Mahomet II. who was compelled to abandon the enterprife; but at length the Turkifh fultan Solyman refolved at all events to drive them from it. Before he undertook the expedition, he fent a meffage commanding them to depart the ifland without delay; in which cafe he promifed that neither they nor the inhabitants fhould fuffer any injury, but threatened them with his utmoft vengeance if they refufed his offer. The knights, however, proving obftinate, Solyman attacked the city with a fleet of 400 fail, and an army of 140,000 men. The trenches were foon brought clofe to the counterfcarp, and a ftrong battery raifed againft the town; which, however, did but little damage, till the fultan being informed by a fpy of this particular, and that he was in danger of receiving fome fatal fhot from the tower of St John which overlooked his camp, he planted a battery againft that tower, and quickly brought it down. Solyman, however, finding the whole place in fome meafure covered with ftrong fortifications of fuch height as to command all his batteries, ordered an immenfe quantity of ftones and earth to be brought; in which fo great a number of hands were employed night and day by turns, that they quickly raifed a couple of hillocks high enough to overtop the city-walls. They plied them accordingly with fuch a continual fire, that the grand mafter was obliged to caufe them to be ftrongly propped within with earth and timber. All this while the befieged, who, from the top of the grand mafter's palace, could difcover how their batteries were planted, demolifhed them with their cannon almoft as faft as they raifed them. Unfortunately for the befieged, the continual fire they had made caufed fuch a confumption of their powder, that they began to feel the want of it; the perfidious d'Amarald, whofe province it had been to vifit the magazines of it, having amufed the council with a falfe report, that there was more than fufficient to maintain the fiege, though it fhould laft a whole twelvemonths. But here the grand mafter found means to fupply in fome meafure that unexpected defect, by the cautious provifion he had made of a large quantity of faltpetre, which was immediately ground and made into gunpowd though he was at the fame time obliged to or the officers to be more fparing of it for the ture, and to make ufe of it only in the defence from breaches as the enemy fhould make. this whole the Turks had not gained an inch ground; and the breaches they had made were fuddenly either repaired or defended by new trenchments, that the very rubbifh of them m be mounted by aflault. Solyman, therefore thou it now advifable to fet his numerous pioneers work, in five different parts, in digging of ma each of which led to the baftion oppofite t Some of thefe were countermined by a new vented method of Martinengo; who, by the h of brazen bafons, or drums, could difcover wh the miners were at work. Some of thefe he ceived, which he caufed to be opened, and miners to be driven out by hand grenadoes; thers to be fmothered, or burned, by fetting to gunpowder. The attacks were alfo daily newed with the fame ill fuccefs and lofs of m every general ftriving to fignalize himfelf in fight of their emperor.

(14.) RHODES, HISTORY OF, TO ITS SURRENDER TO THE TURKS. Solyman, aflamed and alarmed at his ill fuccefs, called a general co cil: in which he made fome ftinging reflections his vizier, for having reprefented the reduction Rhodes as a very eafy enterprife. To avoid effects of the fultan's refentment, the fubtle M tapha propofed a general aflault on feveral p of the town at once. This was immediately proved of by all, and the time appointed for execution of it was on the 24th. Accordingly town was aflaulted at different parts, after vine fuffered a continued fire for fome time fr their artillery, in order to widen the breaches; which the grand mafter eafily underftood their ftratagem, and that the bottoms of England and Spa the poft of Provence, and the terrace of Ita were pitched upon for the aflault, and took precautions accordingly. The morning was fcarce come, than each party mounted their refpective breach with an undaunted bravery. T Rhodians were no lefs diligent in repulfing th with their cannon and other fire-arms, with th melted pitch, boiling oil, fire-pots, &c. The fire feized the feathers of their adverfaries, oppofed them, the other overturn their ladd and fend them tumbling down headlong into ditches, where they were overwhelmed with ftor or difpatched with darts and other miffile w pons. The baftion of England proved the fce of the greateft flaughter and bloodfhed; the gra mafter made that his poft of honour, and, by prefence and example, infpired his men with fr valour and bravery, whilft the continual thun of his artillery made fuch horrid work among t affailants as chilled all their courage, and forc them to give way: the lieutenant-general, w commanded the attack, led them back with fr vigour, mounting the breach at their head, h was killed by a ball from the Spanish bann This filled them with a fecret dread of revenge his death; but all their fury could not make t Rhodians go one ftep back, whilft the pra monks, young men and old, and even women

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every rank and age, aſſiſted them with an uncommon ardour and firmneſs; ſome in overwhelming the enemy with ſtones; others in deſtroying them with melted lead, ſulphur, and other combuſtibles; and a third ſort in ſupplying the combatants with bread, wine, and other refreſhments. The aſſault was no leſs deſperate and bloody on the baſtion of Italy, where the knights, who guarded it, not expecting to be ſo ſoon attacked, and aſhamed to ſtand idle, were aſſiſting the baſtion of Italy; which gave the Turks an opportunity to mount the breach, and penetrate as far as their intrenchments, where they planted no leſs than 30 of their ſtandards on them. The grand maſter was quickly apprized of it, and ordered the baſtion of Auvergne to play againſt them; which was done ſo effectually, that while the Rhodians entered the breach by the help of their caſemates, and, ſword in hand, fell upon them with equal fury, that the Turks, alike beſet by the fire of the artillery and the arms of the Rhodian knights, were forced to abandon the place with a conſiderable loſs. In theſe attacks there fell about 15,000 of Solyman's beſt troops, beſides ſeveral officers of diſtinction. The loſs of the beſieged was no leſs conſiderable, conſidering the ſmall number of their forces; but the greateſt of all to them was that of ſome of their braveſt and moſt diſtinguiſhed knights and commanders, many of whom were killed, and hardly any eſcaped unwounded. But the moſt dreadful fate of all had like to have fallen on the favourite vizier Muſtapha, who had propoſed this general aſſault: the ill ſucceſs of which had ſo enraged the proud ſultan, that he condemned him to be ſhot with arrows at the head of his army; which dreadful ſentence was juſt ready to be executed, when the old baſhaw, by his intreaties, obtained a ſuſpenſion of it, in hopes that, when his fury was abated, he ſhould alſo obtain his pardon. Solyman, however, was ſo diſcouraged by his ill ſucceſs, that he was on the point of raiſing the ſiege, and would have actually done ſo, had he not been diverted from it by the advice of an Albanian deſerter, ſome ſay by a letter from the traitor d'Amarald, that the far greater part of the knights were either killed or wounded, and thoſe that remained altogether incapable of ſuſtaining a freſh aſſault. This having determined him to try his fortune once more, the command of his forces was turned over to the baſhaw Achmed. Soon after this, the treaſon of D'Amarald was diſcovered, and he was executed; but by this time the city was reduced to the laſt extremity. The pope, the emperor, and other crowned heads, had been long and often importuned by the grand maſter for ſpeedy aſſiſtance, without ſucceſs; and, as an addition to all the other diſaſters, thoſe ſuccours which were ſent to him from France and England periſhed at ſea. The new ſupply which he had ſent for of proviſions from Candia had the ſame fate; ſo that the winds, ſeas, and every thing, ſeemed combined to bring on the deſtruction of that city and order. On the other hand, Solyman, grown impatient at the ſmall ground his general had gained, gave him expreſs orders to renew the attack with all imaginable vigour. Achmed inſtantly obeyed, raiſed a battery of 17 large cannon againſt the baſtion of Italy, and quickly after made himſelf maſter of it, obliging the garriſon to retire farther into the city. The grand maſter was forced to demoliſh two of the churches, to prevent the enemy's ſeizing on them; and, with their materials, cauſed ſome new works and entrenchments to be made. The Turks, however, gained ground every day, though they ſtill loſt vaſt numbers of their men: at length on the 30th Nov. both the beſiegers and beſieged, thought the laſt aſſault was to be given. The baſhaw Pyrrus, who commanded it, led his men directly to the entrenchments. The grand maſter, and his few knights, troops, and citizens, ran in crowds, and in a confuſed diſorderly manner, to the entrenchments. This attack would have proved one of the moſt deſperate that had yet been felt, had not a moſt vehement rain intervened, which carried away all the earth which the enemy had reared to ſerve them as a rampart againſt the artillery of the baſtion of Auvergne; ſo that being now quite expoſed to their continual fire, they fell in ſuch great numbers, that the baſhaw could no longer make them ſtand their ground, but all precipitately fled towards their camp. This laſt repulſe threw the proud ſultan into ſuch a fury, that none of his officers dared to come near him; and the ſhame of his having now ſpent near ſix whole months with ſuch a numerous army before the place, and having loſt ſuch myriads of his brave troops with ſo little advantage, had made him quite deſperate, and they all dreaded the conſequences of his reſentment. Pyrrus at length, having given it time to cool, ventured to approach him, and propoſe a new project to him, which, if approved, could hardly fail of ſucceſs; which was, to offer the town a generous capitulation. This propoſal being reliſhed by the ſultan, letters were immediately diſperſed about the city in his name, exhorting them to ſubmit to him, and threatening them with the moſt dreadful effects of his reſentment if they perſiſted in their obſtinacy. Pyrrus likewiſe diſpatched a Genoeſe to approach as near as he could to the baſtion of Auvergne, and to intreat the knights to take pity of ſo many of their Chriſtian brethren, and not expoſe them to the dreadful effects which muſt follow their refuſal of a capitulation, ſo generouſly offered them at their laſt extremity. Other agents were likewiſe employed in other places: to all of whom the grand maſter ordered his men to return this anſwer, That his order never treated with infidels but with ſword in hand. An Albanian was ſent next with a letter from the ſultan to him, who met with the ſame repulſe: after which, he ordered his men to fire upon any that ſhould preſent themſelves upon the ſame pretence. But this did not prevent the Rhodians from liſtening to the terms offered by the Turks, and holding frequent cabals upon that ſubject; in which the general maſſacre of a town taken by aſſault, the dreadful ſlavery of thoſe that eſcaped, the rape of their wives and daughters, the deſtruction of their churches, and other dire conſequences of an obſtinate refuſal, being duly weighed againſt the ſultan's offers, quickly determined them which party to take. The grand maſter, however, proving inexorable to all their intreaties, they applied to their Greek metropolitan, who went and repreſented

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ſented all theſe things to him in the moſt pathetic terms: but he was told, that he and his knights were determined to be buried under the ruins of their city if their ſwords could no longer defend it, and he hoped their example would not permit them to ſhow leſs courage on that occaſion. But the citizens came in a body to him by the very next morning, and told him, that if he paid no greater regard to their preſervation, they would not fail of taking the moſt proper meaſures to preſerve the lives and chaſtity of their wives and children. The grand maſter thereupon called a council of all the knights, and informed them himſelf of the condition of the place. Theſe all agreed, particularly the engineer Martinengo, that it was no longer defenſible, and no other reſource left but to accept the ſultan's offers; adding, that though they were all ready to fight to the laſt drop of their blood, yet it was no leſs their duty to provide for the ſafety of the inhabitants, who ought not to be made a ſacrifice to their glory. It was therefore agreed, to accept of the next offers the ſultan ſhould make. He did not let them wait long: for the fear he was in of a freſh ſuccour from Europe, prevailed upon him to hang out his pacific flag, which was quickly anſwered by another on the Rhodian ſide; upon which the Turks, coming out from their trenches, delivered up the ſultan's letter for the grand maſter, to the grand prior of St Giles, and the engineer Martinengo. The terms offered by Solyman appeared ſo advantageous, that they immediately exchanged hoſtages; and the knights ſent to him had the honour to be introduced to him, and to hear them confirmed by his own mouth. Two ambaſſadors were forthwith ſent to him, to demand a truce of three days; but this was abſolutely refuſed by the impatient monarch, out of a ſuſpicion of the rumoured ſuccour being near. He therefore ordered the hoſtilities to be renewed with freſh fury; in which the Rhodians made a moſt noble defence, conſidering their ſmall number, and that they had now only the barbican or falſe bray of the baſtion of Spain left to defend themſelves, and once more repulſed the enemy: at which the ſultan was ſo enraged, that he reſolved to overpower them by numbers on the next day; which was, after a ſtout defence, ſo effectually done, that they were forced to abandon that outwork, and retire into the city. In the meanwhile the burghers, who had ſhortly before raiſed an uproar againſt the grand maſter, pretending that he was going to deliver them up to an infidel who regarded neither oaths nor treaties, perceiving their own danger, came to deſire him to renew the negociations, and only begged the liberty of ſending one of their deputies along with his, to ſecure their intereſts in the capitulation. He readily conſented to it; and Achmed, the ſultan's miniſter, who knew his maſter's impatience to have the affair concluded, quickly agreed with them upon the following terms: 1. That the churches ſhould not be profaned. 2. That the inhabitants ſhould not be forced to part with their children to be made janiſſaries. 3. That they ſhould enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion. 4. That they ſhould be free from taxes during five years. 5. That thoſe who had a mind to leave the iſland ſhould have free leave to do ſo. 6. That if the grand maſter and his knights had not a ſufficient number of veſſels to tranſport themſelves and their effects into Candia, the ſultan ſhould ſupply that defect. 7. That they ſhould have days allowed them, from the ſigning of the articles to ſend all their effects on board. 8. That they ſhould have the liberty of carrying away their relics, chalices, and other ſacred utenſils belonging to the great church of St John, together with their ornaments and other effects. 9. That they ſhould likewiſe carry with them all the arms with which they were wont to arm the galleys of the order. 10. That the iſlands belonging to it together with the caſtle of St Peter, ſhould be delivered up to the Turks. 11. That, for the more eaſy execution of theſe articles, the Turkiſh army ſhould be removed at ſome miles diſtance from the capital. 12. That the aga of the janiſſaries at the head of 4000 of his men, ſhould be allowed to go and take poſſeſſion of the place. From the time the iſland of Rhodes has been ſubject to the Turks; and, like other countries ſubject to the tyrannical yoke, has loſt its former importance. The capital is ſurrounded with triple walls and double ditches, and is looked upon to be impregnable.

(II.) RHODES, the capital of the above iſland, was built by Hippodamus a famous architect of Miletus. It is 9 miles in circumference. The beauty of its harbours, in Strabo's time, (according to that author,) its ſtreets and walls, and magnificence of its monuments, rendered it ſuperior to all other cities, as to admit of no compariſon. Alexander the Great regarded it as the firſt city in the world, and depoſited his will there. Its ſchools, in the time of the Romans, had great celebrity, that they were attended by the greateſt men of Rome; particularly Cæſar, Pompey, Cicero, Cato, Brutus, Caſſius, &c. The modern town, built on its ruins, does not occupy above one 4th of its ancient extent, and poſſeſſes no remarkable antiquities; all its fine paintings, &c. having been either deſtroyed by Turkiſh ſuperſtition, or carried off. But the walls and towers erected by the knights ſtill exiſt, and bear glorious teſtimony to their heroic reſiſtance. The vaſt hoſpital formerly devoted to Chriſtian charity now ſerves as a granary for the Turks. The ſtreets are narrow, without taſte, regularity or ornament. The only inhabitants are Turks and Jews; the Chriſtians, not being allowed to ſpend a night in it, reſide in the ſuburbs. It has 2 harbours; the ſmalleſt called *Darca* faces the city, but is almoſt choked up with ſand. Lon. 28. 25. E. Lat. 36. 24. N.

(III.) RHODES, a large harbour on the coaſt of the above city, in which ſhips of 30 guns may anchor ſafely, defended from the weſtern winds which prevail here 9 months in the year.

(IV.) RHODES, a town of Africa, in Tunis, on an eminence between the lake of Tunis and the ſea, within view of ſome hills where Hanno was defeated by Regulus.

(V.) RHODES, a ſmall town of England, in Lancaſhire; NW. of Mancheſter.

RHODEZ, or RODEZ, an ancient city of France, capital of the department of the Aveiron, 32 miles NNE. of Alby, and 273 S. of Paris. It is ſeated on

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a hill at the foot of which runs the Aveiron. It has 4 great annual fairs, famous for mules sold to the Spaniards. Manufactures of grey cloths and serges are also carried on in it. It is 30 miles E. by S. of Mende. Lon. 2. 39. E. Lat. 44. 21. N.

RHODIANS, the people of RHODES.

RHODIGINUS, Lucius Cœlius, a learned Venetian, born at Rovigo, in 1450. He was an excellent critic, and was the instructor of the celebrated Julius Cæsar Scaliger. He wrote many works, the chief of which is *Antiquæ Lectiones*; printed at Basil. He died at Padua, in 1525, aged 75.

RHODIOLA, ROSE-WORT, in botany, a genus of the octandria order, belonging to the dioecia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 13th order, *Succulentæ*. The male calyx is quadripartite; the corolla tetrapetalous. The female calyx is quadripartite, and there is no corolla; the nectaria are four; the pistils are four; and there are four polyspermous capsules. There are two species.

RHODIOLA MINOR is a native of the Alps, and has purplish flowers which come out later than those of the *rhodiola rosea*, N° 2.; it is also much smaller size.

RHODIOLA ROSEA grows naturally in the clefts of the rocks and rugged mountains of Wales, Scotland, and Westmoreland. It has a very thick fleshy root, which when cut or bruised sends out a scent like roses. It has thick succulent stalks, clothed with a kind of orpine, about nine inches long, closely furnished with thick succulent leaves indented at the top. The stalk is terminated by a cluster of yellowish herbaceous flowers, which have an agreeable scent, but are of short continuance. Both these are easily propagated by parting their roots, and require a shady situation, and dry unctuous soil. The fragrance of the second species, however, is greatly diminished by cultivation.

RHODITES, in the old mineralogy, a precious stone of a red colour.

RHODIUM, *n. s.* the wood of the ASPALATHUS.

RHODIUM, OIL OF. See ASPALATHUS.

RHODIUS, John, an ancient Danish physician, born at Copenhagen, in 1587. He published *Notes upon Marcellus Largus*, and other works; and died at Padua, in 1659.

RHODODENDRON, DWARF ROSE-BAY, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the decandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 18th order, *Bicornes*. The calyx is quinquepartite; the corolla funnel-shaped; the stamina declining; the capsule quinquelocular. There are 7 species: the most remarkable are,

1. RHODODENDRON CHAMÆCISTUS, or ciliated-leaved dwarf rose-bay, is a low deciduous shrub, native of Mount Baldus, and near Saltzburg in Germany. It grows to the height of about a yard; the branches are numerous, produced irregularly, and covered with a purplish bark. The leaves are narrow spear-shaped, small, and in the under surface of the colour of iron. The flowers are produced at the end of the branches in bunches, are of a wheel-shaped figure, pretty large, of a fine purple colour, and handsome appearance. They appear in June, and are succeeded by oval capsules containing ripe seeds in September.

2. RHODODENDRON CHRYSANTHEMUM, a new species, discovered by professor Pallas, in his tour through Siberia. In Siberia, this species is used with great success in gouty and rheumatic affections; of which the following account is given in the 5th vol. of the Medical Commentaries, p. 434. in a letter from Dr Guthrie of Peterburgh to Dr Duncan of Edinburgh. "This Alpine shrub grows near the tops of the high mountains named *Sajanes*, near the Jenise in Siberia; and delights in the skirts of the snow-covered summits, above the region that produces trees. In arthritic or rheumatic disorders, they take about two drams of the dried shrub, stalk and leaves, with 9 or 10 oz. of boiling water, and putting them into an earthen pot, they lute on the head, and place them in an oven during night. This infusion (for it is not allowed to boil) the sick man drinks next morning for a dose. It occasions heat, with a degree of intoxication, resembling the effects of spirituous liquors, and a singular kind of uneasy sensation in the parts affected, accompanied with a sort of vermiculatio, which is likewise confined to the diseased parts. The patient is not permitted to quench the thirst which this medicine occasions; as fluids, particularly cold water, produce vomiting, which lessens the power of the specific. In a few hours, however, all the disagreeable effects of the dose disappear, commonly with 2 or 3 stools. The patient then finds himself greatly relieved; and has seldom occasion to repeat the medicine above 2 or 3 times to complete a cure. The inhabitants of Siberia call this shrub *chei* or *tea*, from their drinking, in common, a weak infusion of it, as we do tea. This shows that the plant, used in small quantities, must be innocent. Prof. Koelpin at Stetin has given it with success in several cases, particularly in the *arthritica venerea*, with a tophus arthriticus on the carpus, and it produced a complete cure. The dose which these hardy Siberians take, would in all probability, be too strong for our countrymen; however, it is a medicine which we may certainly give with safety, beginning with small doses."

3. RHODODENDRON DAURICUM, *the Daurian dwarf rose-bay*, is a low deciduous shrub, and native of Dauria. Its branches are numerous, and covered with a brownish bark. The flowers are wheel-shaped, large, and of a beautiful rose-colour: they appear in May, and are succeeded by oval capsules full of seeds, which in England do not always ripen.

4. RHODODENDRON FERRUGINEUM, with smooth leaves, hairy on their underside, is a native of the Alps and Apennines. It rises with a shrubby stalk near three feet high, sending out many irregular branches covered with a purplish bark, and closely garnished with smooth spear-shaped entire leaves, whose borders are reflexed backward; the upper side is of a light lucid green, their under side of an iron colour. The flowers are produced at the ends of the branches, are funnel-shaped, cut into five segments, and of a pale rose colour. These plants are propagated by seeds; but, being natives of barren rocky soils and cold situations, they do not thrive in gardens, and for want of their usual

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covering

covering of snow in the winter are often killed by frost in this country.

5. RHODODENDRON HIRSUTUM, with naked hairy leaves, grows naturally on the Alps and several mountains of Italy. It is a low shrub, which seldom rises two feet high, sending out many ligneous branches covered with a light-brown bark, garnished closely with oval spear-shaped leaves, sitting pretty close to the branches. They are entire, having a great number of fine iron-coloured hairs on their edges and underside. The flowers are produced in bunches at the end of the branches in May, having one funnel-shaped petal cut into five obtuse segments, and of a pale-red colour. They make a good show, and are succeeded by oval-capsules, containing ripe seeds in August.

6. RHODODENDRON MAXIMUM, *the American mountain laurel*, is an ever-green shrub, and native of Virginia, where it grows naturally on the highest mountains, and on the edges of cliffs, precipices, &c. where it reaches the size of a moderate tree, though with us it seldom rises higher than six feet. The flowers continue by succession sometimes more than two months, and are succeeded by oval capsules full of seeds.

7. RHODODENDRON PONTICUM, *the Pontic dwarf rose-bay*, is an evergreen shrub, native of the east, and of most shady places near Gibraltar. It grows to the height of 4 or 5 feet. The leaves are spear-shaped, glossy on both sides, acute, and placed on short footstalks on the branches: the flowers, which are produced in clusters, are bell-shaped, and of a fine purple colour. They appear in July, and are succeeded by oval capsules containing seeds, which in England seldom attain to maturity.

RHODOMAN, Laurence, a learned German, born at Saltzwerf, in Upper Saxony, in 1546. He studied at the college of Ilfield 6 years; and became an eminent Greek scholar. He wrote Greek verses, which are much admired. He translated the Greek poem of *Quintus Calaber* into Latin. He also translated *Diodorus Siculus* into Latin. He became professor of history in the university of Wirtemberg; and published several other works. He died in 1606, at Wirtemberg.

(1.) RHODOPE, a high mountain of Thrace, extending across the country, in an E. direction, nearly to the Euxine Sea.

(2.) RHODOPE, in fabulous history, the wife of Hæmus, king of Thrace; who, preferring herself to Juno in beauty, was metamorphosed into the above mountain. *Ovid.* vi. 87, &c.

(3.) RHODOPE, a celebrated Grecian Courtezan, who was fellow servant with Æsop at the court of the king of Samos. She was carried to Egypt by Xanthus, and purchased by Charaxes of Mitylene, the brother of Sappho, who married her. She afterwards sold her favours at such a price, that she collected so much money, that she built one of the Pyramids. Ælian says, that one day, as she was bathing, an eagle carried away one of her sandals, and dropt it near king Psammetichus at Memphis; on which he made inquiry after the owner, and married her: *Herodot.* ii, 134, &c.

RHODOPEIUS, *adj. Thracian*; from *Rhodope*.

RHODUNIA, the top of mount Oeta. *Liv.* 36.

RHODUS, in ancient geography, a celebrated island in the Carpathian Sea, 20 miles S. of Caria, and 120 in circumference. Its chief cities w RHODUS, *Lindus*, *Camirus*, and *Jalysus*. It is called *Rhodes*. See RHODES, N° I. and II.

RHOE, two of the Shetland isles of Scotl thus distinguished:

1. RHOE, LITTLE, lies near Mickle Rhoe, contains about 14 inhabitants, whose sole em ment is fishing.

2. RHOE, MICKLE, lies on the S. of Mai and belongs to the parish of Delting. It is 24 miles in circumference; and, in 1795, co 83 inhabitants in 14 families; who are chiefly ployed in cultivating the fertile spots of the and in fishing. They also rear a great num sheep and black cattle, which have excellent ture among the heath.

RHŒA. See RHEA.

RHŒADEÆ, (*rhœas*, Linnæus's name, Dioscorides, for the red poppy,) the 27th in Linnæus's natural method. See BOTAN

RHOECUS, in fabulous history; 1. one giants, killed by Bacchus in the war agai gods: 1. a centaur, who attempted to offe lence to Atalanta; also killed by Bacchus, marriage of Pirithous. *Ovid. Met.* xii, 302.

RHOETEUM, a promontory of Troas, o Hellespont; near which the body of Ajax wa ried. *Ovid. Met.* xi, 197.

RHOETICO, a mountain of Germany, county of Pludentz: 6 miles S. of Pludentz.

RHOETIUS, a mountain of Corfica; now Rosso.

RHOETUS. See RHOETEUM.

(1.) * RHOMB. *n. f.* [*rhombe*, Fr. *rh* Lat. ῥόμβος.] In geometry, a parallelogr quadrangular figure, having its 4 sides equa consisting of parallel lines, with two oppos gles acute, and two obtuse: it is formed b equal and right cones joined together at the *Trevoux and Harris.*—

Save the sun his labour, and that swift Nocturnal and diurnal *rhomb* suppos'd Invisible else above all stars.

See how in warlike muster they appe In *rhombs* and wedges, and half moons.

(2.) RHOMB, SOLID, consists of two equ right cones joined together at their bases.

* RHOMBICK. *adj.* [from *rhomb.*] S like a rhomb.—Many other sorts of stones a gularly figured; the asteria in form of a star, they are of a *rhombick* figure. *Grew.*

* RHOMBOID. *n. f.* [ῥομβοειδὲς; *rhomboïde* A figure approaching to a rhomb.—They a a rhombick figure; talk, of such as are *rhom Grew.*

* RHOMBOIDAL. *adj.* [from *rhomboid.*] proaching in shape to a rhomb.—Another *rh boidal* selenites of a compressed form, had t others infixed round the middle of it. *Wood*

(1.) RHOMBOIDES, in anatomy, a thin, br and obliquely square fleshy muscle, situated tween the basis of the scapula and the spina d so called from its figure. Its general use is to d backward and upward the subspinal portion of basis scapulæ.

(2.) RHOMBOIDES, in geometry, a quadrilat figure whose opposite sides and angles are eq but is neither equilateral nor equiangular.

RHOMB

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RHOMBUS, in geometry, an oblique-angled parallelogram, or quadrilateral figure whose sides are equal and parallel, but the angles unequal, two of the opposite ones being obtuse and two acute.

RHONE, one of the largest rivers in France, which, rising among the Alps of Switzerland, passes through the lake of Geneva, visits that city, and then runs SW. to Lyons; where, joining the Saone, it continues its course due S. passing by Tournon, Valence, Vienne, Viviers, Avignon, and Arles, and falls into the Mediterranean a little above Marseilles, by several mouths.

RHONE AND LOIRE, a department of France, comprehending the ci-devant provinces of Forez and Lyonnois. It is bounded on the N. by the department of Saone and Loire; E. by those of the Ain, and the Isere; S. by that of Upper Loire; and W. by those of the Puy de Dome, and the Allier. Lyons is the capital.

RHONE, MOUTHS OF THE, [*Bouches de Rhone*] a department of France, bounded on the E. by that first formed, by the ci-devant county of Nice, which is now annexed to it; on the N. by the dep. of the Lower Alps; E. by that of the Var; S. by the Mediterranean; and W. by the department of the Gard. It comprehends the greater part of the ci-devant province of Provence; being 65 miles long from E. to W. and 45 broad from N. to S. AIX is the capital.

RHON-HOUSE. See KELTON-HILL.

RHOPIUM, in botany, a genus of the triandria order belonging to the gynandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking with those that are doubtful. The calyx is monophyllous and obtuse; there is no corolla nor any stamina; the pistils are each attached to one of the styli; the capsule is tricoccous and sexlocular, each containing two seeds. There is only one species, *viz.* RHOPIUM BOREA, a native of Guiana. This shrub rising about 3 or 4 feet in height. The flowers grow in the form of a corymbus; they are of a yellowish green colour; the capsules are black.

RHOPOLA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the tetrandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking with those that are doubtful. There is no calyx; the corolla four, oblong, obtuse, and narrowing at the base; the stamina are four, inserted in the corolla; the antherae large; the seed-vessel urceolate, and contains one seed. There is only one species, viz.

RHOPOLA MONTANA, a shrubby plant growing in Guiana, and remarkable for the great number of branches sent off from its trunk in every direction, and for the fetid smell of its wood and bark.

RHOSUS, an ancient town of Syria, on the gulf of Issus; famous for earthen wares. *Cic.* vi. *Att.* 1.

RHOTENAMER, John, an eminent Italian painter, born in 1564. He studied after Tintoret, and settled at Venice. His works are remarkable for brilliant colouring and high finishing.

RHOXALANI, an ancient nation who resided on the N. bank of the Palus Mœotis; between Europe and Asia, or on the confines of both. *Tacit. Hist.* i. c. 79.

RHOXANA. See ROXANA.

RHOXANI, ancient inhabitants of Russia. See PHILOLOGY, *Sect.* XII. Mithridates the Great made war upon them.

(1.) * RHUBARB, *n. s.* [*rhabarbara*, Lat.] A medicinal root slightly purgative, referred by botanists to the dock.—

What *rhubarb*, senna, or what purgative drug
Would scour these English hence? *Shak.*

—I purged him with an infusion of *rhubarb* in small ale. *Wiseman.*

(2.) RHUBARB. See RHEUM.

(3.) RHUBARB, MONK'S. See RUMEX.

RHUDEN, or RUTHEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine; 11 m. NNW. of Brilon, and 64 E. of Dusseldorp.

(1.) RHUMB, *n. s.* in navigation, a vertical circle of any given place, or intersection of such a circle with the horizon; in which last sense rhumb is the same with a point of the compass.

(2.) RHUMB LINE, the line which a ship describes when sailing in the same collateral point of the compass, or oblique to the meridians.

RHUN, or PULO RHUN, one of the small BANDA islands; chiefly inhabited by fishermen.

RHUS, SUMACH, in botany, a genus of the trigynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 43d order, *Dumosæ*. The calyx is quinquepartite; the petals five; the berry monospermous. There are 24 species, of which the most remarkable are,

1. RHUS CANADENSE, with winged spear-shaped leaves, grows naturally in Canada, Maryland, and several other parts of North America. It hath smooth branches, of a purple colour, covered with a grey pounce. The leaves are composed of 7 or 8 pairs of lobes, terminated by an odd one; the lobes are spear-shaped, sawed on their edges, of a lucid green on their upper surface, but hoary on their under, and are smooth. The flowers are produced at the end of the branches in large panicles, composed of several smaller, each standing upon separate footstalks; they are of a deep red colour, and the whole panicle is covered with a grey pounce, as if it had been scattered over them.

2. RHUS CAROLINIANUM, with sawed winged leaves, grows naturally in Carolina; the seeds of this were brought from thence by the late Mr Catesby, who has given a figure of the plant in his *Natural History of Carolina*. This is by the gardeners called the *scarlet Carolina sumach*; it rises commonly to the height of seven or eight feet, dividing into many irregular branches, which are smooth, of a purple red colour, and pounced over with a greyish powder, as are also the footstalks of the leaves. The leaves are composed of 7 or 8 pairs of lobes, terminated by an odd one; these are not always placed exactly opposite on the midrib, but are sometimes alternate. The upper side of the lobes are of a dark green, and their under hoary, but smooth. The flowers are produced at the end of the branches in very close panicles, which are large, and of a bright red colour.

3. RHUS COPALLINUM, *the narrow leaved sumach*, grows naturally in most parts of N. America, where it is called *beach sumach*, probably

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from the place where it grows. This is of humble growth, ſeldom riſing above 4 or 5 feet high in Britain, dividing into many ſpreading branches, which are ſmooth, of a light brown colour, cloſely garniſhed with winged leaves, compoſed of 4 or 5 pairs of narrow lobes, terminated by an odd one; they are of a light green on both ſides, and in autumn change to purpliſh. The mid rib, which ſuſtains the lobes, has on each ſide a winged or leafy border, which runs from one pair of lobes to another, ending in joints at each pair, by which it is eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the other ſorts. The flowers are produced in looſe panicles at the end of the branches, of a yelloviſh herbaceous colour. The reſin called *Gum Copal* is produced from this ſhrub. See COPAL.

4. RHUS CORIARIA, *the elm leaved ſumach*, grows naturally in Italy, Spain, Turkey, Syria, and Paleſtine. The branches are uſed inſtead of oak bark for tanning of leather; and it is ſaid that the Turkey leather is all tanned with this ſhrub. It has a ligneous ſtalk, which divides at bottom into many irregular branches, riſing 8 or 10 feet; the bark is hairy, of an herbaceous brown colour; the leaves are winged, compoſed of 7 or 8 pairs of lobes, terminated by an odd one, bluntly ſawed on their edges, hairy on their under ſide, of a yelloviſh green colour, and placed alternately on the branches: the flowers grow in looſe panicles on the end of the branches, which are of a whitiſh herbaceous colour, each panicle being compoſed of ſeveral ſpikes of flowers ſitting cloſe to the footſtalks. The leaves and ſeeds are uſed in medicine, and eſteemed very reſtringent and ſtyptic.

5. RHUS GLABRUM, with winged leaves, grows naturally in many parts of North America; it is commonly called by the gardeners *New England ſumach*. The ſtem is ſtronger, and riſes higher than that of the TYPHINUM, (N° 6.) the branches ſpread more horizontally; they are not quite ſo downy, and the down is of a browniſh colour; the leaves are compoſed of many more pair of lobes, which are ſmooth on both ſides; the flowers are diſpoſed in looſe panicles, which are of an herbaceous colour.

6. RHUS TYPHINUM, *Virginian ſumach*, or *vinegar plant*, grows naturally in almoſt every part of N. America. It hath a woody ſtem, with many irregular branches, which are generally crooked and deformed. The young branches are covered with a ſoft velvet-like down, reſembling greatly that of a young ſtag's horn, both in colour and texture, whence it has the appellation of *ſtag's horn*; the leaves are winged, compoſed of 6 or 7 pairs of oblong heart-ſhaped lobes, terminated by an odd one, ending in acute points, hairy on their under ſide, as is alſo the mid rib. The flowers are produced in cloſe tufts at the end of the branches, and are ſucceeded by ſeeds, incloſed in purple woolly ſucculent covers; ſo that the bunches are of a beautiful purple colour in autumn; and the leaves, in autumn, change to a purpliſh colour at firſt, and before they fall to a feuillemort. This plant has been long cultivated in the N. of Germany, and is lately introduced into Ruſſia. It has got the name of the *vinegar plant* from the double reaſon of the young germen of its fruit, when fermented, produci either new, or adding to the ſtrength of old w vinegar, whilſt its ripe berries afford an agree acid, which might ſupply the place when n ſary of the citric acid. The powerful aſtring of this plant in all its parts recommends it m ful in ſeveral of the arts. The ripe berries ed with alum make a good dye for hats. plant in all its parts may be uſed as a ſucce um for oak bark in tanning, eſpecially the glove leather. It will likewiſe anſwer to pr a dye for black, green, and yellow colours with martial vitriol it makes a good ink. milky juice that flows from inciſions made trunk or branches, makes, when dried, the b a varniſh little inferior to the Chineſe. Bee remarkably fond of its flowers; and it a more honey than any of the flowering ſhrub that it may prove a uſeful branch of eco where rearing theſe inſects is an object. T tives of America uſe the dried leaves as to Theſe ſix ſorts are hardy plants, and will in the open air here. The 2d and 4th ſort not quite ſo hardy as the others, ſo muſt ha better ſituation, otherwiſe their branches w injured by ſevere froſt in the winter. They eaſily propagated by ſeeds, which if ſown i tumn the plants will come up the follo ſpring; but if ſown in ſpring, they will not up till the next ſpring; they may be either in pots, or the full ground. If they are ſow pots in autumn, the pots ſhould be placed a common frame in winter, where the ſeeds be protected from hard froſt; and in ſprin the pots are plunged into a very moderate bed, the plants will ſoon riſe, and have th more time to get ſtrength before winter. W the plants come up, they muſt be gradually dened to bear the open air, into which ſhould be removed as ſoon as the weather vourable, placing them where they may hav morning ſun; in the ſummer, they muſt be clean from weeds, and in dry weather wa Toward autumn it will be proper to ſtint growth by keeping them dry, that the ext of their ſhoots may harden; for if they a plete with moiſture, the early froſts in au will pinch them, which will cauſe their ſhoo decay almoſt to the bottom if the plants are ſcreened from them. If the pots are put und common frame in autumn, it will ſecure the p from injury: for while they are young, and ſhoots ſoft, they will be in danger of ſufferin the winter prove very ſevere; but in mild w ther they muſt always enjoy the open air, th fore ſhould never be covered but in froſt. ſpring following, juſt before the plants begi ſhoot, they ſhould be ſhaken out of the pots, carefully ſeparated, ſo as not to tear the roo and tranſplanted into a nurſery, in rows three aſunder, and one foot diſtance in the rows. this nurſery they may ſtand two years to ſtrength, and then may be tranſplanted wh they are to remain.

7. RHUS VERNIX, *the toxicodendron, poiſon t* or *poiſon aſh*. It grows naturally in Virgi Penſylvania, New England, Carolina, and Jap riſing with a ſtrong woody ſtalk to the height

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ge feet and upwards; though in this country it is seldom seen above 12, the plants being extremely tender. The bark is brown, inclining to grey; the branches are garnished with winged leaves composed of 3 or 4 pairs of lobes terminated by an odd one. The lobes vary greatly in their shape, but for the most part they are oval and spear-shaped. The footstalks become of a bright purple towards the latter part of summer, and in autumn all the leaves are of a beautiful purple before they fall off. All the species of sumach abound with an acrid milky juice, which is esteemed poisonous; but this property is most remarkable in the vernix. The most distinct account of it is to be found in Prof. Kalm's *Travels into America*. "An incision (says he) being made into the tree, a whitish yellow juice, which has a nauseous smell, comes out between the bark and the wood. The tree is not known for its good qualities, but greatly so for the effect of its poison; which, though it is noxious to some persons, yet does not in the least affect others. Therefore one person can handle the tree as he pleases, cut it, peel off its bark, rub it or the juice upon his hands, smell at it, spread the juice upon his skin, with no inconvenience to himself; while others dare not meddle with the tree while its juice is fresh; nor can he venture to touch a person which has handled it, nor even to expose himself to the smoke of a fire made with this tree, without soon feeling its bad effects; for then, the hands, and frequently the whole body, swell excessively, and are affected with a very great pain. Sometimes bladders or blisters arise in great plenty, and make the sick person look as if infected by a leprosy. In some people the cuticle peels off in a few days, as when a person has scalded or burnt any part of his body. Nay, the effluvia of some persons will not even allow others to approach the place where the tree grows, but expose themselves to the wind when it carries the effluvia of this tree with it, without swelling. Their eyes are sometimes shut up for one, two, or more days together, by the swelling. I had two brothers, one of whom could without danger handle this tree in what manner he pleased, whereas the other could not come near it without swelling. I was acquainted with a man who, merely by the noxious exhalations of the tree swelled to such a degree, that he was as much like a log of wood, and could only be turned about in sheets. I have tried experiments of every kind with the poison tree on myself. I have rubbed its juice upon my hands, cut and broke its branches, peeled off its bark, and rubbed my hands with it, smelt at it, carried pieces of it in my bare hands, and repeated all this frequently, without feeling the baneful effects so commonly ascribed to it; but I, however, once experienced, that the poison of the sumach was not entirely without effect upon me. On a hot day in summer, as I was in some degree of perspiration, I broke a branch of the tree, and carried it in my hand for about half an hour together, and smelt to it now and then. I felt no effects from it in the evening. But next morning I awoke with a violent itching of my eye-lids and the parts thereabouts; and this was so painful, that I could hardly keep my hands from it. It ceased after I had washed my eyes for a while with very cold water. But my eye lids were very stiff all that day. At night the itching returned; and in the morning when I awoke, I felt it as ill as the morning before, and I used the same remedy. However, it continued almost for a whole week together; and my eyes were very red, and my eye-lids were with difficulty moved during all that time. My pain ceased entirely afterwards. About the same time I had spread the juice of the tree very thick upon my hand. Three days after, it occasioned blisters, which soon went off. However, I found that it could not exert its power upon me when I was not perspiring. I have never heard that the poison of this sumach has been mortal, but the pain ceases after a few days duration. The natives distinguish this tree in the dark by its extreme coldness to the touch. The juice of some kinds of sumach, when exposed to the heat of the sun, becomes so thick and clammy, that it is used for bird-lime, and the inspissated juice of the poison ash is said to be the fine varnish of Japan. A cataplasm made with the fresh juice of the poison ash, applied to the feet, is said by Hughes, in his *Nat. Hist. of Barbadoes*, to kill the vermin called by the West Indians *chigers*. Very good vinegar is made from an infusion of the fruit of an American sumach, which for that reason is called the *vinegar tree*.

RHUTENI, or RUTHENI, a nation of ancient Gaul.

RHYADERGOWY. See RHAIODERGWY.

(1.) * RHYME. *n. s.* [ῥυθμος; *rhythme*, Fr.] 1. A harmonical succession of sounds.—

The youth with songs and *rhimes*. *Denham.*

2. The consonance of verses; the correspondence of the last sound of one verse to the last sound or syllable of another.—

For *rhyme* the rudder is of verses. *Hudibras.*

Such was the news, indeed, but songs and *rhymes*
Prevail as much in these hard iron times. *Dryd.*

Rhime with reason may dispense,
And sound has right to govern sense. *Prior.*

3. Poetry; a poem.—

As he were warmed with inchanted *rhimes*,
That oftentimes he quak'd. *Fairy Queen.*

Who would not sing for Lycidas? he knew
Himself to sing, and build the lofty *rhyme*.
Milton.

Now sportive youth,
Carol incondite *rhythms* with suiting notes,
And quaver inharmonious. *Philips.*

4. A word of sound to answer to another word.—

What wise means to gain it hast thou chose?
Know, fame and fortune both are made of prose.
Is thy ambition sweating for a *rhyme*,
Thou unambitious fool, at this late time?
Young.

(2.) RHYME, RHIME, RYME, or *Rime*, in poetry, is a similitude of sound between the last syllable or syllables of a verse, succeeding either immediately or at the distance of 2 or 3 lines. See POETRY.

(3.) * RHYME or REASON. Number or sense.—

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I was promis'd on a time,
To have *reason* for my *rhyme*;
But from that time unto this season,
I had neither *rhyme* nor *reason*. *Spenser.*

—The guiltineſs of my mind drove the groſſneſs of the foppery into a received belief, in deſpight of the teeth of all *rhime* and *reaſon*, that they were fairies. *Shak.*

* *To* RHYME. *v. n.* 1. To agree in ſound.—

If they *rhim'd* and rattled, all was well. *Dryd.*

2. To make verſes.—Theſe fellows of infinite tongue, that can *rhime* themſelves into ladies favours, they do always reaſon themſelves out again. *Shak.*—

There march'd the bard and blockhead, ſide by ſide,
Who *rhym'd* for hire, and patroniz'd for pride. *Pope.*

(1.) RHYMER, Thomas the, was a native of the pariſh of Earlſtown in Berwickſh. His real name and title were Sir Thomas Learmonth. He lived at the W. end of Earlſtown, where part of his houſe is ſtill ſtanding, called *Rhymer's Tower*. See LEARMONTH. He lived in the 13th century, and was contemporary with one of the earls of March, who lived in the ſame place.

(2.) * RHYMER. } *n. ſ.* [from *rhyme*.] One who
* RHYMSTER. } makes rhymes; a verſifier; a poet in contempt.—

Scall'd *rhimers* will ballad us out o' tune. *Shak.*

—It was made penal to the Engliſh, to permit the Iriſh to graze upon their lands, to entertain any of their minſtrels, *rhimers*, or news-tellers. *Davies.*—

Rhymer come on, and do the worſt you can. *Dryden.*

—*Milton*'s rhime is conſtrained at an age, when the paſſion of love makes every man a *rhimer*, though not a poet. *Dryd.*—I ſpeak of thoſe who are only *rhimſters*. *Dennis.*

RHYNBECK, or RHINEBECK, a poſt town of New York, in Ducheſs county, on the E. bank of Hudſon's River, oppoſite Kingſton: 103 miles N. of New York. It contained 3662 inhabitants, in 1795; of whom 542 were electors, and 421 ſlaves.

RHYND. See RYND.

RHYNDACUS, a large river of Aſia Minor, in Myſia. *Plin.* v. c. 32.

RHYNDS. See RHYNS.

RHYNEY. See RUMNEY.

RHYNIE, a pariſh of Scotland, in Aberdeenſhire, united with that of ESSIE. The whole united pariſh is of a ſquare form; and contains a ſurface of 30 ſquare miles. It is ſeated in the diſtrict of STRATHBOGIE, and is watered by the Bogie, which fertilizes the ſoil through which it runs; but the ſoil varies as we recede from its banks, from a rich loam to a barren mooriſh ground. The ſurface is irregular, but there is only one hill, viz. *Noth*. (See NORTH.) The population, in 1795, was 681; the decreaſe 253, ſince 1755. The number of horſes was 172; of ſheep, 2255; and black cattle 882.

RHYNS, RHYNDS, or RINNS OF GALLOWAY, a peninſula of Scotland, in Wigtonſhire, formed by the approximation of the bays of Loch Ryan and Glenluce. It is the W. diviſion of the county, and is almoſt cut off from the reſt of it by theſe bays. Ptolemy and other ancient geographers call it *Cherſoneſus Novantum*, from the *Novantes*, the ancient inhabitants.

RHYNTHON, a dramatic writer of Syracuſe, who flouriſhed at Tarentum, where he wrote plays. Authors differ with reſpect to his name and abilities.

RHYPÆ, an ancient town of Achaia, on the W. of Helice.

RHYTHM. *n. ſ.* in muſic, the variety in the movement, as to the quickneſs or ſlowneſs, length or ſhortneſs, of the notes. Or it may be defined more generally, the proportion which the parts of the motion have to each other.

(1.) * RHYTHMICAL. *adj.* [ῥυθμικὸς; *rhythmique*, Fr. from *rhyme* or *rhythm*.] Harmonious; having one ſound proportioned to another.

(2.) RHYTHMICAL MUSIC. See MUSIC, § 6.

RHYTHMOPEE. *n. ſ.* See MUSIC, § 6.

RIACA, or RIAZA. See RIAZA.

RIADER, a river of Wales, in Montgomeryſhire; which riſes in Denbighſhire, and runs into the Tanot, near the borders of Montgomery.

RIAILLE, a town of France in the department of the Lower Loire: 12 m. N. of Ancenis.

(1.) RIAL, or RYAL, *n. ſ.* a Spaniſh coin. See MONEY, § 9.

(2.) RIAL, or ROYAL, a piece of gold anciently current among us for 10s.

RIALEJE, a town of Teneriffe, on the N. coaſt.

RIALEXA, a town of Mexico, in Nicaragua, ſeated on a rivulet, 5 miles from the South Sea, where there is a good harbour. The adjacent marſhes render the climate unhealthy. It is 30 miles W. of Leon and of Lake Nicaragua. Lon. 89. 10. W. Lat. 12. 25. N.

RIALP, a town of Spain, in the province of Catalonia: 18 miles WNW. of Urgel.

RIANJO, a town of Spain, in Galicia, at the mouth of the Ulla: 23 m. SSW. of Compoſtella.

RIANS, a town of France, in the dep. of Var, 10 miles NW. of St Maximin, and 14 NE. of Brignoles.

RIAZA, a river of Spain, which riſes in the mountains between Old and New Caſtile, and runs into the Duero, near the Roa.

RIAZAN, a city of Ruſſia, capital of Riazanſkoe, on the Oka; 80 miles SSE. of Moſcow, and 428 SSE. of Peterſburg. Lon. 56. 40. E. Lat. 54. 45. N.

RIAZANSKOE, a province of Ruſſia, bounded on the N. by Uladimirſkoi; E. and S. by Tambouſkoi; and W. by Moſkouſkaia, and Tula. It is 108 miles long from N. to S. and 100 broad from E. to W. Lon. 56. to 59. E. Ferro. Lat. 54. 40. to 55. 20. N.

RIAZK, a town of Ruſſia, in Riazanſkoe, 30 miles SE. of Riazan. Lon. 57. 50. E. Ferro. Lat. 54. 0. N.

(1.) * RIB. *n. ſ.* [*ribbe*, Saxon.] 1. A bone of the body.—Of theſe there are 24 in number, 12 on each ſide the 12 vertebræ of the back; they are ſegments of a circle; they grow flat broad, as they approach the ſternum; but

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er they are to the vertebræ, the rounder and
ker they are; at which end they have a round
, which being covered with a cartilage, is
ived into the ſinus in the bodies of the verte-
: the *ribs*, thus articulated, make an acute
le with the lower vertebræ: the *ribs* have each
ll canal or ſinus, wh ch runs along their un-
ſides, in which lies a nerve, vein, and artery:
extremities, which are faſtened to the ſter-
, are cartilaginous, and the cartilages make
tuſe angle with the bony part of the *ribs*;
angle reſpects the head; the cartilages are
re in women than in men, that they may
r bear the weight of their breaſts: the *ribs*
f two ſorts; the ſeven upper are called true
because their cartilaginous ends are receiv-
to the ſinus of the ſternum: the five lower
alled falſe *ribs*, becauſe they are ſofter and
er, of which only the firſt is joined to the ex-
ity of the ſternum, the cartilaginous extremi-
of the reſt being tied to one another and there-
aving a greater ſpace for the dilatation of the
ach and intrails: the laſt of theſe ſhort *ribs* is
er than all the reſt: it is not tied to them,
ometimes to the muſculeus obliquus deſcen-
. *Quincy.*—

Whoſe horrid images doth unfix my hair,
d make my ſeated heart knock at my *ribs*,
ainſt the uſe of nature! *Shak.*

He open'd my left ſide, and took
om thence a *rib*, with cordial ſpirits warm
d life blood ſtreaming freſh. *Milton.*

Ribs of iron arm'd his ſide. *Dryden.*

ny piece of timber or other matter which
gthens the ſide.—

My wealthy Andrew dock'd in ſand,
tting her high top lower than her *ribs*. *Shak.*

The ſhips with ſhatter'd *ribs* ſcarce creeping
from the ſeas. *Drayton.*

y prominence running in lines; as, the ſtalks
leaf.

) Ribs. See Anatomy, § 143; and Phyſiology, *Introd.* § IV.

RIBADAVIA, a town of Spain, in Galicia, ous for its vineyards, which produce ſome of reſt wines in Spain. It is 15 miles SW. of le, and 23 N. of Tuy. Lon. 7. 45. W. Lat. 3. N.

) Ribadavia, another town of Spain, in ria, with a good harbour, at the mouth of e Ribados, 25 miles from Lucaro, ſeated on a rock. Lon. 6. 47. W. Lat. 43. 30. N.

RIBADENEIRA, Peter, a Spaniſh Jeſuit, born in 1527. He wrote with purity of ſtyle in his native tongue, but his works in general are full of ſuperſtition. His moſt valuable work is, his *Account of the writers among the Jeſuits*. He died at Madrid in 1611, aged 84.

(1.) RIBADEO, a ſea port town of Spain, in Galicia, at the mouth of the Eo; with a good harbour defended by 2 forts: 14 miles NE. of Mondonedo. Lon. 9. 41. E. of Teneriffe. Lat. 43. 33. N.

(2.) Ribadeo, a river of Spain, in Galicia.

RIBAGNAC, a town of France, in the department of the Dordogne: 5 m. S. of Bergerac.

* RIBALD. *n. ſ.* [*ribauld*, Fr. *ribaldo*, Italian.] A looſe, rough, mean, brutal wretch.—

That lewd *ribbald*, with vile luſt advanced. *Spenſer.*

Your *ribauld* nag of Egypt,
The breeze upon her, like a cow in June,
Hoiſts ſails, and flies. *Shak.*

The buſy day,
Wak'd by the lark, has rous'd the *ribald* crows. *Shak.*

Ne'er one ſprig of laurel grac'd theſe *ribbalds*,
From flaſhing Bentley down to pidling Tibbalds. *Pope.*

* RIBALDRY. *n. ſ.* [from *ribald*; *ribaudie*, old Fr.] Mean, lewd, brutal language.—Buckingham ſays, 'tis an ill ſort of wit, which has nothing more to ſupport it than bare-faced *ribaldry*. *Dryden.*—The *ribaldry* of the low characters is different; the reeve, miller, and cook are diſtinguiſhed from each other. *Dryden.*—

True nature in her nobleſt light you ſee,
Ere yet debauch'd by modern gallantry
To trifling jeſt and fulſom *ribaldry*. *Granv.*

—The clergy would ſee their duty and intereſt in qualifying themſelves for lay-converſation, when once they were out of fear of being choaked by *ribaldry* or prophaneneſs. *Swift.*

RIBAN, or Riban, in heraldry, the eighth part of a bend. See Heraldry,

(1.) * RIBAND. *n. ſ.* [*rubande*, *ruban*, French. This word is ſometimes written *ribon*.] A fillet of ſilk; a narrow web of ſilk, which is worn for ornament.—

With *ribbands* pendent, flaring 'bout her head. *Shak.*

A *ribband* did the braided treſſes bind. *Dryd.*

Some love device is wrought on ev'ry ſword,
And ev'ry *riband* bears ſome myſtick word. *Granville.*

(2.) Ribands, or Ribbons, chiefly uſed for head-ornaments, badges of chivalry, &c. To give our readers an idea of the manner in which this curious and valuable branch of manufactures is managed, a view of the ribbon-weaver at his loom is repreſented in *Pl.* CCXCVI where, 1. Is the frame of the loom. 2. The caſtle, containing 48 pulleys. 3. The branches, on which the pulleys turn. 4. The tires, or the riding-cords, which run on the pulleys, and pull up the high-liſſes. 5. The liſt-ſticks, to which the high-liſſes are tied. 6. The high-liſſes, or liſts, are a number of long threads, with platines, or plate-leads, at the bottom; and ringlets, or loops, about their middle, through which the cords or croſs-threads of the ground-harneſs ride. 7. The plate-leads, or platines, are flat pieces of lead, of about ſix inches long, and three or four inches broad at the top, but round at the bottom; ſome uſe black ſlates inſtead of them: their uſe is to pull down thoſe liſſes which the workman had raiſed by the treddle, after his foot is taken off. 8. The branches of cords of the ground harneſs, which go through the loops in the middle of the high-liſſes: on the well-ordering of theſe cords chiefly depends the art of ribbon-weaving, becauſe it is by means of this contrivance that the weaver draws in the thread or ſilk that makes the flower, and rejects or excludes the reſt. 9. The batton: this is the wooden frame that holds the reed or ſhuttle, and beats or cloſes the work: where, obſerve, that th

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the ribbon-weaver does not beat his work; but as soon as the shuttle is passed, and his hand is taken away, the batton is forced, by a spring from the top, to beat the work close. 10. The shuttle, or reed. 11. The spring of the batton, by which it is made to close the work. 12. The long-harness are the front-reeds, by which the figure is raised. 13. The linguas are the long pieces of round or square lead, tied to the end of each thread of the long-harness to keep them tight. 14. The broad piece of wood, about a foot square, leaning somewhat forward, intended to ease the weaver as he stoops to his shuttle; it is fixed in the middle of the breast-beam. Some weavers, instead of this, have a contrivance of a cord or rope that is fastened to the front-frame, and comes across his breast; this is called a *slopfull*. 15. The seat-bench; this leans forward very much. 16. The foot-step to the treddles. 17. The breast-beam, being a cross bar that passes from one of the standards to the other, so as to front the workman's breast: to this breast-bar is fixed a roll, upon which the ribbon passes in its way to be rolled upon the roller, that turns a little below. 18. The clamps, or pieces of wood, in which the broaches that confine the treddles rest. 19. The treddles are long narrow pieces of wood, to the ends of which the cords that move the lisles are fastened. 20. The treddle-cords are only distinguished from the riding-cords by a board full of holes, which divide them, in order to prevent the plate-leads, which are tied to the high-lisles, from pulling them too high when the workman's foot is off the treddle: which stop is made by a knot in the treddle-cord, too big to be forced through that hole in the board. 21. The lames are two pieces of thin narrow boards, only used in plain works, and then to supply the place of the long-harness. 22. The knee-roll, by which the weaver rolls up his ribbon as he sees proper, or by bit and bit as it is finished. 23. The back-rolls, on which the warp is rolled. It is to be observed, that there is always as many rolls as colours in the work to be wove. 24. The clamps, which support the rollers. 25. The returning-sticks, or, as others call them, the *returns*, or the *tumblers*, or *pulleys*, to which the tiers are tied, to clear the course of cords through the high-lisles. 26. The catch-board for the tumblers. 27. The tire-board. 28. The buttons for the knee-rolls and treddle-board, described in number 20. Ribbons of all sorts are prohibited from being imported.

(3.) RIBANDS, (from *rib* and *band*,) in naval architecture, long narrow flexible pieces of timber, nailed upon the outside of the ribs, from the stem to the stern-post, so as to envelope the ship lengthwise, and appear on her side and bottom like the meridians on the surface of the globe. The ribands being judiciously arranged with regard to their height and distance from each other, and forming regular sweeps about the ship's body, will compose a kind of frame, whose interior surface will determine the curve of all the intermediate or filling-timbers which are stationed between the principal ones. As the figure of the ship's bottom approaches to that of a conoid, and the ribands have a limited breadth, it is apparent that they cannot be applied to this convex surface without forming a double curve, which will be part vertical and partly horizontal; so that the ver curve will increase by approaching the stem, still more by drawing near the stern-post. also evident, that by deviating from the line of the ship's length, as they approach t treme breadth at the midship-frame, the will also form an horizontal curve. The lo these, which is termined upon the stem and post, at the height of the rising-line of the and answers to the upper part of the floor-t upon the midship-frame, is called the *floor-r* That which coincides with the wing-tran the height of the lower-deck upon the m frame, is termed the *breadth-riband*; all the which are placed between these two, are c *intermediate ribands*.

RIBAS, a town of Spain, in New Castile; ed on the Xarama: 8 miles from Madrid.

RIBAUVILLER, a town of France, in the of the Upper Rhine: 7 miles N. of Colmar, 8 SSW. of Schlettstat.

RIBBAND. See RIBAND.

* RIBBED. *adj.* [from *rib*.] 1. Furnished ribs.—

Was I by rocks engender'd; *rib'd* with Such tortures to resist, or not to feel? *Sa*

But as the seasons in their circle run, Opes its *ribb'd* surface to the nearer sun.

2. Inclosed as the body by ribs.—

The nat'ral bravery of your isle, which As Neptune's park, *ribbed* and paled in, With rocks unscaleable, and roaring waters. *Shakespe*

3. Marked with protuberant lines.

RIBBLE, a river of England, which rises in W. Riding of Yorksh. runs across Lancash. falls into the Irish Sea a few miles below Pres

* RIBBON. *n. s.* See RIBAND.

RIBECOURT, a town of France, in the d of the North: 5 miles SSW. of Cambray, an SE. of Arras.

(1.) RIBEIRA GRANDE, a town of Afric St Jago, the chief of the Cape de Verd Isla with a good harbour and bishop's see. The neral of these islands resides in this town. It tains a cathedral, 2 convents, and near 500 ho ses. It is seated between 2 high mountains. T houses except the governor's are only one s ry high, and are covered with branches and leav of cocoa nut trees. Lon. 23. 24. W. Lat, 15. N.

(2.) RIBEIRA GRANDE, a town in the island St Miguel; containing about 12,000 people. Se MIGUEL, ST, N° 1.

RIBEMONT, a town of France, in the dep of Aisne, 7 miles SE. of St Quentin, and 15 NW. of Laon.

RIBENSKOI, a town of Russia, on the Tun guska: 72 miles ESE. of Eniseik.

(1.) RIBERA, a Spanish poet, called the *Scarron* of Spain, from the humour and ludicrous scenes, with which his writings abound. His works were published at Madrid, in 1648.

(2.) RIBERA DE MURIA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Estremadura: 6 miles N. of Thomar.

RIBERAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Dordogne;

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Perigord; 16½ miles E. of Perigueux, and 27 N. of Angouleſme. Lon. 18. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 45. 14. N.

RIBERAINY, a town of Abyſſinia; 25 miles S. of Axum.

RIBES, the CURRANT and GOOSEBERRY BUSH: genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 36th order, *Pomaceæ*. The flowers are 5 petals, and ſtamina inſerted into the calyx; the ſtyle is bifid; the berry polyſpermous, inferior. The currant and gooſeberry were long conſidered each as a ſeparate genus; *ribes* the currant, and *groſſularia* the gooſeberry; but they are now joined together, the groſſularia being only a ſpecies of *ribes*; all the currant kinds having inermous or thornleſs branches, and racemoſe cluſters of flowers and fruit; and the gooſeberry ſpinous branches, and flowers and fruit for the moſt part ſingly. There are 3 ſpecies of the currant-tree, two of which, and their varieties, are in culture for their fruit; the other as a plant of variety or obſervation: all of which are inermous.

1. RIBES CYNOSBATI, the *prickly fruited gooſeberry buſh*, hath a ſhrubby ſtem and branches, armed with ſpines, moſtly at the axillas, and prickly fruit in cluſters.

2. RIBES GROSSULARIA, the common *gooſeberry buſh*, riſes with a low ſhrubby ſtem, dividing into a very branchy buſhy head, armed with ſpines; trilobate ſmalliſh leaves, having hairy cilia and footſtalks; and ſmall greeniſh flowers, ſucceeded by hairy berries. It conſiſts of many varieties, of different ſizes and colours.

3. RIBES NIGRA, the *black currant tree*, hath a ſhrubby ſtem, dividing low into many branches, forming a buſhy head 5 or 6 feet high; broad trilobate leaves of a rank odour, and having racemoſe cluſters of oblong greeniſh flowers, ſucceeded by thin cluſters of black berries. The fruit of this ſpecies being of a ſtrong flavour, and ſomewhat phyſical reliſh, is not generally liked; it, however, is accounted very wholeſome: there is made of it a ſyrup of high eſtimation for ſore throats and quinſies; hence the fruit is often called *quinſy berries*. There is a variety called the *Cornish black currant*, having ſmaller ſhoots and leaves, not ſtrong ſcented, and ſmall fruit but of little value; ſo the ſhrub is eſteemed only for variety and ſhrubberies. The mode of bearing of all the varieties of currants is both in old and young wood all along the ſides of the branches on lateral ſhoots, often upon a ſort of ſmall ſprigs and ſpurs, producing the fruit in numerous long pendulous cluſters.

4. RIBES OXYACANTHOIDES, the *oxyacanthabaſed gooſeberry*, hath a ſhrubby ſtem, and branches armed on all ſides with ſpines, and largiſh trilobate hawthorn leaves.

5. RIBES RECLINATA, the *reclinated broad-leaved gooſeberry buſh*, riſes with a low ſhrubby ſtem, and reclinated ſomewhat prickly branches, trilobate broadiſh leaves, and ſmall greeniſh flowers, having the pedunculi furniſhed with triphyllous bracteæ.

6. RIBES RUBRA, common *red currant tree*, &c. hath a ſhrubby ſtem, dividing low into many branches, forming a buſhy head, 5 or 6 feet high or more, without thorns; broad trilobate leaves, and ſmooth pendulous cluſters of plane greeniſh flowers, ſucceeded by ſmall cluſters of berries. It grows naturally in woods and hedges in moſt parts of Europe, and comprifes all ſorts of red and white currants; as, common ſmall red currant—large bunched red currant—Champaigne pale red currant—common ſmall white currant—large white Dutch currant—yellow blotched leaved currant—ſilver ſtriped leaved—gold ſtriped leaved—gooſeberry leaved. All theſe ſorts are varieties of one ſpecies, *ribes rubrum*, or common red currant; it being the parent from which all the others were firſt obtained from the ſeed, and improved by culture. They all flower in the ſpring, and the fruit ripens in June and July; and by having the trees in different ſituations and modes of training, ſuch as plantations of ſtandards in the open quarters for the general ſupply, others trained againſt walls or pales of different aſpect, the fruit may be continued ripe in perfection from about the middle of June until November, provided the later crops are defended with mats or nets from the birds.

7. RIBES UVA CRISPA, the *ſmooth gooſeberry*, hath a ſhrubby ſtem, and branches armed with ſpines; trilobate leaves; pedicles having monophyllous bractea; and ſmooth fruit. All the above 7 ſpecies, both currants and gooſeberry kinds, and their reſpective varieties, are very hardy ſhrubs, that proſper almoſt anywhere, both in open and ſhady ſituations, and in any common ſoil; bearing plentifully in any expoſure, though in open and ſunny ſituations they produce the largeſt and faireſt fruit, ripening to a rich vinous flavour; but it is eligible to plant them in different ſituations and aſpects, to have the fruit as early and late as poſſible. They are commonly planted in the kitchen garden as dwarf ſtandards, in open quarters; ſometimes in rows, 8 or 10 feet by 6 aſunder, and ſometimes in ſingle ranges round the outward edge of the quarters, 8 feet aſunder; often in ſingle croſs rows; in all of which methods they ſhould be trained up to a ſingle ſtem a foot high, then ſuffered to branch out all around into buſhy heads, keeping the middle open, and the branches moderately thin, to admit the ſun and free air. They are likewiſe trained againſt walls or palings, like other wall trees, when they will produce fine large fruit, but it is proper to plant a few both againſt S. N. E. and W. walls, to obtain the fruit ripe both early and late. Both currants and gooſeberries are of an acid and cooling nature, and as ſuch are ſometimes uſed in medicine, eſpecially the juice reduced to a jelly by boiling with ſugar. From the juice of currants alſo a very agreeable wine is made.

RIBNA, a town of Ruſſia, in the province of Kolivan; on a river ſo named; 112 miles SE. of Kraſnoiarſk.

(1.) RIBNIK, a town of Sileſia, in Ratibor; 7 miles NNE. of Loſtau, and 13 E. of Ratibor.

(2—4.) RIBNIK, 2 towns and a river of European Turkey, in Walachia; 1. on the Ribnik, 100 miles S. of Jaſſi, and 112 W. of Iſmael: 2. on the Alant, with a Greek biſhop's ſee; 44 miles S. of Hermanſtadt, and 130 ESE. of Temeſvar. Lon. 41.

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41. 53. E. Ferro. Lat. 45. 19. N. 3. The river runs into the Siret, near Dubravitza, on the borders of Moldavia.

RIBNIOZY, a town of Poland, in Braclaw, 64 miles S. of Braclaw.

RIBNITZ, a town of Lower Saxony, in the duchy of Mecklenburg, on a large lake near the mouth of the Reckinitz; on a bay of the Baltic; with a nunnery for noble ladies: 12 miles NNE. of Roſtock. Lon. 12. 55. E. Lat. 54. 10. N.

RIBNOI, a town of Ruſſia, in Jaroſlaw; 40 miles WNW. of Jaroſlaw. Lon. 57. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 57. 45. N.

* *To* RIBROAST. *v. n.* [*rib* and *roaſt*.] To beat ſoundly. A burleſque word.—

Departs not meanly proud, and boaſting
Of his magnificent *ribroaſting*. *Butler.*

—I have been pinched in fleſh, and well *ribroaſted* under my former maſters. *L'Eſtrange.*

(1.) * RIBWORT. *n. ſ.* [*plantago.*] A plant.

(2.) RIBWORT. See PLANTAGO.

* RIC. *n. ſ.* *Ric* denotes a powerful, rich, or valiant man; as in theſe verſes of Fortunatus:

Hilperice potens, ſi interpres barbarus adſit,
Adjutor fortis hoc quoque nomen habet.

Hil'pric Barbarians a ſtout helper term.

So Alfric is altogether ſtrong; Æthelric, nobly ſtrong or powerful: to the ſame ſenſe as Polycrates, Crato, Plutarchus, Opimius. *Gibſon's Camden.*

RICAUT, or RYCAUT, Sir Paul, an eminent Engliſh traveller, of the time of whoſe birth we find no account; but in 1661, he was appointed ſecretary to the earl of Winchelſea, who was ſent ambaſſador extraordinary to the Ottoman Porte. During his continuance in that ſtation, he wrote, The preſent State of the Ottoman Empire, in 3 books: London, folio, 1670. He afterwards reſided 11 years as conſul at Smyrna, where, by order of Charles II. he compoſed "The preſent ſtate of the Greek and Armenian Churches, *anno Chriſti* 1678." On his return, Lord Clarendon being appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, made him his principal ſecretary for Leinſter and Connaught: king James II. knighted him; and made him one of the privy council in Ireland, and judge of the court of admiralty; all which he held to the Revolution. He was employed by King William as reſident at the Hanſe towns in Lower Saxony, where he continued 10 years; but being worn out with age and infirmities, he obtained leave to return in 1700, and died the ſame year. He continued *Knolles's Hiſtory of the Turks*, and *Platina's Lives of the Popes*; beſides which, there are ſome other productions under his name.

RICCARTON, a village of Scotland, in Weſt Lothian, 3 miles S. of Linlithgow.

(1.) RICCARTOUN, a pariſh of Scotland, in Airſhire, 6 miles long and 2 broad. The ſoil is a deep clay. The lands are all arable and well incloſed, producing good crops of oats and barley, except 250 acres under moſs. The climate is variable, often rainy. The *Irvine* and *Ceſſnock* run through it, and afford trouts, and ſometimes ſalmon. Limeſtone, and coals abound. The population, in 1792, was 1300; increaſe 555, ſince 1755.

(2.) RICCARTOUN, a village in the above pariſh, one mile from Kilmarnock. The name is a corruption of *Richardtoun*, its original name, fr Sir *Richard Wallace*, uncle of Sir William, the lebrated Scots patriot.

RICCATI, Vincent, a learned Italian born at Caſtel Franco, in the Treviſan, in He became profeſſor of mathematics at Bo and publiſhed a learned work *on the Integr culus*; in 3 vols 4to. He died in 1775, ag

(1.) RICCI, Laurence, a learned Italian born at Florence, in 1703, of a diſtinguiſ mily. He was choſen general of the or 1758; but had the misfortune to be the la ſon who ever held that office; as the ord aboliſhed in 1773. Ricci and ſome others immediately ſent to the caſtle of St An Rome; where he died in 1775.

(2.) RICCI, Matthew, another learned Jeſuit, born at Macerata, in 1552. He the E. Indies when young, and was ſent a ſionary to China, where he acquired the language, and was favoured by the emp much, that he was allowed to build a ch Pekin. He died in that city in 1610; a ſome curious Memoirs reſpecting China him.

(3, 4.) RICCI, Sebaſtian, an eminent painter, born at Belluno, in 1659. The court employed him to adorn the palace of brun; after which he came to London, w was much employed, and made money: he returned to Venice, where he died Mark Ricci his nephew was alſo eminent ing hiſtory, architecture and landſcapes. in 1730.

RICCIA, in botany, MARSH LIVER-W genus of the natural order of algæ, belong the cryptogamia claſs of plants. There is lyx, but a veſicular cavity within the ſubſ the leaf. There is no corolla; the anthe cylindrical, and ſeſſile, placed on the which is turbinated; the ſtyle is filiform, ting the anthera; and the ſeed-caſe is ſp crowned with the withered anthera; the hemiſpherical and pedicellated.

RICCIO, Dominic, an eminent Italian born at Verona, in 1494. In the church George at Verona, is a fine painting by it has not been carried to Paris) repreſent gathering of the manna in the wilderneſs. died in 1517.

RICCIOLI, John Baptiſt, an Italian Jeſuit, at Ferrara, in 1598. He became eminent aſtronomer and mathematician. He projec complete ſyſtem of mathematics and philoſ but did not live to finiſh it. He died in 167 ged 73.

RICCOBONI, Lewis, an Italian dramatic ter, and actor, born at Modena, in 1677. wrote ſeveral comedies; beſides a work en *Reflexions hiſtoriques et critiques ſur les theatr L'Europe*; 1738, 8vo. He died in 1753, age

(1.) * RICE. *n. ſ.* [*oryza*, Lat.] One of th culent grains: it hath its grains diſpoſed in panicle, which are almoſt of an oval figure, are covered with a thick huſk, ſomewhat like ley: this grain is cultivated in moſt of the E countries. *Miller.*—*Rice* is the food of two t of mankind; it is kindly to human conſtitut

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…per for the conſumptive, and thoſe ſubject to …mbages. *Arbuthnot.*—If the ſnuff get out of …ſters, it may fail into a diſh of *rice* milk.

…

…) RICE. See ORYZA. "Rice *bras*, (ſays …arſden in his *Hiſt. of Sumatra*,) whilſt in the …, is in India called *paddee*, and aſſumes a diſ… name in each of its other various ſtates. We …ve no diſtinction of this kind in Europe, …e our grain retains through all its ſtages, till …comes flour, its original name of barley, …, or oats. The following, beſide many o… are names applied to rice, in its different …s of growth and preparation: *paddee*, origi… ſome of the ſeed: *ooſſay*, grain of laſt ſeaſon: …, the plants before removed to the ſawoors: …e *bray*, the huſk of the paddee being taken …*charroop*, rice cleaned for boiling: *naſſee*, …d rice: *peerang*, yellow rice: *jambar*, a ſer… of rice, &c. *Paddee*, on Sumatra and the …r iſlands, is diſtinguiſhed into two ſorts; …ng or up-land paddee, and *Sawoor* or low… which are always kept ſeparate, and will …row reciprocally. Of theſe the former bears …higher price, being a whiter, heartier, and …r flavoured grain, and having the advantage …t of keeping. The latter is much more …e from the ſeed, and liable to leſs riſk in the …, but is of a watery ſubſtance, produces …creaſe in boiling, and is ſubject to a ſwifter …. It is, however, in more common uſe …e former. Beſide this general diſtinction, …ddee of each ſort, particularly the Laddang, …s a variety of ſpecies, which, as far as my …mation extends, I ſhall enumerate, and en…r to deſcribe. The common kind of dry …d paddee: colour, light brown: the ſize ra…ge, and very little crooked at the extremi… Paddee *undallong*: dry ground: ſhort round …t grows in whorles or bunches round the … Paddee *ebbaſs*: dry ground: large grain: …n. Paddee *galloo*: dry ground: light co…d: ſcarce. Paddee *femnee*: dry ground: …coloured: ſmall grain: ſcarce. Paddee *ejoo*: …ground: light coloured. Paddee *kooning*: …ground: deep yellow: fine rice: crooked, …nted. Paddee *coocoor ballum*: dry ground: …eſteemed: light coloured: ſmall, and very …h crooked, reſembling a dove's nail, whence …me. Paddee *peſang*: dry ground: outer …light brown: inner red: longer, ſmaller, and …ooked than the *coocoor ballum*. Paddee *San*… the fineſt ſort that is planted in wet ground: …, ſtraight, and light coloured. In general it …be obſerved that the larger grained rice is the …eſteemed, and the ſmaller and whiter the …prized. In the Lampoon country they make …ction of paddee *crawang* and paddee *jerroo*; …wer of which is a month earlier in growth …the latter."

…) RICE is ſtrongly recommended, in a late …ication, as the beſt corrective of *ſprit* flour, …which there is a great quantity in Scotland …y year, and of courſe a great deal of unplea… and unwholeſome bread. The gentleman, …o writes the ſhort paper alluded to, directs ten …ds of flour and one pound of ground rice, …the uſual quantity of yeſt, to be placed, for about two hours, before a fire, and then formed into bread in the common way. This addition of rice, beſides correcting the bad qualities of the damaged flour, adds, he ſays, much to its nutriment; for the flour of rice, though very nutritious, is ſo dry, that it is difficult to make bread of it by itſelf. As rice is a favourite ſubſtitute for bread in years of ſcarcity, it may not be diſagreeable to our readers to know the method of cultivating the plant in thoſe countries where it is the principal food of the inhabitants. We have the following full perſpicuous account of the Chineſe practice by Sir George Staunton. "Much of the low grounds in the middle and ſouthern provinces of the empire are appropriated to the culture of that grain. It conſtitutes, in fact, the principal part of the food of all thoſe inhabitants, who are not ſo indigent as to be forced to ſubſiſt on other and cheaper kinds of grain. A great portion of the ſurface of the country is well adapted for the production of rice, which, from the time the ſeed is committed to the ſoil till the plant approaches to maturity, requires to be immerſed in a ſheet of water. Many and great rivers run through the ſeveral provinces of China, the low grounds bordering on thoſe rivers are annually inundated, by which means is brought upon their ſurface a rich mud or mucilage that fertilizes the ſoil, in the ſame manner as Egypt receives its fecundative quality from the overflowing of the Nile. The periodical rains which fall near the ſources of the Yellow and the Kiang rivers, not very far diſtant from thoſe of the Ganges and the Burumpooter, among the mountains bounding India to the north, and China to the weſt, often ſwell thoſe rivers to a prodigious height, though not a drop of rain ſhould have fallen on the plains through which they afterwards flow. After the mud has lain ſome days upon the plains in China, preparations are made for planting them with rice. For this purpoſe, a ſmall ſpot of ground is incloſed by a bank of clay; the earth is ploughed up; and an upright harrow, with a row of wooden pins in the lower end, is drawn lightly over it by a buffalo. The grain, which had previouſly been ſteeped in dung diluted with animal water, is then ſown very thickly on it. A thin ſheet of water is immediately brought over it, either by channels leading to the ſpot from a ſource above it, or when below it by means of a chain pump, of which the uſe is as familiar as that of a hoe to every Chineſe huſbandman. In a few days the ſhoots appear above the water. In that interval, the remainder of the ground intended for cultivation, if ſtiff, is ploughed, the lumps broken by hoes, and the ſurface levelled by the harrow. As ſoon as the ſhoots have attained the height of ſix or ſeven inches, they are plucked up by the roots, the tops of the blades cut off, and each root is planted ſeparately, ſometimes in ſmall furrows turned with the plough and ſometimes in holes made in rows by a drilling ſtick for that purpoſe. The roots are about half a foot aſunder. Water is brought over them a ſecond time. For the convenience of irrigation, and to regulate its proportion, the rice fields are ſubdivided by narrow ridges of clay, into ſmall incloſures. Through a channel, in each ridge, the water is conveyed at will to every ſubdiviſion of

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the field. As the rice approaches to maturity, the water, by evaporation and abſorption, diſappears entirely; and the ripe, crop, covers dry ground. The firſt crop or harveſt, in the ſouthern provinces particularly, happens towards the end of May or beginning of June. The inſtrument for reaping is a ſmall ſickle, dentated like a ſaw, and crooked. Neither carts nor cattle are uſed to carry the ſheaves off from the ſpot where they were reaped; but they are placed regularly in frames, two of which ſuſpended at the extremities of a bamboo pole, are carried acroſs the ſhoulders of a man, to the place intended for diſengaging the grain from the ſtems which had ſupported it. This operation is performed, not only by a flail, as is cuſtomary in Europe, or by cattle treading the corn in the manner of other Orientaliſts, but ſometimes alſo by ſtriking it againſt a plank ſet upon its edge, or beating it againſt the ſide of a large tub ſcolloped for that purpoſe; the back and ſides being much higher than the front to prevent the grain from being diſperſed. After being winnowed, it is carried to the granary. To remove the ſkin or huſk of rice, a large ſtrong earthen veſſel, or hollow ſtone, in form ſomewhat like that which is uſed elſewhere for filtering water, is fixed firmly in the ground; and the grain, placed in it, is ſtruck with a conical ſtone fixed to the extremity of a lever, and cleared, ſometimes indeed imperfectly, from the huſk. The ſtone is worked frequently by a perſon treading upon the end of the lever. The ſame object is attained alſo by paſſing the grain between two flat ſtones of a circular form, the upper of which turns round upon the other, but at ſuch a diſtance from it as not to break the intermediate grain. The operation is performed on a large ſcale in mills turned by water; the axis of the wheel carrying ſeveral arms, which, by ſtriking upon the ends of levers, raiſe them in the ſame manner as is done by treading on them. Sometimes twenty of theſe levers are worked at once. The ſtraw from which the grain has been diſengaged is cut chiefly into chaff, to ſerve as provender for the very few cattle employed in Chineſe huſbandry. The labour of the firſt crop being finiſhed, the ground is immediately prepared for the reception of freſh ſeeds. The firſt operation undertaken is that of pulling up the ſtubble, collecting it into ſmall heaps, which are burnt, and the aſhes ſcattered upon the field. The former proceſſes are afterwards renewed. The ſecond crop is generally ripe late in October or early in November. The grain is treated as before; but the ſtubble is no longer burnt. It is turned under with the plough, and left to putrefy in the earth. This, with the ſlime brought upon the ground by inundation, are the only manures uſually employed in the culture of rice."

(4.) Rice-Bird. See Oryzivera.

(5.) Rice Bunting. See Emberiza.

(6.) Rice Lake, a lake of Canada; 6 miles N. of Lake Ontario.

RICE-HAUTE-RIVE, a town of France, in the department of the Aube: 7 miles S. of Bar ſur Seine.

RICEY, two towns of France, in the dep. of the Aube; thus diſtinguiſhed:

1. Ricey le Bas, or Lower Ricey, 6 m. S. of Bar ſur Seine.

2. Ricey le Haut, or Upper Ricey, 1 S. of Bar ſur Seine.

* Rich. *adj.* [*riche*, Fr. *ricco*, Italian; *ri*
1. Wealthy; abounding in wealth; abound money or poſſeſſions; opulent; oppoſed to

I am as *rich* in having ſuch a jewel,
As twenty ſeas, if all their ſand were pearl.
—The *rich* ſhall not give more. *Exod.*—
A thief bent to unhoard the caſh
Of ſome *rich* burgher.
Rich was his ſoul, though his attire was
As heav'n had cloth'd his own embaſſador.
—Several nations of the Americans are *rich* in *Locke.*—He may look upon the *rich* as benefa *Seed.* 2. Valuable; eſtimable; precious; ſple ſumptuous.—

Earth, in her *rich* attire,
Conſummate lovely ſmil'd.
—Nothing pleaſes her in dreſs, but that w very *rich* and beautiful to the eye. *Law.* ving any ingredients or qualities in a great or degree.—

So we th' Arabian coaſt do know
At diſtance, when the ſpices blow,
By the *rich* odour taught to ſteer.
Each minute ſhall be *rich* in ſome great

—Sauces and *rich* ſpices are fetched from *Baker.* 4. Fertile; fruitful.—

There are, who fondly ſtudious of incr
Rich foreign mold on their ill-natur'd land,
Induce.

5. Abundant; plentiful.—

The gorgeous Eaſt with *richeſt* hand
Pours on her ſons barbarick pearl.

6. Abounding; plentifully ſtocked: as, *rich* in flocks. 7. Having ſomething precio

Groves whoſe *rich* trees wept odorous
and balm.

RICHARD I. II. and III. kings of Engla England, § 24, 30, and 36.

RICHARDIA, in botany, a genus of the gynia order, belonging to the hexandria plants; and in the natural method ranking the 47th order, *Stellatæ*. The calyx is ſexpa the corolla monopetalous, and ſubcylindrical there are three ſeeds.

RICHARDS, Nathaniel, a dramatic writ the reign of Charles I. was a fellow of Caius lege Cambridge, where he took his degree of in 1634. He wrote a tragedy entitled *Meſſ* publiſhed in 1640, which was acted with appl He alſo wrote ſome poems, publiſhed in 164

(1.) RICHARDSON, John, a learned di born in Cheſhire, about the end of the 16th tury. He was appointed biſhop of Ardagh i land; and wrote learned obſervations on the Teſtament. He died in 1658.

(2, 3.) Richardson, Jonathan, a celebr painter of heads, was born about 1665, a gainſt his inclination was placed by his father law apprentice to a ſcrivener, with whom he ed ſix years; when obtaining his freedom by death of his maſter, he at 20 years old bec the diſciple of Reily; with whom he lived 4 ye

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niece he married, and of whose manner he
ured enough to maintain a solid and lasting re-
ation, even during the lives of Kneller and
; and to remain at the head of the profes-
n when they died. He died suddenly at his
e in Queen's square on May 28, 1745, in the
th year of his age. His son was also a man of
ning and genius, as appears from the works
by published conjunctly. The father in 1719
blished two discourses: 1. An Essay on the whole
t of Criticism as it relates to Painting; 2. An
ument in behalf of the Science of a Connois-
r: bound in one volume 8vo. In 1722 came
th An Account of some of the statues, bas-re-
s, drawings, and pictures, in Italy, &c. with
narks by Mr Richardson, senior and junior.
e son made the journey; and from his notes,
ters, and observations, they both at his return
mpiled this valuable work. In 1734, they pub-
ed a very thick 8vo, containing explanatory
es and remarks on Milton's Paradise Lost, with
life of the author, and a discourse on the
em. Besides his pictures and commentaries,
have a few etchings by his hand, particu-
ly two or three of Milton, and his own head.
e sale of his collection of drawings, in Feb.
57, lasted 18 days, and produced about 2060 l.
pictures about 700 l.

(1.) RICHARDSON, Samuel, a celebrated Eng-
sentimental novel-writer, born in 1688, was
a printer, which profession he exercised with
ence. Though he is said to have understood
anguage but his own, yet he acquired great
utation by his three epistolary novels, entitled
la, Clarissa, and *Sir Charles Grandison*; which
ow an uncommon knowledge of human nature.
purpose being to promote virtue, his pictures
moral excellence are perhaps too highly co-
ed; and he has described his favourite cha-
ers such rather as we might wish them to be,
as they are in reality. Yet a sensible reader
improve more by studying such models of
ection, than those nearer to the natural stand-
of human frailty. A stroke of the palsy carried
Mr Richardson, after a few days illness, upon
4th of July 1761. He was a man of fine parts,
a lover of virtue; which he showed in his
and conversation, as well as in his writings. Be-
es the works above-mentioned, he is the au-
or of an Æsop's Fables, a Tour through Bri-
n, 4 vols, and a volume of Familiar Letters
on business and other subjects. The most e-
inent writers both of our own country, and of
reign parts, have paid their tribute to the transe-
dant talents of Mr Richardson, whose works
ve been published in almost every language and
untry of Europe. They have been greatly ad-
ired notwithstanding every disadvantage of man-
, and every disadvantage of translation.
. Diderot, a late celebrated French author,
aking of the means employed to move the
ections, in his Essay on Dramatic Poetry, men-
ns Richardson as a perfect master of that art:
How striking, (says he,) how pathetic are his
scriptions! His personages, though silent, are
ve before me; and of those who speak, the ac-
ons are still more affecting than the words."
The famous Rousseau, speaking, in his letter to M. d'Alembert, of the novels of Richardson, asserts, "that nothing was ever written equal to, or even approaching them, in any language." Mr Aaron Hill calls his Pamela a "delightful nursery of virtue." Dr Warton speaks thus of Clementina: "Of all representations of madness, that of Clementina, in the History of Sir Charles Grandison, is the most deeply interesting. I know not whether even the madness of Lear is wrought up, and expressed, by so many little strokes of nature and passion. It is absolute pedantry to prefer and compare the madness of Orestes in Euripides to this of Clementina." Dr Johnson, in his Introduction to the 97th number of the Rambler, which was written by Mr Richardson, observes, that the reader was indebted for that day's entertainment to an author, "from whom the age has received greater favours, who has enlarged the knowledge of human nature, and taught the passions to move at the command of virtue." In his life of Rowe, he adds, "It was in the power of Richardson alone to teach us at once esteem and detestation; to make virtuous resentment overpower all the benevolence which wit, and elegance and courage, naturally excite; and to lose at last the hero in the villain." Dr Young observed, that Mr Richardson, with the mere advantages of nature, improved by a very moderate progress in education, struck out at once, and of his own accord, into a new province of writing, in which he succeeded to admiration. And what is more remarkable, he not only began, but finished, the plan on which he set out, leaving no room for any one after him to render it more complete; and that not one of the various writers that have ever since attempted to imitate him, have in any respect equalled, or at all approached near him. This kind of romance is peculiarly his own; and "I consider him (continues the Doctor) as a truly great natural genius; as great and supereminent in his way, as Shakespeare and Milton were in theirs."

RICHARDSON's BAY, a bay of Jamaica, on the SE. coast of the island.

RICHARDSTOWN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Kildare, and province of Leinster.

* RICHED. *adj.* [from *rich.*] Enriched. Obsolete.—

With shadowy forests, and with champions *rich'd.* *Shak.*

RICHELET, Cæsar Peter a French writer, born in 1631, at Chemin in Champagne. He was the friend of Patru and Ablancourt. He compiled a dictionary of the French language, full of new and useful remarks; but exceptionable as containing many satirical reflections and obscenities. The best edition is that of Lyons, 3 vols folio, 1728. He also collected a small dictionary of rhymes, and composed some other pieces in the grammatical and critical way. He died in 1698.

(1.) RICHELIEU, John Armand du Plessis de, cardinal of Richelieu and Fronsac, bishop of Lucon, &c. was born at Paris in 1585. He was of excellent parts; and at the age of 22 obtained a dispensation to enjoy the bishopric of Lucon in

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1607. Returning into France, he applied himself to preaching; and his reputation this way procured him the office of almoner to the queen Mary de Medicis. His abilities in the management of affairs advanced him to be secretary of state in 1616; and the king soon gave him the preference to all his other secretaries. The death of the marquis of Ancre having produced a revolution in state affairs, Richelieu retired to Avignon; where he employed himself in composing books of controversy and piety. The king having recalled him to court, he was made a cardinal in 1622: and, two years after, first minister of state, and grand master of the navigation. In 1626, the isle of Rhé was preserved by his care, and Rochelle taken, having stopped up the haven by that famous dyke which he ordered to be made there. He accompanied the king to the siege of Cazal, and contributed to the raising of it in 1629. He also obliged the Huguenots to the peace at Alets, which proved the ruin of that party; he took Pamerol, and succoured Cazal, besieged by Spinola. In the mean time the nobles found fault with his conduct, and persuaded the king to discard him. The cardinal, for his part, was unmoved with it; and by his reasonings overthrew what was thought to be determined against him; so that, instead of being disgraced, he from that moment became more powerful than ever. This able minister had from thenceforward an ascendancy over the king's mind; and he now resolved to humble the excessive pride of the house of Austria. For that purpose he concluded a treaty with Gustavus Adolphus king of Sweden, for carrying the war into the heart of Germany. He also entered into a league with the duke of Bavaria; secured Lorrain; raised a part of the princes of the empire against the emperor; treated with the Dutch to continue the war against Spain; favoured the Catalans and Portuguese till they shook off the Spanish yoke; and, in short, took so many different measures, that he accomplished his design; and after having carried on the war with success, was thinking of concluding it by a peace, when he died at Paris on the 4th Dec. 1642, aged 58. He was interred in the Sorbonne, where a magnificent mausoleum was erected to his memory. This great politician made the arts and sciences flourish; formed the botanical garden at Paris, called the *king's garden;* founded the French academy; established the royal printing-house; erected the palace afterwards called *Le Palais Royal*, which he presented to the king; and rebuilt the Sorbonne with a magnificence that appears truly royal. Besides his books of controversy and piety, there go under the name of this minister, A Journal, in 2 vols 12mo; and a Political Testament, 12mo; all treating of polities and state affairs. Cardinal Mazarine pursued Richelieu's plan, and completed many of the schemes which he had begun, but left unfinished.

(2.) RICHELIEU, a handsome town of France, in the dep. of the Indre and Loire, and ci-devant province of Touraine, with a fine palace and extensive park, gardens, &c. The town was built by the cardinal in 1637. The streets are straight, and there is a handsome square in the middle of the town. It is seated on the rivers Amable and Vide; 9 miles E. of Loudun, 10½ S. of Chinon, 27 N. of Poitiers, and 152 SW. of Paris. Lon. 20. E. Lat. 47. 2. N.

(3.) RICHELIEU ISLANDS, a cluster of about 100 small islands, in the river St Lawrence, 30 miles above Trois Rivieres.

RICHENBURG, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Chrudim, 10 miles SE. of Chrudim.

RICHENVEIR, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Rhine, 6 miles WNW. of Colmar, and 8 SSW. of Schlettstatt.

(1.) * RICHES. *n. f.* [*richesses*, Fr.] 1. Wealth; money or possessions.—The instrumental cause of *riches* to charity has rendered it necessary by law to secure propriety. *Hammond.*—Chemists call *riches* by transmutation and the great elixir. *Sharp.*—*Riches* do not consist in having more gold and silver, but in having more in proportion than our neighbours. *Locke.*—

What *riches* give us, let us first enquire?
Meat, fire, and cloaths; what more? meat, cloaths, and fire.

2. Splendid sumptuous appearance.

The *riches* of heav'n's pavement, trodden gold.

(2.) RICHES is a word always used in the general number, expressing the collective idea of wealth, opulence, when applied to individuals; and the general prosperity arising from industry and commerce, when applied to nations. See *Dr Smith's Wealth of Nations.*

RICHFIELD, a township of New York, in Otsego county.

RICHFORD, a township of Vermont, in Franklin county, on the Missiscoui.

RICH-HILL, a town of Ireland, in the county of Armagh, and province of Ulster.

(1.) RICHLAND, a county of S. Carolina, in Camden district; 40 miles long, and 35 broad. It is bounded on the N. by Fairfield; E. by the Wateree, which separates it from Kershaw and Clermont counties; S. and SW. by Congaree and Broad Rivers. In 1795, it contained, 2,4[illegible] citizens, and 1,437 slaves. Columbia is the capital.

(2.) RICHLAND, a township of Pennsylvania, in Bucks county.

RICHLIEU. See RICHELIEU.

* RICHLY. *adv.* [from *rich.*] 1. With riches; wealthy; splendidly; magnificently.—

In Belmont is a lady *richly* left.
Women *richly* gay in gems.

2. Plenteously; abundantly.—In animals, some smells are found more *richly* than in plants. *Brown.*—After a man has studied the laws of England the reading the reports of adjudged cases will *richly* improve him. *Watts.* 3. Truly; abundantly. An ironical use.—There is such licentiousness among the basest of the people, that one would not be sorry to see them bestowing upon one another a chastisement, which they so *richly* deserve. *Addison.*

RICHMAN'S ISLAND, an island of the United States, on the coast of Maine, in Cumberland county; 3 miles W. of Portland.

(1.) RICHMOND, a town of England, in the N. Riding of Yorksh. pleasantly seated on the banks of the Swale, over which there is a stone bridge

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is a borough and ſends 2 members to the imperial parliament. It has a market on Saturday, churches, and many handſome houſes of ſtone. It had anciently a caſtle, built by Alan, E. of Richmond, one of the followers of William the Conqueror. It gives name to a diſtrict in Lancaſhire. It is 40 miles NW. of York, 60 SE. of Chester, and 230 NNW. of London. Lon. 1. 30. W. Lat. 54. 28. N.

(2.) RICHMOND, a rich, populous, and elegant town of England, in Surry, ſeated on the bank of the Thames. It was anciently called SHEEN, which in the Saxon ſignifies *reſplendent*. It had a royal palace, in which Richard II. and Edward I. and III. reſided, and the latter died in it. In 1498, it was burnt, but Henry VII. rebuilt it in part, and gave it its preſent name, from his title of *Earl of Richmond* in Yorkſhire, before he was king. He and his grand-daughter Q. Elizabeth died in it. Richmond is famous for its beautiful royal gardens, which in ſummer are open to the public every Sunday; as well as for its elegant and delightful *park*. It has alſo a fine obſervatory. An elegant ſtone bridge of 5 arches was here erected over the Thames in 1777. The town is ſurrounded by a brick wall, built by Charles I. It is 9 miles WSW. of London. Lon. 0. 14. W. Lat. 51. 18. N.

(3.) RICHMOND, a county of Georgia, in the Waſhington diſtrict, ſeparated from S. Carolina, on the W. by the Savannah. In 1795, it contained 7,201 whites, and 4,116 ſlaves.

(4.) RICHMOND, a county of New York; comprehending STATEN ISLAND, SHOOTER'S ISLAND and *Meadow Iſlands*. It contained in 1795, 3835 inhabitants, of whom 488 were electors, and 759 ſlaves.

(5.) RICHMOND, a county of North Carolina, in Cheraw diſtrict; bounded on the N. by Moore county, NE. by Cumberland, SE. by Robeſon, S. by S. Carolina, and W. by Anſon. In 1795, it contained 4,472 citizens; and 582 ſlaves. ROCKINGHAM is the capital.

(6.) RICHMOND, a county of Virginia, bounded on the N. and NE. by that of Weſtmoreland; E. by Northumberland; SE. by Lancaſter counties; and SW. by the Rappahannock, which ſeparates it from Eſſex county. It is 33 miles long, 22 broad; and in 1795, contained 3001 citizens, and 3,984 ſlaves. A county court is held monthly on Monday.

(7.) RICHMOND, a city of Virginia, in Henrico county, on the N. bank of James River, at the head of the falls; containing about 500 houſes and 3000 inhabitants, in 1795. It is the capital of the ſtate. The houſes are partly built on the bank of the river, and partly on a hill which has a very delightful proſpect. The lower part of the city is ſeparated by a rivulet over which is a bridge. It has an elegant bridge, near 400 yards long, over James, at the foot of the cataract. Part of it, from Manchester to the iſland, is built on 15 boats; and from the iſland to the rocks is a bridge built on framed log piers, filled with ſtones. This bridge connects Richmond with MANCHESTER. The public buildings are, the ſtate-houſe, a court-houſe, a theatre, and an epiſcopal church. The falls above the bridge are 7 miles long; a canal is cut on the N. ſide of the river which terminates in the city in a baſon of two acres, a mile from the wharves in the river. Veſſels of burden lie at *City Point* 20 miles below. It lies 176 miles from Baltimore, and 278 from Philadelphia. Lon. 77. 50. W. Lat. 37. 40. N.

(8.) RICHMOND, a townſhip of Maſſachuſetts, in Berkſhire county, on the W. line; containing an iron-work, 3 corn mills, a fulling mill, a ſaw mill, and 1255 citizens, but not one ſlave. It is 17 miles W. by S. of Lenox.

(9.) RICHMOND, a townſhip of New Hampſhire, in Cheſhire county, on the Maſſachuſetts line, 12 miles E. of the Connecticut. In 1795, it contained 1380 citizens.

(10.) RICHMOND, a townſhip of Rhode Iſland, in Waſhington county, 19 miles W. of Newport; containing 1760 citizens, in 1795.

(11.) RICHMOND, a town in the iſland of St Vincent on the W. coaſt, at the bottom of Chateaubelair Bay, and mouth of the river ſo named; 13 miles N. of Kingſton.

(12.) RICHMOND, a town of New York, in Staten Iſland, or Richmond county: 10 miles SW. of New York.

(13.) RICHMOND BAY, a bay in the Gulf of St Laurence; on the N. coaſt of the iſle of St John. Lon. 63. 35. W. Lat. 46. 30. N.

RICHMONDSHIRE, a diſtrict in the N. Riding of Yorkſhire, formerly a county of itſelf. It abounds in beautiful and romantic ſituations. The inhabitants are famous for induſtry; particularly in the manufacture of knit ſtockings, &c. The adjacent lead mines are wrought near and in it.

* RICHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *rich*.] 1. Opulence; wealth.—

Virtue is grateful with beauty and *richneſs* adorn'd. *Sidney.*

2. Finery; ſplendour. 3. Fertility; fecundity; fruitfulneſs.—This town is famous for the *richneſs* of the ſoil. *Addiſon.* 4. Abundance of perfection of any quality.—I amuſed myſelf with the *richneſs* and variety of colours in the weſtern parts of heaven. *Spectator.* 5. Pampering qualities.—

The lively tincture of whoſe guſhing blood
Shou'd clearly prove the *richneſs* of his food.
Dryden.

RICHOLD, a town of Germany in Weſtphalia, near the Meuſe; two miles NW. of Dalem.

RICHTENBERG, a town of Germany, in Anterior Pomerania; 28 miles ENE. of Roſtock.

RICHTENSWICK, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Zurich, on the W. bank of the lake of Zurich; 11 miles S. of Zurich.

RICINUS, or PALMA CHRISTI, in botany, a genus of the monodelphia order, belonging to the monoecia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 38th order, *Tricoccæ*. The male calyx is quinquepartite; there is no corolla; the ſtamina numerous. The female calyx is tripartite; there is no corolla, but three bifid ſtyles, with a trilocular capſule, and a ſingle ſeed. There are three ſpecies. The moſt remarkable are theſe;

1. RICINUS AMERICANUS grows as tall as a little tree, and is ſo beautiful that Millar ſays it deſerves a place in every curious garden, and he planted it himſelf at Cheſſea. See *Pl.* CCXCVI. It expands

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expands into many branches; the leaves are sometimes two feet in diameter, and the stem as large as a middle-sized broom staff; towards the top of the branch it has a cluster of flowers, something resembling a bunch of grapes; the flowers are small and staminous, but on the body of the plant grow bunches of rough triangular husks, each containing three speckled seeds, generally somewhat less than horse beans; the shell is brittle, and contains white kernels of a sweet, oily, and nauseous taste. From this kernel the oil is extracted, and if the medicine should become officinal, the seeds may be imported at a reasonable rate, as the plant grows wild and in great plenty in all the British and French American islands. See OLEUM *Palmæ Christi*. Of the ricinus there are many varieties; all of them fine majestic plants, annual, or at most biennial, in this country; but in their native soil they are said to be perennial both in root and stem. They are propagated by seeds sown on a hot-bed, and require the same treatment as other tender exotics.

2. RICINUS COMMUNIS, or common palma Christi. This tree is of speedy growth, as in one year it arrives at its full height, which seldom exceeds 20 feet. The trunk is subligneous; the pith is large; the leaves broad and palmated; the flower spike is simple, and thickly set with yellow blossoms in the shape of a cone; the capsules are triangular and prickly, containing three smooth gray mottled seeds. When the bunches begin to turn black, they are gathered, dried in the sun, and the seeds picked out. They are afterwards put up for use as wanted, or for exportation. Castor oil is obtained either by expression or by decoction. The first method is practised in England; the latter in Jamaica. It is common first to parch the nuts or seed in an iron pot over the fire; but this gives the oil an empyreumatic taste, smell, and colour; and it is best prepared in this manner: A large iron pot or boiler is first prepared, and half filled with water. The nuts are then beaten in parcels in deep wooden mortars, and after a quantity is beaten it is thrown into the iron vessel. The fire is then lighted, and the liquor is gently boiled for two hours, and kept constantly stirred. About this time the oil begins to separate, and swims on the top, mixed with a white froth, and is skimmed off till no more rises. The skimmings are heated in a small iron pot, and strained through a cloth. When cold, it is put up in jars or bottles for use. Castor oil, thus made, is clear and well flavoured, and if put into proper bottles will keep sweet for years. The expressed castor oil soon turns rancid, because the mucilaginous and acrid parts of the nut are squeezed out with the oil. On this account the preference is given to well prepared oil by decoction. An English gallon of the seeds yield about two pounds of oil, which is a great proportion. See PHARMACY, *Index*. Before the disturbances in America, the planters imported train oil for lamps and other purposes about sugar works. It is now found that the castor oil can be procured as cheap as the fish oil of America: it burns clearer, and has not any offensive smell. This oil, too, is fit for all the purposes of the painter, or for the apothecary in ointments and plasters. As a medicine, it purges without stimulus, and is so mild as to be given to infants soon after birth, to purge off the meconium. All oils are noxious to insects, but the castor kills and expells them. It is generally given as a purge after using the cabbage bark some days. In constipation and belly-ach this oil is used with remarkable success. It fits well on the stomach, allays the spasm, and brings about a plentiful evacuation by stool, especially if at the same time fomentations, or the warm bath, are used.—Belly-ach is at present less frequent in Jamaica than formerly, owing to several causes. The inhabitants in general, live better, and drink better liquor; but the excessive drinking of new rum still more it frequent amongst soldiers, sailors, and the lower order of white people. It has been known to happen too from visceral obstructions after long intermittents, or marsh fevers, in Jamaica.

RICITOSA, a town of European Turkey in Moldavia: 20 miles W. of Birlat.

RICIUS, Paul, a converted Jew, who flourished in the 16th century, and taught philosophy at Pavia with great reputation. The emperor Maximilian appointed him one of his physicians. He is famous for his dispute with Eckius upon the nature of celestial bodies.

* RICK. *n. s.* See REEK. 1. A pile of corn or hay regularly heaped up in the open field, and sheltered from wet.—

Whole *ricks* of hay and stacks of corn
Were down the sudden current born.

Mice and rats do great injuries in the field, both in barns, and corn *ricks*. *Mortimer*. 2. A heap of corn or hay piled by the gatherer.—In the North they bind them up in small bundles, and make small *ricks* of them in the field. *Mortimer*.

(1.) * RICKETS. *n. s.* [*rachitis*, Lat. A malady given to the distemper at its first appearance. *Cliffon*.] The *rickets* is a distemper in children from an unequal distribution of nourishment, whereby the joints grow knotty, and the body uneven: its cure is performed by evacuation and friction. *Quincy*.—In some years, liver-grown, spleen, and *rickets* are put altogether, by reason of their likeness. *Graunt*.—

He's so far gone with *rickets* and the evil,
That one small dose will send him to the devil. *Dry*.

So when at school we first declaim,
Old Busby walks us in theme,
Whose props support our infant vein,
And help the *rickets* in the brain. *Pr*

(2.) RICKETS. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

* RICKETY. *adj.* [from *rickets*.] Diseased with the rickets.—In a young animal, when the solids are too lax, the case of *rickety* children, the diet should be gently astringent. *Arb*.

RICKMANSWORTH, a town of England, in Hertfordshire, with a market on Saturday, seated on the Coln: 8 miles SW. of St Albans, and 18 WNW. of London. Lon. 0. 16. W. Lat. 51. 40. N.

RICLA, a town of Spain, in Arragon, on the Xiloca; 14 miles NE. of Calatayud.

(1.) * RICLUS. *n. s.* A plant, corrupted from *auricula*. *Ainsworth*.

(2.) RICLUS. See PRIMULA.

RICOCHET, in gunnery, is when guns, bowled

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ters, or mortars, are loaded with ſmall charges, and elevated from 5 to 12 degrees, ſo as to fire over the parapet, and the ſhot or ſhell rolls along the oppoſite rampart: it is called *ricochet firing*, and the batteries *ricochet batteries*. This method of firing was invented by M. Belidor, and firſt uſed at the ſiege of Ath in 1697. It was firſt tried in 1713 at the military ſchool at Straſburg, and with ſucceſs.

RICODULUM, an ancient town of Germany, now called RIGEL; near Cologn. *Tacit. Hiſt.* iv.

RICOTE, a town of Spain, in the province of Murcia; 20 miles NW. of Murcia.

RICOTIA, in botany, a genus of the ſiliquoſa order, belonging to the tetradynamia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 39th order, *Siliquoſæ*. The ſiliqua is unilocular, oblong, and compreſſed, with plain valves.

* RICTURE. *n. ſ.* [*rictura*, Lat.] A gaping.

* RID. pret of *ride*.

* *To* RID. *v. a.* [from *breddan*, Saxon.] 1. To free; to redeem.—Thou ſhalt *rid* me from the wicked man. *Pſalm* xviii. 49.—*Rid* me, and deliver me. *Pſalm* cxliv.—I will *rid* you out of your bondage. *Exod.* vi. 6. 2. To clear; to diſencumber.—They were not before ſo willing to be rid of their learned paſtor. *Hooker.*—

I muſt *rid* all the ſeas of pirates. *Shak.*

Let her, who would be *rid* of him, deviſe
His ſpeedy taking off. *Shak.*

Upon the word, ſtept forth
Three of thy crew, to *rid* thee of that care.
B. Jonſon.

I ſhall ſoon,
Arm'd with thy might, *rid* heav'n of theſe rebell'd. *Milton.*

When they thought the cauſe had need on't,
Happy was he that could be *rid* on't. *Hudib.*

The god uneaſy till he ſlept again,
Reſolv'd at once to *rid* himſelf of pain. *Dryden.*

Very little trouble moves us, and ſets on work to be *rid* of it. *Locke.*—The ladies aſked, whether we believed that the men of any town would, in the ſame conjuncture, have loaden themſelves with their wives; or rather, whether they would not have been glad of ſuch an opportunity to get rid of them? *Addiſon.* 3. To diſpatch.—

We'll thither ſtraight; for willingneſs *rids* away. *Shak.*

To drive away; to remove by violence; to deſtroy.—

Ah deathſman! you have *rid* this ſweet young prince. *Shak.*

RIDA, a town of Sweden, in Upland, 24 miles NE. of Stockholm.

RIDA, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the Valais; 4 miles SE. of Sion.

RIDALE, or RISDALE, a river of Yorkſhire; which runs into the Swale, near Richmond.

* RIDDANCE. *n. ſ.* [from *rid*.] 1. Deliverance.—Deliverance from ſudden death, *riddance* from all adverſity. *Hooker.* 2. Diſencumbrance; loſs of ſomething one is glad to loſe.—

—A gentle *riddance*. *Shak.*

The cock had a good *riddance* of his rival. *L'Eſtrange.* 3. Act of clearing away any incumbrances.—

Aſk *riddance*, if we mean to tread with eaſe. *Milton.*

* RIDDEN. the participle of *ride*.—He could never have *ridden* out an eternal period, but it muſt be by a more powerful being than himſelf. *Hale.*

RIDDERHUDE, a town of Lower Saxony, in the duchy of Bremen; 8 miles N. of Bremen.

* RIDDLE. *n. ſ.* [*rædels*, Saxon, from *ræde*, counſel, perhaps a trial of wit.] 1. An enigma; a puzzling queſtion; a dark problem.—

How did you dare
To trade and traffick with Macbeth,
In *riddles* and in charms of death? *Shak.*

The Theban monſter, that propos'd
Her *riddle*, and him, who ſolv'd it not, devour'd. *Milton.*

2. Any thing puzzling.—

'Twas a ſtrange *riddle* of a lady. *Hudibras.*

3. [*Hriddle*, Saxon.] A coarſe or open ſieve.—Horſe-beans and tares, ſown together, are eaſily parted with a *riddle*. *Mortimer.*

(1.) * *To* RIDDLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1, To ſolve; to unriddle. There is ſomething of whimſical analogy between the two ſenſes of the word *riddle*: as, we ſay, *to* ſift *a queſtion*: but their derivations differ.—

Riddle me this, and gueſs him if you can,
Who bears a nation in a ſingle man? *Dryden.*

2. To ſeparate by a coarſe ſieve.—The fineſt ſifted mould muſt be *riddled* in. *Mortimer.*

(2.) * *To* RIDDLE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To ſpeak ambiguouſly or obſcurely.—

Riddling confeſſion finds but *riddling* ſhrift. *Shak.*

* RIDDLINGLY. *adv.* [from *riddle*.] In the manner of a riddle; ſecretly.—

Though like the peſt'lence and old-faſhion'd love,
Riddlingly it catch men. *Donne.*

(1.) * *To* RIDE. *v. n.* preter. *rid* or *rode*; part. *rid* or *ridden*. [*Ridan*, Saxon; *rijden*, Dutch.] 1. To travel on horſeback.—

Brutus and Caſſius
Are *rid*, like madmen. *Shak.*

Were you but *riding* forth to air yourſelf,
Such parting were too pretty. *Shak.*

—Am not I thine aſs, upon which thou haſt *ridden*? *Numb.*—

Through ſtorms of ſmoke and adverſe fire he *rides*,
While ev'ry ſhot is level'd at his ſides. *Smith.*

—Let your maſter *ride* on before. *Swift.* 2. To travel in a vehicle; to be borne, not to walk.—

Infected be the air whereon they *ride*. *Shak.*

—Upon this chaos *rid* the diſtreſſed ark. *Burnet.*

3. To be ſupported in motion.—

A bond of air, ſtrong as the axle-tree
On which heav'n *rides*. *Shak.*

4. To manage an horſe.—

Skill to *ride* ſeems a ſcience,
Proper to gentle blood. *Spenſer.*

—The horſes I ſaw well choſen, *ridden*, and furniſhed. *Shak.*—

He *rode*, he ſene'd, he mov'd with graceful eaſe. *Dryden.*

5. To

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5. To be on the water.—

On the Weſtern coaſt
Rideth a puiſſant army. *Shak.*

—The ſea was grown ſo rough, that the admiral was not able longer to *ride* it out with his gallies. *Knolles.*—They were then in a place to be aided by their ſhips, which *rode* near in Edinburgh Frith. *Hayward.*—

Waiting him his royal fleet did *ride*. *Dryden.*
Men once walk'd where ſhips at anchor *ride*. *Dryden.*
Now on their coaſts our conquering navy *rides*,
Way-lays their merchants, and their land beſets. *Dryden.*

6. To be ſupported by ſomething ſubſervient.—

He ſuſpects none; on whoſe fooliſh honeſty
My practices *rid* eaſy. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* RIDE. *v. a.* 1. To ſit on ſo as to be carried.—

They *ride* the air in whirlwind. *Milton.*

2. To manage inſolently at will.—Humility does not oblige us to be *ridden* at the pleaſure of every coxcomb. *Collier.*—The nobility could no longer endure to be *ridden* by bakers, coblers and brewers. *Swift.*

RIDE, in geography, a town in the iſle of Wight, on the N. coaſt; 5 miles S. of Portſmouth, and 6 ENE. of Newport.

(1.) RIDEAU, in fortification, a ſmall elevation of earth, extending itſelf lengthwiſe on a plain; ſerving to cover a camp, or give an advantage to a poſt.

(2.) RIDEAU is ſometimes alſo uſed for a trench, the earth of which is thrown up on its ſide, to ſerve as a parapet for covering the men.

(3.) RIDEAU, in geography, a river of Canada, which runs into the Uttwas. Lon. 76. 20. W. Lat. 45. 15. N.

* RIDER. *n. ſ.* [from *ride*.] 1. One who is carried on a horſe or in a vehicle.—

The ſtrong camel and the gen'rous horſe,
Do to the *rider's* will their rage ſubmit. *Prior.*

2. One who manages or breaks horſes.—His horſes are bred better; and to that end *riders* dearly hired. *Shak.*—

I would with jockies from Newmarket dine,
And to rough *riders* give my choiceſt wine. *Bramſton.*

3. An inſerted leaf.

(1.) * RIDGE. *n. ſ.* [*brigg*, Saxon; *rig*, Daniſh; *rugge*, Dutch; the back.] 1. The top of the back.—

In a trice advanc'd the knight
Upon the bare *ridge* bolt upright. *Hudibras.*

2. The rough top of any thing, reſembling the vertebræ of the back.—

As when a vulture on Imaus bred,
Whoſe ſnowy *ridge* the roving Tartar bounds. *Milton.*

His ſons
Shall dwell to Seir, on that long *ridge* of hills! *Milton.*

—The higheſt *ridges* of thoſe mountains ſerve for the maintenance of cattle. *Ray.* 3. A ſteep protuberance.—

Part riſe in cryſtal wall, or *ridge* direct. *Milt.*
About her coaſts unruly waters roar,
And, riſing on a *ridge*, inſult the ſhore. *Dryden.*

4. The ground thrown up by the plow.—The viſiteſt the earth; thou watereſt the *ridges* thereof abundantly. *Pſalm* lxv. 10.—The body ſmooth on that end, and on this 'tis ſet with *ridges* round the point. *Woodward.*—Wheat muſt be ſowed above furrow fourteen days before Michaelmas, and laid up in round high warm *ridges*. *Mortimer.* 5. The top of the roof riſing to acute angle.—*Ridge* tiles or roof tiles, being in length 13 inches, and made circular breadthwiſe like an half cylinder, whoſe diameter is about 10 inches or more, and about half an inch and a quarter in thickneſs, are laid upon the upper part or *ridge* of the roof, and alſo on the hips. *Moxon.* 6. *Ridges* of a horſe's mouth are the kles or riſings of the fleſh in the roof of the mouth, running acroſs from one ſide of the to the other like fleſhy *ridges*, with interjacent furrows or ſinking cavities. *Farrier's Dict.*

(2.) *A* RIDGE, in agriculture, is a long piece of riſing land between two furrows.

* *To* RIDGE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To form a ridge.—

Thou from heav'n
Feign'dſt at thy birth was given thee in thy hair
Where ſtrength can leaſt abide, though all hairs
Were briſtles rang'd like thoſe that *ridge* the back
Of chaf'd wild boars, or ruffl'd porcupines. *Milton.*

RIDGEFIELD, a poſt town of Connecticut, in Fairfield county; 10 miles SW. of Danbury, 8 N. of Norwalk, 35 W. of New-Haven, and 80 NE. of Philadelphia.

RIDGEL. See RIDGIL.

RIDGELY, Thomas, a diſſenting clergyman, born in London, in 1670, where he became miniſter to a ſociety of proteſtant Diſſenters. He publiſhed a Commentary on the Aſſembly's larger Catechiſm; and died in 1737.

(1.) * RIDGIL. } *n. ſ.* [*ovis rejicula*,
(1.) * RIDGLING. } *Ainſ.*] A ram half ſtrated.—

Tend my herd, and ſee them fed;
To morning paſtures, evening waters led:
And 'ware the Libyan *ridgil's* butting head. *Dryden.*
And 'ware the *ridgling* with his butting brow. *Dryden.*

(2.) RIDGLING, or RIDGIL, among farriers, &c. the male of any beaſt that has been but half gelt.

RIDGWAY, a hill of England, in Dorſetſhire, between Dorcheſter and Weymouth.

* RIDGY. *adj.* [from *ridge*.] Riſing in a ridge.—

There ſtands a rock, the raging billows roar
Above his head in ſtorms; but when 'tis clear
Uncurl their *ridgy* backs, and at his feet appear. *Dryden.*

(1.) * RIDICULE. *n. ſ.* [*ridicule*, Fr. *ridiculum*, Lat.] Wit of that ſpecies that provokes laughter.—

Sacred to *ridicule* his whole life long. *Pope.*

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Thoſe, who aim at *ridicule*,
Should fix upon ſome certain rule,
Which fairly hints they are in jeſt. *Swift.*

(2.) RIDICULE. See LAUGHTER, § 1—7; and RIDICULE, § 2.

* *To* RIDICULE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To expoſe to laughter; to treat with contemptuous merriment.—I wiſh the vein of *ridiculing* all that is ridiculous and good may have no worſe effect upon your ſtate, than knight errantry had on theirs. *Spectator.*—He often took a pleaſure to appear ignorant, that he might the better turn to *ridicule* the learning that valued themſelves on their books. *Addiſon.*

RIDICULER. *n. ſ.* One that ridicules.—A *ridiculer* ſhall make only himſelf ridiculous. *Scattered.*

RIDICULOUS. *adj.* [*ridicule*, Fr. *ridiculus*, Lat.] Worthy of laughter; exciting contemptuous merriment.—

Thus was the building left
Ridiculous; and the work confuſion nam'd.
Milton.

It was in his power not to be *ridiculous*. *South.*

* RIDICULOUSLY. *adv.* [from *ridiculous*.] In a manner worthy of laughter or contempt.—Epicurus's diſcourſe concerning the original of the world is ſo *ridiculouſly* merry, that the deſign of his philoſophy was pleaſure and not inſtruction. *Addiſon.*

* RIDICULOUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ridiculous*.] The quality of being ridiculous.—What ſport do the Sibilian, Minucius and Arnobius make with the images conſecrated to divine worſhip? from the meanneſs of the matter they are made of, the qualities of fire, and rottenneſs they are ſubject to purpoſe to repreſent the *ridiculouſneſs* of worſhipping ſuch things. *Stillingfleet.*

(1.) * RIDING. *particip. adj.* Employed to ride on any occaſion.—It is provided, that no foreign biſhop ſhall have more than one *riding* apparitor, and that archdeacons ſhall not have ſo many as one *riding* apparitor. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) * RIDING. *n. ſ.* [from *ride*.] 1. A diſtrict viſited by an officer. 2. One of the diviſions of Yorkſhire, anſwering to hundreds in other counties corrupted from *trithing*.

(3.) RIDING, in general, ſignifies the being carried along on any vehicle.

(4.) RIDING on horſeback. See HORSEMANSHIP.

(5.) RIDING, in geography, (§ 2.) Yorkſhire is divided into three ridings, viz. the eaſt, weſt, and north ridings. In all indictments in that county, both the town and riding muſt be expreſſed.

(6.) RIDING, in medicine. During this exerciſe, the viſcera are ſhaken, and preſſed againſt each other; at the ſame time the pure air acts with a greater force on the lungs. Weakly perſons, or thoſe whoſe ſtomachs are infirm, ſhould, however, be cautious of riding before their meals are ſomewhat digeſted.

(7.) RIDING, as connected with gardening, and conceptible of embelliſhment. See GARDENING, Sect. II. A riding, though in extent differing ſo widely from a garden, yet agrees with it in many particulars: for, excluſive of that community of character which reſults from their being both improvements, and both deſtined to pleaſure, a cloſer relation ariſes from the property of a riding, *to extend the idea of a ſeat*, and appropriate a whole country to the manſion; for which purpoſe it muſt be diſtinguiſhed from common roads, and the marks of diſtinction muſt be borrowed from a garden. Thoſe which a farm or a park can ſupply, are faint and few; but whenever circumſtances belonging to a garden occur, they are immediately received as evidence of the domain. The ſpecies of the trees will often be deciſive: plantations of firs, whether placed on the ſides of the way, or in clumps or woods in the view, denote the neighbourhood of a ſeat: even limes and horſe cheſnuts are not indifferent; for they have always been frequent in improvements, and rare in the ordinary ſcenes of cultivated nature. If the riding be carried through a wood, the ſhrubs, which for their beauty or their fragrance have been tranſplanted from the country into gardens, ſuch as the ſweet briar, the viburnum, the euonymus, and the wood bine, ſhould be encouraged in the underwood; and to theſe may be added ſeveral which are ſtill peculiar to ſhrubberies, but which might eaſily be tranſferred to the wildeſt coverts, and would require no further care.

(8.) RIDING, in naval affairs, is the ſtate of a ſhip's being retained in a particular ſtation, by means of one or more cables with their anchors, which are for this purpoſe ſunk into the bottom of the ſea, &c. in order to prevent the veſſel from being driven at the mercy of the wind or current. A rope is ſaid to *ride*, when one of the turns by which it is wound about the capſtern or windlaſs lies over another, ſo as to interrupt the operation of heaving.

(9.) RIDING ATHWART, the poſition of a ſhip which lies acroſs the direction of the wind and tide, when the former is ſo ſtrong as to prevent her from falling into the current of the latter.

(10.) RIDING BETWEEN THE WIND AND TIDE, the ſituation of a veſſel at anchor, when the wind and tide act upon her in direct oppoſition, in ſuch a manner as to deſtroy the effort of each other upon her hull; ſo that ſhe is in a manner balanced between their reciprocal force; and rides without the leaſt ſtrain on her cables. When a ſhip does not labour heavily, or feel a great ſtrain when anchored in an open road or bay, ſhe is ſaid to ride eaſy. On the contrary, when ſhe pitches violently into the ſea, ſo as to ſtrain her cables, maſts, or hull, it is called *riding hard*, and the veſſel is termed a *bad roader*. A ſhip is rarely ſaid to *ride* when ſhe is faſtened at both the ends, as in a harbour or river, that ſituation being comprehended in the article MOORING.

* RIDINGCOAT. *n. ſ.* [*riding* and *coat*.] A coat made to keep out weather.—When you carry your maſter's *ridingcoat* in a journey, wrap your own in it. *Swift.*

* RIDINGHOOD. *n. ſ.* [*riding* and *hood*.] A hood uſed by women, when they travel, to bear off the rain.—The palliolum was like our *ridinghoods* *Arbuthnot.*—

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Good housewives all the winter's rage despise,
Defended by the *ridinghood's* disguise. *Gay.*

RIDL, a town of Imperial Austria; 10 miles SSW. of Argen.

RIDLAND, a river of Northumberland, which runs into the Coquet.

(1.) RIDLEY, Nicholas, Bp. of London, was descended of an ancient family, and born in the beginning of the 16th century, at Wilmontswick, in Northumberland. From the grammar school at Newcastle upon Tyne, he was sent to Pembroke-hall in Cambridge, in 1518, where he was supported by his uncle Dr Robert Ridley, fellow of Queen's college. In 1522 he took his degree of A. B.; two years after, was elected fellow; and, in 1525, he commenced M. A. In 1527, having taken orders, he was sent by his uncle, for further improvement, to the Sorbonne at Paris; thence he went to Louvain, and continued abroad till 1529. On his return to Cambridge, he was chosen under-treasurer of the university; and, in 1533, was elected senior proctor. He afterwards proceeded B.D. and was chosen chaplain of the university, orator, and *magister glomeriæ*. At this time he was much admired as a preacher and disputant. He lost his kind uncle in 1536: but was soon after patronised by Dr Cranmer, Abp. of Canterbury, who made him his domestic chaplain, and presented him to the vicarage of Herne in East Kent; where he preached the doctrine of the Reformation. In 1540, having commenced D. D. he was made king's chaplain; and elected master of his college in Cambridge. Soon after, he was collated to a prebend in the church of Canterbury; but was afterwards accused in the bishop's court, by Bp. Gardiner, of preaching against the doctrine of the Six Articles. The matter being referred to Cranmer, Ridley was acquitted. In 1545, he was made a prebendary of Westminster abbey; in 1547 he was presented, by the fellows of Pembroke-hall, to the living of Soham, in the diocese of Norwich; and was consecrated bishop of Rochester. In 1540 he was translated to the see of London; in which year he was one of the commissioners for examining bishop Gardiner, and concurred in his deprivation. In 1552, returning from Cambridge, he unfortunately paid a visit to the Princess, afterwards Queen Mary; to whom, prompted by his zeal for reformation, he expressed himself with too much freedom: for she was scarcely seated on the throne, when Ridley was doomed a victim to her revenge. With Cranmer and Latimer he was burnt alive at Oxford, on the 16th Oct. 1555. He wrote, 1. A treatise concerning images in churches. 2. A Brief declaration of the Lord's Supper. 3. Certain godly and comfortable conferences between bishop Ridley and Mr Hugh Latimer, during their imprisonment. 4. A comparison between the comfortable doctrine of the Gospel, and the traditions of the Popish religion; and other works.

(2.) RIDLEY, Dr Gloster, was of the same family with the bishop, (N° 1.) and was born at sea, in 1702, on board the Gloucester East Indiaman, educated at Winchester school, and thence elected to a fellowship at New College, Oxford, where he proceeded B. C. L April 29, 1729. In these two seminaries he laid the foundation of those elegant acquirements for which he was afterward eminently distinguished as a poet, historian, and divine. During a vacancy in 1728, he joined with Mr Thomas Fletcher (afterwards Bp. of Kil[illegible] Mr (afterwards Dr) Eyre, Mr Morrison, and Jemmens, in writing a tragedy called *The Redress*, each undertaking an act on a plan previously concerted. When they delivered in their several proportions, few readers would have known that the whole was not the production of a single hand. This tragedy, which was offered to Wilks, but never acted, is still in MS. with another called *Jugurtha*. Dr Ridley in his youth much addicted to theatrical performances. Petworst, in Sussex, was the place where they were exhibited; and the company of gentlemen among to which he belonged consisted chiefly of his coadjutors in the above tragedy. He performed characters of Marc Antony, Jaffier, Horatio, Moneses, with distinguished applause; a circumstance that will be readily believed by those who are no strangers to his judicious and graceful manner of speaking in the pulpit. For great part of his life he had no other preferment than the small college living of Westow in Norfolk, and the donative of Poplar in Middlesex, where he resided. To these his college added the donative of Romford in Essex. In 1740 and 1741 he preached "Eight Sermons at Lady Moyer's Lecture," which were published in 1742, 8vo. In 1763, he published the "Life of Bishop Ridley," in 4to, by subscription, and cleared by it as much as brought him 800l. stock in the public funds. In 1766 Ridley published his "Review of Philips's Life of Cardinal Pole;" and in 1768, in reward for his labours in this controversy, and in another work, *The Confessional* produced, he was presented by Abp. Secker to a golden prebend in the cathedral church of Salisbury, the only reward he received from the great during a long, useful, and laborious life, devoted to the duties of his function. He died in 1774, leaving a widow and 4 daughters. His epitaph, written by Bp. Lowth, informs us that for his merits the university of Oxford conferred upon him the degree of D. D. by diploma, the highest literary honour which that learned body has to bestow.

(3, 4.) RIDLEY, James, author of "The Tale of the Genii," and some other literary performances, was the eldest son of the Doctor. Thomas, the younger, was sent by the East India Company as a writer to Madras, where he was no sooner settled than he died of the small-pox.

(5.) RIDLEY, in geography, a river of England in Northumberland; which runs into the Coquet.

(6.) RIDLEY, Thomas, a learned English civilian, born at Ely. He wrote *A View of the Civil and Ecclesiastical Law*; and died in 1628.

RIDOL, a river of N. Wales, which runs into the sea near Aberistwyth.

(1.) * RIE. *n. s.* An esculent grain. This differs from wheat in having a flatter spike, the corn larger and more naked. *Miller.*—August shall be the form of a young man of a fierce aspect; upon his head a garland of wheat and *rie*. *Peacham.*

(2.) RIE. See SECALE.

RIE

RIECHENAU, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the county of the Grisons: 9 miles SSW. of Coire.

RIECHESTER, a small town of Northumberland, an ancient Roman station; called BREMAGENIUM by the Romans.

RIED, a town of Upper Bavaria; 18 miles E. of Braun, and 18 S. of Passau.

RIEDEGG, a town of Imperial Austria: 8 m. S. of Sterregg.

RIEDEN, a town of Bavaria, in the Upper Palatinate: 9 miles S. of Amberg, and 22 N. of Ratisbon.

RIEDENBERG, two towns of Bavaria: 1. in the dependant bishopric of Passau, on the Inn; 12 miles SW. of Passau, and 22 ENE. of Branau: 2. on the Altmuhl; 17 miles NE. of Ingoldstat, and 14 WSW. of Ratisbon.

RIEDESEL, John Herman, DE, a minister of the king of Prussia, at Vienna, born in 1740; who distinguished himself in the republic of Letters, by his *Voyage into Greece*. He died in 1785, aged 45.

RIEDLINGEN, a town of Austrian Suabia; 7 miles SW. of Ulm, and 35 SSE. of Stuttgard. Lon. 17. 4. E. of Ferro. Lat. 48. 11. N.

RIEHEN, a town of the Helvetic republic, in Basle: 3 miles E. of Basle.

RIELVES, a town of Spain, in New Castile: 7 miles NW. of Toledo.

RIENECK, a town of Franconia, capital of a county so named: 22 miles NW. of Wurzburg, and 36 E. of Franckfort on the Maine. Lon. 27. 8. E. of Ferro. Lat. 49. 59. N.

RIENTZ, a river of Germany, in Tyrol.

RIENZI, Nicolas Gabrini DE, one of the most extraordinary men of the 14th century, was born at Rome. His father, Laurence Gabrini, was a tavern, or a miller, and his mother a laundress. Their persons, however, gave their son a liberal education; and to a good natural understanding he added an uncommon assiduity, and made great proficiency in ancient literature. Every thing which he read he compared with similar passages from his own observation. To this he added a great knowledge in the laws and customs of nations. He had a vast memory: he retained much of Cicero, Valerius Maximus, Livy, the two Senecas, and Cæsar. This fund of learning proved the basis of his rise. He passed whole days among the inscriptions at Rome, and soon was esteemed a great antiquary. Having hence formed within himself the most exalted notions of the justice, liberty, and ancient grandeur of the old Romans, which he was perpetually repeating to the people, he at length persuaded himself and his followers, that he should one day become the restorer of the Roman republic. His advantageous stature, his countenance, and that air of importance which he assumed, deeply imprinted all that he said in the minds of his audience. He also insinuated himself into the favour of the administration. He was nominated one of the deputies sent to Pope Clement VI. who resided at Avignon. The intention of this deputation was to make Clement sensible, how prejudicial his absence was, to the interest of Rome. At his first audience, our hero charmed the court of Avignon by his eloquence and the sprightliness of his conversation. Encouraged by success, he one day took the liberty to tell the Pope, that the grandees of Rome were avowed robbers, thieves, adulterers, and profligates; who authorised the most horrid crimes. To them he attributed the desolation of Rome; of which he drew so lively a picture, that the Pope was exceedingly incensed against the Roman nobility; made Rienzi his apostolic notary, and sent him back loaded with favours. Being returned to Rome, he began to execute the functions of his office; and by affability, candour, assiduity, and impartiality in the administration of justice, he arrived at a high degree of popularity. But he still continued his invectives against the vices of the great; till at last, he was severely reprimanded, and displaced. From this time it was his constant endeavour to inspire the people with a fondness for their ancient liberties; to which purpose he caused to be hung up in the most public places emblematic pictures, expressive of the former splendour and present decline of Rome. To these he added frequent harangues and predictions upon the same subject. Having by these means got a number of followers, he at last resolved to seize the supreme power. "The 20th of May, being Whitsunday, he fixed upon to sanctify his enterprise; and pretended, that all he acted was by particular inspiration of the Holy Ghost. About 9 he came out of the church bare-headed, accompanied by the Pope's vicar, surrounded by 100 armed men. A vast crowd followed him with acclamations." The conspirators carried 3 standards before him, on which were wrought devices, insinuating, that his design was to re-establish *liberty*, *justice*, and *peace*. In this manner he proceeded directly to the Capitol, where he mounted the rostrum; and expatiated on the miseries to which the Romans were reduced: telling them, "that the happy hour of their deliverance was at length come, and that he was to be their deliverer, regardless of the dangers he was exposed to, for the service of the Holy Father and the people's safety." After which, he ordered the laws of what he called the *good establishment* to be read: "assured that the Romans would resolve to observe these laws, he engaged in a short time to re-establish them in their ancient grandeur." These laws promised plenty and security, which were greatly wanted; and the humiliation of the nobility, who were deemed common oppressors. Such laws could not fail of being agreeable to a people who found in them these double advantages; wherefore, "enraptured with the pleasing ideas of a liberty to which they had long been strangers, and the hope of gain, they came most zealously into the fanaticism of Rienzi. They resumed the pretended authority of the Romans; they declared him sovereign of Rome; and granted him the power of life and death, of rewards and punishments, of enacting and repealing the laws, of treating with foreign powers; in a word, they gave him the full and supreme authority of all the territories of the Romans. Rienzi, arrived at the summit of his wishes, kept at a great distance his artifice: he pretended to be very unwilling to accept of their offers, but upon two conditions; the

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firſt, that they ſhould nominate the Pope's vicar (the Biſhop of Orvieto) his copartner; the 2d that the Pope's conſent ſhould be granted him. The people granted his requeſt, but paid all the honours to him: the biſhop appeared a mere ſhadow; Rienzi was ſeated in his triumphal chariot. He diſmiſſed the people replete with joy and hope. He ſeized upon the palace, where he continued after he had turned out the ſenate; and, the ſame day, he began to dictate his laws in the Capitol." This election, though not very pleaſing to the Pope, was ratified by him; nevertheleſs, Rienzi meditated the obtaining of a title, excluſive of the papal prerogative: and as he owed his elevation to the people, he choſe to have the title of *tribune*, as their magiſtrate. It was conferred on him and his copartner, with the addition of *deliverers of their country*. His behaviour in his elevation was at firſt ſuch as commanded eſteem and reſpect, not only from the Romans, but from the neighbouring ſtates. But it is difficult for a perſon of mean birth, elevated at once, by the caprice of fortune, to the moſt exalted ſtation, to move rightly in a ſphere he has been unaccuſtomed to. Rienzi aſcended by degrees the ſummit of his fortune. Riches ſoftened, power dazzled, animated, and formed in his mind ideas adequate to thoſe of princes born to empire. Hence luxury invaded his table; and tyranny took hold of his heart. The Pope conceived his deſigns to be contrary to the intereſts of the holy ſee; and the nobles conſpired againſt him: they ſucceeded; and Rienzi was forced to quit an authority he had poſſeſſed little more than ſix months, and make a precipitate flight. Having made an ineffectual effort at Rome, and "not knowing where to find a new reſource to carry on his deſigns, he took a moſt bold ſtep. He went to Prague, to Charles king of the Romans, whom the year before he had ſummoned to his tribunal," and who, he foreſaw, would deliver him up to a Pope highly incenſed againſt him. He was accordingly ſoon after ſent to Avignon, and there thrown into priſon, where he continued three years. The diſturbances in Italy, occaſioned by the number of petty tyrants that had eſtabliſhed themſelves in the eccleſiaſtical territories, and even at Rome, occaſioned his enlargement. Innocent VI, who ſucceeded Clement, ſenſible that the Romans ſtill entertained an affection for Rienzi, thought him a proper inſtrument to aſſiſt him in reducing thoſe other tyrants; and therefore, not only gave him his liberty, but appointed him governor and ſenator of Rome. He met with many obſtacles to the aſſumption of this newly granted authority; all which he overcame. But giving way to his paſſions, which were immoderately warm, and inclined him to cruelty, he excited ſo general a reſentment againſt him, that he was murdered, Oct. 8, 1354. "Such was the end of Nicolas Rienzi, one of the moſt renowned men of the age; who, after forming a conſpiracy full of extravagance, and executing it in the ſight of almoſt the whole world, with ſuch ſucceſs that he became ſovereign of Rome; after cauſing plenty, juſtice, and liberty, to flouriſh among the Romans; after protecting potentates, and terrifying ſovereign princes; after being arbiter of crowned heads; after re-eſtabliſhing the ancient majeſty a power of the Roman republic, and filling all E rope with his fame during the ſeven months of firſt reign; after having compelled his maſ themſelves to confirm him in the authority he h uſurped againſt their intereſts—fell at the end his ſecond, which laſted not four months, a ſa fice to the nobility, whoſe ruin he had vowed, a to thoſe vaſt projects which his death prevent him from putting into execution." *Biog. Dict.*

RIERSTORFF, a town of Imperial Auſtri 3 miles W. of Mauttern.

RIESENKOPPE, or SCHNEE, a mountain Sileſia, in Jauer; reckoned one of the higheſt Europe.

RIESSA, a town of Upper Saxony, in Meiſſ 6 miles N. of Lommatſch.

(1.) RIETBERG, a county of Germany, Weſtphalia, 18 miles long and 6 broad.

(2.) RIETBERG, the capital of the above cou is ſeated on the Embs, 12 miles WNW. of Pa born.

(1.) RIETI, an ancient and rich town of Ita in the Pope's dominions, and duchy of Spole containing 9 churches; ſeated on the Velino, n lake Rieu, 27 miles S. by E. of Spoleto, and NE. of Rome. Lon. 13. 5. E. Lat. 42. 23. N.

(2.) RIETI, a lake of Italy, near the above tow

RIEV, or RIEV VOLODIMEROV, a town Ruſſia, in the province of Tuer; 63 miles SW. Tuer. Lon. 52. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 56 5. N.

RIEUMES, a town of France, in the dep. the Upper Garonne: 9 miles SW. of Muret, 10½ NNW. of Rieux.

RIEUPEYROUX, a town of France, in dep. of the Aveiron; 6 miles NW. of Sauveter and 15 W. of Rhodez.

RIEUX, 5 towns of France; viz.

1. RIEUX, in the department of the Aude miles E. of Carcaſſone:

2. RIEUX, in the department of the Ille Vilaine; on the Vilaine: 6 miles S. of Redo

3. RIEUX, in the dep. of Morbihan, 9 ENE. of Roche Bernard, and 10½ SE. of R fort:

4. RIEUX, in the department of the L Alps; 18 miles S. of Digne, and 30 SW. of tellane.

5. RIEUX, in the dep. of Upper Garonne, ci-devant prov. of Languedoc; ſeated o Riſe; 24 miles SW. of Touloufe, 24 NE. Gaudens, and 83 W. of Narbonne. Lon. E. Lat. 43. 16. N.

RIEZ, a populous town of France, in the of the Lower Alps, and ci-devant prov. of vence; ſeated in a pleaſant plain, abounding fruits and wine, 35 miles NE. of Aix, an NE. of Toulon. Lon. 6. 12. E. Lat. 43. 5

RIEZE, a river of France, which runs int Garonne; near Saverdun.

RIF, the Northern diſtrict of Egypt, call ſo *Babira*. It extends from the diviſion o Nile to the E. and W. branches, on both ſi the Mediterranean. The chief towns are A ANDRIA, CATIEH, DAMIETTA, FOUA, SOURA, MENIF, ROSETTA, and TINEH. See articles.

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* RIFE. *adj.* [*ryfe*, Saxon; *rijf*, Dutch.] Prevalent; prevailing; abounding. It is now only used of epidemical diſtempers.—

Thoſe reſtleſs deſires, in great men *rife*. *Sid.*

His foe did rage moſt *rife*. *Spenſer.*

—The plague was then *rife* in Hungary. *Knolles.*

Bleſſings then are plentiful and *rife*. *Herbert.*

Space may produce new worlds whereof ſo *rife*

There went a fame in heav'n, that he ere long Intended to create. *Milton.*

The tumult of loud mirth

Was *rife*, and perfect in my liſt'ning ear. *Milt.*

The ground maxim

So *rife* and celebrated in the mouths

Of wiſeſt men, that to the public good

Private reſpects muſt yield. *Milton.*

—Before the plague of London, inflammations of the lungs were *rife* and mortal. *Arbuthnot.*

* RIFELY. *adv.* [from *rife*.] Prevalently; abundantly.—It was *rifely* reported, that the Turks were coming in a great fleet. *Knolles.*

* RIFENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *rife*.] Prevalence; abundance.—He aſcribes the great *rifeneſs* of carbuncles in the ſummer, to the great heats. *Arbuthnot.*

RIFERBACH, a river of Germany, which runs into the Inn; 2 miles N. of Kuffſtain.

* RIFFRAFF. *n. ſ.* [*recrementum*, Latin.] The refuſe of any thing.

RIFLE, *n. ſ.* in gunnery. See PROJECTILES.

* *To* RIFLE. *v. a.* [*riffer*, *rifler*, Fr. *rijfelen*, Dutch.] 1. To rob; to pillage; to plunder.—Stand, Sir, and throw us what you have about you; if not, we'll make you, Sir, and *rifle* you. *Shak.*—

Men, by his ſuggeſtion taught,

Ranſack'd the centre, and with impious hands

Rifled the bowels of their mother earth

For treaſures better hid. *Milton.*

—You have *rifled* my maſter. *L'Eſtrange.*—A commander in the parliament's rebel army *rifled* and defaced the cathedral at Litchfield. *South.* 2. To take away; to ſeize as pillage.—

Time ſhall *rifle* every youthful grace. *Pope.*

RIFLE-BARRELLED, *adj.* with a rifled barrel; applied to guns, or cannon ſo made. See PROJECTILES.

* RIFLER. *n. ſ.* [from *rifle*.] Robber; plunderer; pillager.

* RIFT. *n. ſ.* [from *rive*.] A cleft; a breach; an opening.—

He pluckt a bough, out of whoſe *rift* there come

Small drops of gory blood. *Spenſer.*

She did confine thee

Into a cloven pine, within which *rift*

Impriſon'd, thou didſt painfully remain. *Shak.*

—In St James's fields is a conduit of brick, unto which joineth a low vault; at the end of that is a round houſe, with a ſmall ſlit or *rift*; and in the conduit a window: if you cry out in the *rift*, it makes a fearful roaring at the window. *Bacon.*

—They have an idle tradition, that a miſſel bird, feeding upon a ſeed ſhe cannot digeſt, expelleth it whole; which, falling upon a bough of a tree that hath ſome *rift*, putteth forth the miſſeltoe.—

The clouds

From many a horrid *rift* abortive pour'd

Fierce rain, with lightning mixt. *Milton.*

Some drive old oakum through each ſeam and *rift*. *Dryden.*

(1.) * *To* RIFT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cleave; to ſplit. To *rive* is perhaps more proper.—

To the dread rattling thunder

Have I giv'n fire, and *rifted* Jove's ſtout oak

With his own bolt. *Shak.*

At ſight of him the people with a ſhout

Rifted the air. *Milton.*

On *rifted* rocks, the dragon's late abodes,

The green reed trembles. *Pope.*

(2.) * *To* RIFT. *v. n.* 1. To burſt; to open.—

I'd ſhriek, that even your ears

Sould *rift* to hear me. *Shak.*

—Some trees are beſt for ſhip-timber, as oaks that grow in moiſt grounds; for that maketh the timber tough, and not apt to *rift* with ordnance. *Bacon.*—When ice is congealed in a cup, it will ſwell inſtead of contracting, and ſometimes *rift*. *Bacon.* 2. [*Ræver*, Daniſh.] To belch; to break wind.

* RIG. *n. ſ.* *Rig*, ridge, ſeem to ſignify the top of a hill falling on each ſide; from the *brigg*; and the Iſlandick, *briggur*, both ſignifying a back. *Gibſon.*

* *To* RIG. *v. a.* [from *rig* or *ridge*, the back.] 1. To dreſs; to accoutre. Cloaths are proverbially ſaid to be for the back, and victuals for the belly.—Jack was *rigged* out in his gold and ſilver lace. *L'Eſtrange.* 2. To fit with tackling.—

Nine faire ſhips, I *rig'd* forth for the flood. *Chapman.*

He, like a fooliſh pilot, hath ſhipwreck'd

My veſſel glorioufly *rigg'd*. *Milton.*

—A ſhip launched into the wide ſea, not only well built and *rigged*; but alſo carried on with full wind. *South.*—

He bids them *rig* the fleet. *Denham.*

—He *rigged* out another ſmall fleet. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) RIGA, a province or government of the Ruſſian empire, comprehending according to moſt geographers the province formerly called *Livonia*. (See LIVONIA.) But it certainly contains more territory, as Riga was formerly reckoned one of the boundaries of Livonia. Mr Cruttwell gives no account of its boundaries. Dr Brookes ſays "it is bounded on the N. by the government of REVEL, or ESTHONIA; E. by that of Pleſcof; S. by that of Polotſk and part of Poland; and W. by the gulf of Livonia." But others ſay, that Eſthonia or Revel forms a diviſion of Livonia; which renders the deſcriptions of its limits ſtill inaccurate and uncertain. See REVEL, N° 1.

(2.) RIGA, a large, ſtrong, populous, and rich city of the Ruſſian empire, and capital of Livonia. It is a large trading place, and has a very conſiderable fortreſs; the trade is chiefly in corn, ſkins, leather, and naval ſtores. It was taken by the Ruſſians in 1710, after they had blocked it up a long while, during which the inhabitants were afflicted with the plague. The caſtle is ſquare, and defended by 5 towers and 6 baſtions; beſides which, it has a fine arſenal. The Proteſtants have ſtill a handſome college here. The population is eſtimated at 25,000; viz. 9000 in the city;

15,000

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15,000 in the ſuburbs, and 1000 in the garriſon. It is ſeated on a large plain on the river Dwina: over which it has a floating wooden bridge, 2600 feet long, and 40 broad. Riga is 5 miles from the mouth of the Dwina, and 250 S. by E. of Stockholm. Lon. 24. 25. E. Lat. 57. 0. N.

(1.) * RIGADOON. *n. ſ.* [*rigadon*, Fr.] A dance.

(2.) *The* RIGADOON is a gay and briſk dance, borrowed originally from Provence in France, and performed in figure by a man and woman. See MUSIC, § 252.

RIGALTIUS, Nicolas, an ingenious French author, the ſon of a phyſician, born at Paris, in 1577. He was educated among the Jeſuits. His firſt work, *Funus Paraſiticum*, printed in 1596, procured him the friendſhip of Thuanus; who, when he died in 1617, appointed him a tutor to his children. He was appointed to arrange the royal library along with Iſaac Caſaubon, whom he ſucceeded as librarian. He was next made procureur general of the ſupreme court of Nancy, counſellor of the parliament of Metz, and intendant of that province. He wrote many learned works, but is chiefly valued for his critical notes upon Cyprian and Tertullian. He died in 1654.

* RIGATION. *n ſ.* [*rigatio*, Lat.] The act watering. *Dict.*

RIGAUD, Hyacinth, an eminent French painter, born at Perpignan, in 1663, and generally called the *Vandyck of France*. He was director of the Academy of Paintings, and died in 1743.

RIGBY, Richard, Eſq. an eminent political character, born about 1722. His father was a woollen-draper in London; and having been appointed factor for the South Sea company, under the ASSIENTO contract with Spain, had accumulated a fortune, and purchaſed the eſtate of *Miſſley Hall* in Eſſex; worth L. 1100 a-year. Dying in 1730, he was ſucceeded by his only ſon, Richard; who, on becoming of age, was returned for Sudbury after a moſt expenſive election. Poſſeſſing every advantage of perſon, abilities and addreſs, he was ſoon courted by both parties in parliament. He became attached to the late D. of Bedford, who being appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, took Mr Rigby with him, as his ſecretary. Under the duke's adminiſtration, the affairs of Ireland were managed ſo much to the king's ſatisfaction, that he appointed Rigby to the lucrative ſinecure place of maſter of the rolls. After this the duke never acted without his advice; got him repeatedly returned M. P. for Taviſtock, and at his death left him one of his executors, with a large legacy. On the 20th April 1763, Mr Rigby was made a privy counſellor of Great Britain, under the D. of Grafton. On the 6th Jan. 1768, he was appointed one of the vice-treaſurers of Ireland, a ſinecure of 3000 l. a-year, but this he ſoon reſigned for the office of pay-maſter general of the forces, a place worth 16,000 l. a-year, which he held from June 14th 1768 till March 1782; ſo that for 14 years, his annual income was not leſs than 20,000 l. The diſſolution of Lord North's adminiſtration put an end alſo to Mr Rigby's political exiſtence. He avoided farther interference with all parties, but this did not prevent his being called upon by both to give an account of his intromiſſions with the public money—a demand which had never been made upo his predeceſſors. Mr Rigby when in office h been too generous to many friends of Miniſtr This money was irrecoverable. Mr Rigby the fore compromiſed matters, and paid 10,000 l. f the intereſt of the unſettled balance, a circu ſtance totally *without precedent*. He died Ap 6th, 1788, leaving only one natural daughter, whom he left 5000 l.

* RIGGER. *n. ſ.* [from *rig*.] On that rig dreſſes.

(1.) * RIGGING. *n. ſ.* [from *rig*.] The ſa or tackling of a ſhip.—

To plow the deep,
To make fit *rigging*, or to build a ſhip. *Cra*
His batter'd *rigging* their whole war receiv
Dryd

(2.) RIGGING OF A SHIP, a general name ven to all the ropes employed to ſupport maſts, and to extend or reduce the ſails, or range them to the diſpoſition of the wind. former, which are uſed to ſuſtain the maſts, main uſually in a fixed poſition, and are cal *ſtanding rigging*; ſuch are the ſhrouds, ſtays, back-ſtays. The latter, whoſe office is to man the ſails, by communicating with various blo or pulleys ſituated in different places of the ma yards, ſhrouds, &c. are comprehended in the neral term of *running rigging*; ſuch are the brac ſheets, haliards, clue-lines, brails, &c. In ging a maſt, the firſt thing uſually fixed upon head is a circular wreath of rops, called the *met* or *collar*, which is firmly beat down upon top of the hounds. The intent of this is to p vent the ſhrouds from being fretted or worn the treſtle-trees, or ſhoulders of the maſt; a this are laid on the two pendants, from wh lower ends the main or fore tackles are ſuſpende and next, the ſhrouds of the ſtarboard and board ſide, in pairs, alternately. The whole covered by the ſtays, which are the largeſt r of the rigging.—When a yard is to be rigg gromet is alſo driven firſt on each of its ext ties; next to this are fitted on the horſes, the ces, and laſtly the lifts or top-ſail ſheet-blo The principal objects to be conſidered in rig a ſhip, appear to be ſtrength, convenience, and plicity: or, the properties of affording ſufficie ſecurity to the maſts, yards, and ſails; of arran ing the whole machinery in the moſt advanta ous manner, to ſuſtain the maſts, and facilita the management of the ſails; and of avoiding p plexity, and rejecting whatever is ſuperfluous unneceſſary. The perfection of this art, the conſiſts in retaining all thoſe qualities, and in pr ſerving a judicious medium between them. S SHIP-BUILDING.

* RIGGISH. *adj.* [from *rig*, an old word for whore.] Wanton; whoriſh.—

The holy prieſts
Bleſs her, when ſhe is *riggiſh*. *Sha*

* *To* RIGGLE. *v. a.* [properly *to wriggle*.] T move backward and forward, as ſhrinking fro pain.

(1.) * RIGHT. *adj.* [*rigt*, Sax. *recht*, Dutch *ritto*, Italian; *rectus*, Latin.] 1. Fit; proper becoming; ſuitable.—The words of my mouth are *right* to them that find knowledge. *Prov.* vi —A

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A time there will be, when all theſe unequal
bations of good and evil ſhall be ſet *right*. *At-*
—The Lord God led me in the *right* way.
xxiv. 48. 2. Rightful; juſtly claiming.—
being no law of nature, nor poſitive law of
which determines which is the *right* heir in
, the right of ſucceſſion could not have
certainly determined. *Locke*. 3. True; not
ſe; not wrong.—If there be no proſpect
the grave, the inference is certainly *right*,
et and drink, for to-morrow we die. *Locke*.
once reformed and ſet *right*, it may be
, by omitting the additional day at the end
134 years. *Holder*.—If my preſent and
perience do exactly coincide, I ſhall then
ſed to think them both *right*. *Beattie*. 4.
ſtaken; paſſing a true judgment; paſſing
ect according to the truth of things.—
You are *right*, Juſtice. *Shak*.
t; honeſt; equitable; not criminal.—Their
ou not *right* with him. *Pſalm* lxxviii. 37.
; convenient.—The lady has been diſ-
ed on the *right* ſide. *Spectator*. 7. Not
is not with certainty to be received, con-
the *right* and left hand, that men natural-
e uſe of the *right*. *Brown*.—
The left foot naked, when they march to
ght,
In a bull's raw hide they ſheathe the *right*.
Dryden.
t; not crooked.—The idea of a *right* lined
neceſſarily carries with it an equality of
s to two right ones. *Locke*. 9. Perpen-
; direct.
RIGHT. *adv*. 1. Properly; juſtly; ex-
according to truth, or juſtice.—Then ſhall
ir aiming thunder-bolts go abroad. *Wiſd*.
—To underſtand political power *right*, and
it from its original, we muſt conſider what
men are naturally in. *Locke*. 2. Accord-
ot or rule.—
n with ſtrict diſcipline inſtructed *right*,
learn'd to uſe your arms. *Roſcommon*.
: heed you ſteer your veſſel *right*. *Dryd*.
direct line; in a ſtraight line.—Let thine
right on. *Prov*. iv. 25.—Ye ſhall be driven
forth. *Jer*. xlix. 5.—The people paſſed
t againſt Jericho. *Joſh*. iii. 16.—Inſects
untary motion, and therefore imagina-
for ants go *right* forward to their hills. *Bac*.
n way, *right* down to Paradiſe deſcend.
Milton.
a great degree; very. Now obſolete.—I
e to my Lord *right* humbly. *Pſalm* xxx. 8.
Right noble princes. *Shak*.
Pardon us the interruption
thy devotion and *right* chriſtian zeal. *Shak*.
I cannot joy, until I be reſolved
are our *right* valiant is become. *Shak*.
I had climb'd a height
ough and *right* hardly acceſſible. *Chapman*.
I ſhould be *right* ſorry
o have the means ſo to be veng'd on you.
Ben Jonſon.
Right many a widow his keen blade,
and many fatherleſs, had made. *Hudibras*.
n ſtill uſed in titles: as, right *honourable*;
right *reverend*.—I mention the *right* honourable
Thomas Howard. *Peacham*.
(3.) * RIGHT. *interj*. An expreſſion of appro-
bation.—
Right, cries his lordſhip, for a rogue in need
To have a taſte, is inſolence indeed. *Pope*.
(4.) * RIGHT. *n. ſ*. 1. Not wrong.—
One riſing, eminent
In wiſe deport, ſpake much of *right* and wrong.
Milton.
2. Juſtice; not injury.—Perſons of noble blood
are leſs envied in their riſing; for it ſeemeth but
right done to their birth. *Bacon*.—In the midſt of
your invectives, do the Turks this *right*, as to re-
member that they are no idolaters. *Bacon*.—
Long love to her has borne the faithful knight,
And well deſerv'd, had fortune done him *right*.
Dryden.
—He, that would do *right* to religion, cannot
take a more effectual courſe, than by reconciling
it with the happineſs of mankind. *Tillotſon*. 3.
Freedom from guilt; goodneſs.—
His faith perhaps in ſome nice tenets might
Be wrong, his life I'm ſure was in the *right*.
Cowley.
4. Freedom from errour.—
Your eyes are always in the *right*. *Prior*.
5. Juſt claim.—The Roman citizens, were, by
the ſword, taught to acknowledge the pope their
lord, though they knew not by what *right*. *Ra-
leigh*.—The proud tyrant would many times ſay,
that whatſoever belonged unto the empire of
Rome was of *right* his. *Knolles*.—
Meſſiah, who by *right* of merit reigns. *Milt*.
My *right* to it appears,
By long poſſeſſion of eight hundred years. *Dryd*.
—Might and *right* are inſeparable in the opinion
of the world. *L'Eſtrange*.—Deſcriptions, figures,
and fables muſt be in all heroick poems; every
poet hath as much *right* to them, as every man
hath to air. *Dryden*.—Our author thinks it is very
good proof, that becauſe he did it, therefore he
had a *right* to do it. *Locke*.—Agrippa is generally
ranged in ſets of medals among the emperors; as
ſome among the empreſſes have no other *right*.
Addiſon. 6. That which juſtly belongs to one.—
To thee doth the *right* of her appertain. *Tob*. vi. 11.
—The cuſtom of employing theſe great perſons
in all great offices, paſſes for a *right*. *Temple*.—
Born free, he ſought his *right*. *Dryden*.
7. Property; intereſt.—
A ſubject in his prince may claim a *right*,
Nor ſuffer him with ſtrength impair'd to fight.
Dryden.
8. Power; prerogative.—God hath a ſovereign
right over us, as we are his creatures, and by vir-
tue of this *right*, he might, without injuſtice, have
impoſed difficult taſks: but in making laws, he
hath not made uſe of this *right*. *Tillotſon*. 9. Im-
munity; privilege.—
Let them but have their *rights*. *Shak*.
—Their only thoughts and hope was to defend
their own *rights* and liberties. *Clarendon*. 10.
The ſide not left.—
On his *right*
The radiant image of his glory ſat. *Milton*.
11. *To* RIGHTS. In a direct line; ſtraight.—
Theſe

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Theſe ſtrata failing, the whole tract ſinks down *to rights* into the abyſs. *Woodward.* 12. *To* RIGHTS. Deliverance from errour.—Several have gone about to inform them, and ſet them *to rights. Woodward.*

(5.) RIGHT, in geometry, ſignifies the ſame with ſtraight; thus, a ſtraight line is called a *right* one.

(6.) RIGHT is a title conferred, 1. Together with *Reverend*, upon all biſhops. 2. Together with *Honourable*, upon earls, viſcounts, and barons. 3. By courteſy, together with *Honourable*, upon the ſons of dukes, marquiſſes, and the eldeſt ſons of earls. 5. Together with *Honourable*, to the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, but to no other commoner excepting thoſe who are members of his majeſty's moſt honourable privy-council; and the three lord mayors of London, York, and Dublin, and the lord provoſt of Edinburgh, during their office. See HONOURABLE and PROVOST.

(7.) RIGHT, HEREDITARY. See HEREDITARY.

(8.) RIGHTS, in law, or in the common acceptation of the word, are of various kinds:—*natural* and *adventitious*; *alienable* or *unalienable*; *perfect* or *imperfect*; *general* or *particular*. See LIBERTY, N° 2. § I. and II: alſo METAPHYSICS, SOCIETY, &c. Alſo § 9, 10, 12—18, of this article.

(9.) RIGHTS, ADVENTITIOUS, are ſuch as a king has over his ſubjects; a general over his ſoldiers; a huſband to the affections of his wife, &c. All property is alſo included under adventitious.

(10.) RIGHTS, ALIENABLE. A man's *natural* rights (§ 14.) are alienable. Every man when he becomes a member of a civil community alienates a part of his natural rights. In a ſtate of nature all are upon an equality; no man has a ſuperior; each is entitled to defend his life, liberty and property by every means in his power. But in civil ſociety all theſe rights are transferred to the laws and the magiſtrate.

(11.) RIGHTS, BILL OF, in law, is a declaration delivered by the lords and commons to the prince and princeſs of Orange, 13th February 1688; and afterwards enacted in parliament when they became king and queen. It ſets forth that king James did, by the advice of divers evil counſellors, endeavour to ſubvert the laws and liberties of this kingdom, by exerciſing a power of diſpenſing with and ſuſpending of laws; by levying money for the uſe of the crown by pretence of prerogative without the conſent of parliament; by proſecuting thoſe who petitioned the king, and diſcouraging petitions; by raiſing and keeping a ſtanding army in time of peace; by violating the freedom of election of members to ſerve in parliament; by violent proſecutions in the court of king's bench; and cauſing partial and corrupt jurors to be returned on trials, exceſſive bail to be taken, exceſſive fines to be impoſed, and cruel puniſhments inflicted; all which were declared to be illegal. And the declaration concludes in theſe remarkable words: and they do claim, demand, and inſiſt upon, "all and ſingular the premiſes, as their undoubted rights and liberties." And the act of parliament itſelf (1 W. & M. ſtat. 2. cap. 2.) recognizes "all and ſingular the rights and liberties, aſſerted and claimed in the ſaid declaration, to be the true, ancient, indubitable rights of the peop of this kingdom." See LIBERTY, N° 2, § 1 &

(12.) RIGHTS, GENERAL, are thoſe which long to the ſpecies collectively. Such are rights to the vegetable produce of the earth, to the fleſh of animals for food, though about origin of this latter right there has been much verſity of opinion, which we have noticed in ther place. Among the general rights of mank is the right of *neceſſity*; by which a man may or deſtroy his neighbour's property when it is ſolutely neceſſary for his own preſervation. on this principle that goods are thrown overb to ſave the ſhip, and houſes pulled down to the progreſs of a fire. In ſuch caſes, however leaſt in the laſt, reſtitution ought to be when it is in our power; but this reſtitution not extend to the original value of the pro deſtroyed, but only to what it was worth time of deſtroying it, which, conſidering its ger, might be very little.

(13.) RIGHTS, IMPERFECT. Every poo has an undoubted right to relief from the but his right is imperfect; for if the relief be voluntarily given, he cannot compel it, either law, or by violence.

(14.) RIGHTS, NATURAL, are thoſe wh man has to his life, limbs, and liberty; to the duce of his perſonal labour; to the uſe o light, water, &c. without which he could enjoy life or even exiſt.

(15.) RIGHTS OF MAN. Upon this ſu which has made ſo much noiſe throughou rope and America, within theſe 15 years, we neither quote the writings of Thomas Paine Mr Godwin, nor thoſe of their opponents, as the origin of this important controver been generally aſcribed to the writings of L Milton, and other public-ſpirited authors o 17th century, we ſhall only quote a few lines the Earl of Buchan's *Life of Fletcher*, as dence, that theſe opinions are of much hig tiquity, and have even originated from ou country.—"In Scotland, (ſays the noble a ry, p. 33.) the rights and liberties of the had been determined and fixed by multip ſtances of changing the order of ſucceſſio attainting their ſovereigns for treaſon aga rights of the people: and it is to *Scotland*, *Scotchman*, that the world is indebted for tabliſhment of the philoſophical and logical ciples of a free conſtitution. GEORGE BU NAN, the greateſt man of his age, as well as try, eſtabliſhed by irrefragable arguments, in treatiſe or dialogue concerning the rights of people of Scotland, the *rights of all mankind* the father of *whiggery*, and what is much er, the father of that ſyſtem, which will one verify the prophecies of the Chriſtian Script to the abaſement of kings, and the deſtructio prieſtcraft."

(16.) RIGHTS, PARTICULAR. Particular r are ſuch as belong to certain individuals or or of men, and not to others. The rights of h of maſters, of huſbands, of wives, and, in ſh all the rights which originate in ſociety, are ticular.

(17.) RIGHTS, PERFECT, are ſuch as may prec

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...ascertained and asserted by law, in civil ...ety, or by force out of it. A man's right to his ...erson, and property, are all perfect; for if any ...ck be attacked, he may repel the attack by ...force, or punish the aggressor by course of ... A woman's right to her honour is also per...; for if she cannot otherwise escape, she may ...ther rather.

...RIGHTS, UNALIENABLE. The rights of ...ereign over his people, and of a husband over ...ife are generally and naturally unalienable....

* To RIGHT. *v. a.* To do justice to; to establish possessions justly claimed; to relieve from ...

You scarce can *right* me throughly. *Shak.*

If the injured person be not *righted*, every one ...hom is wholly guilty of the injustice. *Taylor.*

I cou'd not expedient see,
...this side death, to *right* our family. *Waller.*

...ome seeking unto courts, and judicial endeavours to *right* ourselves are still innocent. *Kettlewell.*

To *right* my honour, and redeem your own. *Dryden.*

* RIGHTEOUS. *adj.* [*rightwise*, Sax. whence ... in old authors, and *rightwisely* in bishop ...: so much are words corrupted by pronunciation.] 1. Just; honest; virtuous; uncorrupt. ...Be far from thee, to slay the *righteous* with ...ked; and that the *righteous* should be as ...rked. *Gen.* 2. Equitable; agreeing with ...

Her *righteous* doom will bless. *Dryden.*

RIGHTEOUSLY, *adv.* [from *righteous*.] Honestly; virtuously.—

Athens did *righteously* decide,
When Phocion and when Socrates were try'd;
As *righteously* they did those dooms repent. *Dryden.*

* RIGHTEOUSNESS. *n. s.* [from *righteous*.] Justice; honesty; virtue; goodness; integrity.—Scripture, ascribing to the persons of men ...ousness, in regard of their manifold virtues, ...ot be construed, as though it did thereby ...them from all faults. *Hooker.*—

Learn *righteousness*, and dread th' avenging deities. *Dryden.*

...God men often suffer, and that even for the ...ke of *righteousness*. *Nelson.*

To RIGHTEOUSNESS. See THEOLOGY.

* RIGHTFUL. *adj.* [*right* and *full*.] 1. Having the right; having the just claim.—

They laboured to supplant the *rightful* heir. *Shak.*

Some will mourn in ashes, some coal black,
For the deposing of a *rightful* king. *Shak.*

2. Honest; just; agreeable to justice.—

Nor would it, for gold or fee,
Be won, their *rightful* causes down to tread. *Spenser.*

Such as with friendly care have guarded
Patriots and kings in *rightful* wars. *Prior.*

* RIGHTFULLY. *adv.* [from *rightful*.] According to right; according to justice.—Henry ...s sensible that his title was not sound; but ...was *rightfully* in Mortimer, who had married the ...ter of York. *Dryden.*

* RIGHTFULNESS. *n. s.* [from *rightful*.] Moral rectitude.—

But still although we fail in perfect *rightfulness*,
Seek we to tame these superfluities. *Sidney.*

* RIGHT-HAND. *n. s.* Not the left.—

The rank of osiers, by the murmuring stream,
Left on your *right-hand* brings you to the place. *Shak.*

* RIGHTLY. *adv.* [from *right*.] 1. According to truth or justice; properly; suitably; not erroneously.—

Each of his reign allotted, *rightlier* call'd
Pow'rs of fire, air, water. *Milton.*

Descend from heav'n, Urania! by that name
If *rightly* thou art call'd. *Milton.*

Patrons of mankind, gods, and sons of gods;
Destroyers *rightlier* call'd and plagues of men. *Milton.*

—A man can never have so certain a knowledge, that a proposition, which contradicts the clear principles of his own knowledge, was divinely revealed, or that he understands the words *rightly*, wherein it is delivered; as he has, that the contrary is true. *Locke.*—

Or from their deeds I *rightlier* may divine,
Unseemly flown with insolence of wine. *Pope.*

2. Honestly; uprightly.—

You may be *rightly* just, whatever I shall think. *Shak.*

3. Exactly.—

Should I grant, thou didst not *rightly* see,
Then thou wert first deceiv'd. *Dryden.*

4. Straitly; directly.—We wish one end; but differ in order and way, that leadeth *rightly* to that end. *Ascham.*

* RIGHTNESS. *n. s.* [from *right*.] 1. Conformity to truth; exemption from being wrong; rectitude; not errour.—It is not necessary for a man to be assured of the *rightness* of his conscience, by such an infallible certainty of persuasion, as amounts to the clearness of a demonstration. *South.*—Like brute beasts, we travel with the herd, and are never so solicitous for the *rightness* of the way, as for the number or figure of our company. *Rogers.* 2. Straitness.—Sounds move strongest in a right line, which nevertheless is not caused by the *rightness* of the line, but by the shortness of the distance. *Bacon.*

* RIGID. *adj.* [*rigide*, Fr. *rigidus*, Lat.] 1. Stiff; not to be bent; unpliant.—A body, that is hollow, may be demonstrated to be more *rigid* and inflexible, than a solid one of the same substance and weight. *Ray.* 2. Severe; inflexible.—

Rigid husbands jealous are,
When they believe their wives too fair. *Denham.*

3. Unremitted; unmitigated.—

Queen of this universe! do not believe
Those *rigid* threats of death. *Milton.*

4. Sharp; cruel. It is used somewhat harshly by *Philips*.—

Cressy plains
And Agincourt, deep ting'd with blood, confess
What the Sclaves vigour unwithstood
Could do in *rigid* fight. *Philips.*

(1.) * RIGIDITY. *n. s.* [*rigidité*, Fr. from *rigid*.] 1. Stiffness.—*Rigidity* is said of the solids of the body, when, being stiff or immutable, they cannot readily perform their respective offices; but a fibre

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a fibre is ſaid to be rigid, when its parts ſo ſtrongly cohere together, as not to yield to that action of the fluids, which ought to overcome their reſiſtance in order to the preſervation of health: it is to be remedied by fomentations. *Rigidity* of the organs is ſuch a ſtate as makes them reſiſt that expanſion, which is neceſſary to carry on the vital functions: *rigidity* of the veſſels and organs muſt neceſſarily follow from the *rigidity* of the fibres. *Arbuthnot.* 2. Stiffneſs of appearance; want of eaſy or airy elegance.—This ſevere obſervation of nature, by the one in her commoneſt, and by the other in her abſoluteſt forms, muſt needs produce in both a kind of *rigidity*. *Wotton.*

(2.) RIGIDITY, in phyſic, denotes, a brittle hardneſs. It is oppoſed to ductility, malleability, and ſoftneſs.

* RIGIDLY. *adv.* [from *rigid.*] 1. Stiffly; unpliantly. 2. Severely; inflexibly; without remiſſion; without mitigation.

* RIGIDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *rigid.*] Stiffneſs; ſeverity; inflexibility.

* RIGLET. *n. ſ.* [*rigulet*, Fr.] A flat thin ſquare piece of wood.—The pieces that are intended to make the frames for pictures, before they are molded, are called *riglets*. *Moxon.*

RIGNAC, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aveiron, 9 miles S. of Albin, and 12 WNW. of Rhodez.

RIGNEY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Doubs, 10½ miles NE. of Beſançon, and 12 W. of Clerval.

(1.) RIGNY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Indre and Loire, 6 miles NE. of Chinon.

(2.) RIGNY LE SERON, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aube, 6 miles NW. of Ervy, and 18 SW. of Troyes. Lon. 21. 18. E. of Ferro. Lat. 48. 12. N.

* RIGOL. *n. ſ.* A circle uſed in *Shakeſpeare* for a diadem.—

This ſleep is ſound; this is a ſleep,
That, from this golden *rigol*, hath divorc'd
So many Engliſh kings. *Shak.*

RIGOLL, or REGAL, a kind of muſical inſtrument, conſiſting of ſeveral ſticks bound together, only ſeparated by beads. It is tolerably harmonious when well ſtruck with a bail at the end of a ſtick. Such is the account which Graſſineau gives of this inſtrument. Skinner, upon the authority of an old Engliſh dictionary, repreſents it as a clavichord, or claricord; poſſibly founding his opinion on the nature of the office of the tuner of the regals, who ſtill ſubſiſts in the eſtabliſhment of the king's chapel at St James's, and whoſe buſineſs is to keep the organ of the chapel royal in tune; and not knowing that ſuch wind inſtruments as the organ need frequent tuning, as well as the clavichord and other ſtringed inſtruments. Sir Henry Spelman derives the word *rigoll* from the Italian *rigabello*, a muſical inſtrument, anciently uſed in churches inſtead of the organ. Walther, in his deſcription of the *regal*, makes it to be a reed-work in an organ, with metal and alſo wooden pipes and bellows adapted to it. He adds, that the name of it is ſuppoſed to be owing to its having been preſented by the inventor to ſome *king*. From an account of the regal uſed in Germany, and other parts of Europe it appears to conſiſt of pipes and keys on one ſi and the bellows and wind-cheſt on the oth Lord Verulam (*Nat. Hiſt. cent.* ii. § 102.) diſtinguiſhes between the regal and the organ, manner which ſhows them to be inſtrument the ſame claſs. Upon the whole, there is re to conclude, that the regal or rigoll was a matic, and not a ſtringed inſtrument. Mer nus relates, that the Flemings invented an in ment, *les regales de bois*, conſiſting of 17 cyli cal pieces of wood, decreaſing gradually in le ſo as to produce a ſucceſſion of tones and tones in the diatonic ſeries, which had keys, was played on as a ſpinet; the hint of which, ſays, was taken from an inſtrument in uſe the Turks, conſiſting of 12 wooden cylinder different lengths, ſtrung together, which ſuſpended and ſtruck with a ſtick, having at the end, produced muſic. *Hawkins's Muſ.* vol. ii. p. 449.

RIGOR, in medicine. *n. ſ.* See RIGOUR.

* RIGOROUS. *adj.* [from *rigour.*] 1. Se allowing no abatement.—

He ſhall be thrown down the Tarpeian
With *rigorous* hands.

—Are theſe terms hard and *rigorous*, beyond capacities to perform? *Rogers.* 2. Exact; pulouſly nice: as, a *rigorous* demonſtration *rigorous* definition.

* RIGOROUSLY. *adv.* [from *rigorous*] Severely; without tenderneſs or mitigation.—

Leſt they faint
At the ſad ſentence *rigorouſly* urg'd.

—The people would examine his works more *gorouſly* than himſelf, and would not forgive leaſt miſtake. *Dryden.* 2. Exactly; ſcrupulou nicely.

* RIGOUR. *n. ſ.* [*rigor*, Latin.] 1. Cold; neſs.—

The reſt his look
Bound with Gorgonian *rigour*, not to mo

2. A convulſive ſhuddering with ſenſe of co *Rigors*, chilneſs, and a fever attend every new ſuppuration. *Blackmore.*—A right regi during the *rigor* or cold fit in the beginning fever, is of great importance; a long contin *rigor* is a ſign of a ſtrong diſeaſe: during the *gor*, the circulation is leſs quick, and the blo actually ſtagnates in the extremities, and, pre upon the heart, may produce concretions; the fore a *rigor* increaſeth an inflammation. *Arbu* 3. Severity; ſternneſs; want of condeſcenſion others.—Nature has got the victory over paſſio all his *rigour* is turned to grief and pity. *Denha* —*Rigour* makes it difficult for ſliding virtue recover. *Clariſſa.* 4. Severity of life; volunta pain; auſterity.—He reſumed his *rigors*, effect ing this calamity ſuch a one as ſhould not be ou lived, but that it became men to be martyrs t *Fell.*—Does not looſeneſs of life, and a want neceſſary ſobriety in ſome, drive others into *gors* that are unneceſſary? *Spratt.*—This prince lived in this convent, with all the *rigor* and au terity of a capuchin. *Addiſon.* 5. Strictneſs; un bated exactneſs.—In caſes of neceſſity certain pro ſtable

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ble ordinances ſometimes be releaſed, rather
all men always ſtrictly bound to the general
therof. *Hooker.*—Heat and cold are not, ac-
ing to philoſophical *rigour*, the efficients; but
times expreſſing our paſſions. *Glanville.*—
The baſe degenerate age requires
verity and juſtice in its *rigour*. *Addiſon.*
ge; cruelty; fury.—
He at his foe with furious *rigour* ſmites.
Spenſer.
ken by the neceſſities of the times, more
led by his own diſpoſition to any height
igour of actions. *King Charles.* 7. Hardneſs;
flexibility; ſolidity; not ſoftneſs.—
The ſtones the *rigor* of their kind expel.
Dryden.
ctly; ſcrupulouſly; nicely.
GVEDA. See PHILOSOPHY, *Sect.* I.
KIRACH, a town of Germany, in the
y of Bregentz, 17 miles SSE. of Bregentz.
LANDA, a town of Sweden, in the prov.
nd, 28 miles NE. of Stockholm.
LEY, John, an eminent portrait painter,
n London, in 1646, and inſtructed by Ful-
and Zouſt. After the death of Sir Peter Lily,
as much employed at court. He died in
.
ILL. *n. ſ.* [*rivulus*, Lat.] A ſmall brook; a
treamlet.—
A thouſand petty *rilli*,
hat tumble down the ſnowy hills. *Milton.*
Every *rill* a ſweet inſtruction flows. *Young.*
To RILL. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To run in
ſtreams.—
The wholeſome draught from Aganippe's
ſpring
Purer, and with ſoft murmurs gently *rilling*
down the mountains. *Prior.*
RILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of
the and Loire, 9 miles E. of Bauge.
RILLE, a river of France, which runs into
the, 6 miles below Quilboeuf.
RILLET. *n. ſ.* [corrupted from *rivulet*.] A
ſtream.—A creek of Oſe, between two hills,
ing a freſh *rillet* into the ſea. *Carew.*—
The induſtrious muſe thus labours to relate
the *rillets* that attend proud Tamer and her
mate. *Dryden.*
RILLY, a town of France, in the dep. of the
ne, 6 miles S. of Rheims.
RIM, a town of Ruſſia, in the province of
, on the Sem, 52 miles WSW. of Kurſk,
51. 40. E. of Ferro. Lat. 51. 30. N.
RIM. *n. ſ.* [*rima*, Saxon.] 1. A border; a
rge.—Its figure is capable of a variation to-
the *rim*. *Grew.* 2. That which encircles
thing elſe.—The peritoneum or *rim* of the
may be broke. *Brown.*—The drum-maker
it for *rimbs*. *Mortimer.*
RIMA, a valley of Peru, in which the city of
ma ſtands, and from which it is named by cor-
ption of L into R.
RIMAC, a valley of Peru, watered by a river
named.
RIMAGIONE, a town of the Ligurian repub-
5 miles SSW. of Spezza.
RIME. *n. ſ.* [*hrim*, Saxon.] 1. Hoar Froſt.—
Thoſe froſts you ſhall find drops of dew upon
the inſide of glaſs windows. *Bacon.*—In a hoar
froſt, a *rime*, is a multitude of quadrangular priſms
piled without any order one over another. *Grew.*
2. [*Rima*, Latin.] A hole; a chink. Not uſed.—
Though birds have no epiglottis, yet can they
contract the *rime* or chink of their larinx. *Brown.*
* To RIME. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To freeze
with hoar froſt.
RIMINALDI, Orazio, an eminent hiſtorical
painter, born at Piſa in 1598. His chief paintings
are Samſon deſtroying the Philiſtines, the Brazen
Serpent, and the Aſſumption of the Virgin. He
died in 1638.
(1.) RIMINI, an ancient populous, and hand-
ſome town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of
the Rubicon, diſtrict of Rimini, and ci-devant prov.
of Romagna; with an old caſtle, and a ſtrong
tower; alſo many remains of antiquity, and very
fine buildings. It is famous for a council in 1359,
conſiſting of 400 biſhops, who were all Arians ex-
cept 20. It is ſeated in a fertile plain, at the
mouth of the Marecchia, on the gulph of Ve-
nice. Lon. 12. 39. E. Lat. 44. 6. N.
(2.) RIMINI, a diſtrict of the Italian republic, in
the department of the Rubicon, containing
62,736 citizens in 1801. See ITALIAN REPUBLIC,
§ 6. Rimini is the capital.
RIMMORTZHEYD, a town of Sileſia, in the
county of Nieſſe: 4 miles ESE. of Nieſſe.
RIMONCIERO, a town of Naples, in the Ca-
pitanata; 7 miles NW. of Monte St Angelo.
RIMONT, a town of France, in the depart-
ment of the Arriege: 18 miles WNW. of Taraſ-
con, and 6 E. of St Girons.
* To RIMPLE. *v. a.* To pucker; to contract
into corrugations. See CRUMPLE and RUMPLE.
—The ſkin was tenſe, alſo *rimpled* and bliſtered.
Wiſeman.
* RIMY. *adj.* [from *rime*.] Steamy; foggy;
full of frozen miſt.—The air is now cold, hot,
dry or moiſt; and then thin, thick, foggy, *rimy*,
or poiſonous. *Harvey.*
(1.) * RIND. *n. ſ.* [*rind*, Saxon; *rinde*, Dutch.]
Bark; huſk.—
O ſpare with guilty hands to tear
My tender ſides in this rough *rind* embar'd.
Spenſer.
Within the infant *rind* of this ſmall flower
Poiſon hath reſidence. *Shak.*
—Theſe plants are neither red nor poliſhed, when
drawn out of the water, till their *rind* have been
taken off. *Boyle.*—
Others whoſe fruit, burniſh'd with golden *rind*,
Hung amiable. *Milton.*
Thou can'ſt not touch the freedom of this
mind
With all thy charms, although this corporal *rind*
Thou haſt immanacl'd. *Milton.*
On the ſmooth *rind* the paſſenger ſhall ſee
Thy name engrav'd, and worſhip Helen's tree.
Dryden.
(2.) RIND is the ſkin of any fruit that may be
cut off or pared. Rind is alſo uſed for the inner
bark of trees, or that whitiſh ſoft ſubſtance which
adheres immediately to the wood. See PLANT.
* To RIND. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To decor-
ticate; to bark; to huſk.

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RINDOMS, a town of Spain in Catalonia 11 miles NW. of Tarragona.

RINDSAKER, a town of Norway, 60 miles NNE. of Chriſtiania.

RINEKENBERG, a town of Germany, in Carinthia; 6 miles E. of Wolkenmarck.

(1.) * RING. *n. ſ.* [*bring*, Saxon.] 1. A circle; an orbicular line.—

In this habit
Met I my father with his bleeding *rings*. *Shak.*

—Bubbles of water, before they began to exhibit their colours to the naked eye, have appeared through a priſm girded about with many parallel and horizontal *rings*. *Newton.* 2. A circle of gold or ſome other matter worn as an ornament.

About a hoop of gold, a paltry *ring*. *Shak.*

—I have ſeen old Roman *rings* ſo very thick about, and with ſuch large ſtones in them, that 'tis no wonder a fop ſhould reckon them a little cumberſome in the ſummer. *Addiſon.* 3. A circle of metal to be held by.—

The *rings* of iron, that on the doors were hung,
Sent out a jarring ſound. *Dryden.*

—Some eagle got the *ring* of my box in his beak, with an intent to let it fall, and devour it. *Swift.* 4. A circular courſe.—

Place me, O place me in the duſty *ring*,
Where youthful charioteers contend for glory!
Smith.

5. A circle made by perſons ſtanding round.—

Make a *ring* about the corpſe of Cæſar,
And let me ſhew you him, that made the will.
Shak.

—The Italians, perceiving themſelves almoſt environed, caſt themſelves into a *ring*, and retired. *Hayward.*—

Round my arbour a new *ring* they made. *Dryd.*

6. A number of bells harmonically tuned.—

A ſquirrel ſpends his little rage,
In jumping round a rowling cage;
The cage as either ſide turn'd up,
Striking a *ring* of bells a-top. *Prior.*

7. The ſound of bells or any other ſonorous body.—Stop the holes of a hawk's bell, it will make no *ring*, but a flat noiſe or rattle. *Bacon.*—Hawks bells, that have holes, give a greater *ring*, than if the pellet did ſtrike upon braſs in the open air. *Bacon.*—

In vain with cymbals *ring*,
They call the griſly king. *Milton.*

8. A ſound of any kind.—The king, as he had been victorious in battle, and had prevailed with his parliament, and had the *ring* of acclamations freſh in his ears, thought the reſt of his reign ſhould be but play. *Bacon.*

(2.) RING, the epiſcopal ring (which makes a part of the pontifical apparatus, and is eſteemed a pledge of the ſpiritual marriage between the biſhop and his church) is of very ancient ſtanding. The (4th) council of Toledo, held in 633, appoints, that a biſhop condemned by one council, and found afterwards innocent by a 2d ſhall be reſtored, by giving him the ring, ſtaff, &c. From biſhops, the cuſtom of the ring has paſſed to cardinals, who are to pay a very great ſum *pro jure annuli cardinalitii*.

(3.) RING, in aſtronomy and navigation, an inſtrument uſed for taking the ſun's altitude, &c. It is uſually of braſs, about nine inches diameter, ſuſpended by a little ſwivel, at the diſtance of [illegible] from the point of which is a perforation, which is the centre of a quadrant of 90° divided in the inner concave ſurface. To uſe it, let it be held up by the ſwivel, and turned round to the ſun till his rays, falling through the hole, make a ſpot among the degrees, which marks the altitude required. This inſtrument is preferred before the aſtrolabe, becauſe the diviſions are here larger than on that inſtrument.

(1.) * *To* RING. *v. a.* pret. and part. paſſ. rung. [*bringan*, Saxon.] 1. To ſtrike bells or any other ſonorous body, ſo as to make it ſound.—

Ring the alarum bell.

2. [From *ring*.] To encircle,—

Talbot,
Who, *ring'd* about with bold adverſity.

3. To ſit with rings.—

I will kiſs thy deteſtable bones,
And put my eye-balls in thy vaulty brows,
And *ring* theſe fingers with thy houſhold worms.

4. To reſtrain a hog by a *ring* in his noſe.

(2.) * *To* RING. *v. n.* 1. To ſound as a bell or ſonorous metal.—

Ring out, ye cryſtal ſpheres,
And let your ſilver chime
Move in melodious time.

No funeral rites nor man in mournful weeds,
Nor mournful bell ſhall *ring* her burial.

—Eaſy it might be to *ring* other changes upon the ſame bells. *Norris.*—

His face was flatted, and his helmet *rung*.

2. To practiſe the art of muſick with bells.—Eight bells admit twenty-four changes in *ringing*.

3. To ſound; to reſound.—Hercules, miſſing his page, called him by his name aloud, that all the ſhore *rang* of it. *Bacon.*—The particular ring found in gold, diſtinct from the ſound of other bodies, has no particular name. *Locke.*—

With ſweeter notes each riſing temple *rung*;
A Raphael painted! and a Vida ſung!

4. To utter as a bell.—

The ſhard-born beetle, with his drowſy hums,
Hath *rung* night's yawning peal.

5. To tinkle.—

My ears ſtill *ring* with noiſe.

6. To be fill'd with a bruit or report.—That profane, atheiſtical, epicurean rabble, whom the whole nation ſo *rings* of, are not indeed the wiſeſt men in the world. *South.*

(1.) * RING-BONE. *n. ſ.* *Ring-bone* is a hard callous ſubſtance growing in the hollow circle of the little paſtern of a horſe, juſt above the coronet: it ſometimes goes quite round like a ring, and thence it is called the *ring-bone*. *Farrier's Dict.*

(2.) RING-BONE. See FARRIERY, *Part* IV. ch. VII.

(1.) * RINGDOVE. *n. ſ.* [*rhingelduyve*, Germ.] —Pigeons are of ſeveral ſorts, wild and tame; wood pigeons, dovecote pigeons, and *ringdoves*. *Mortimer.*

(2.) RING-DOVE, See COLUMBA.

RINGELSTORFF, a town of Imperial Auſtria, 4 miles ENE. of Zitterſdorff.

RINGENTHAL, a town of Upper Saxony, in the circle of Erzgeburg; 1 mile N. of Milweg.

* RING

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* RINGER. *n. f.* [from *ring*.] He who rings.
RINGERIKE, a town of Norway, 24 miles [illegible] of Chriſtiania.
RINGKIOBING, or RINGKOPING, } a town of Denmark, in N. Jutland on a large [illegible] of the North Sea, which is named from it. [illegible] inhabitants trade with Norway and Holland. [illegible] voyage to the latter is often performed in 30 [illegible]. Several traders who traffic with Viborg [illegible] other inland towns, have warehouſes. The [illegible] abounds with fiſh, oyſters, &c. The town [illegible] miles NW. of Ripen, and 43 SW. of Viborg. [illegible] 18. E. Lat. 56. 7. N.
* RINGLEADER. *n. f.* [*ring* and *leader*.] The [illegible] of a riotous body.—He cauſed to be exe- [illegible] ſome of the *ringleaders* of the Corniſh men. [illegible].—The nobility eſcaped; the poor people, [illegible] had been deluded by theſe *ringleaders*, were [illegible]ented. *Addiſon*.
RINGLEBEN, a town of Upper Saxony, in [illegible]ach: 6 miles N. of Erfurt, and 26 ENE. of [illegible]ach.
* RINGLET. *n. f.* [*ring*, with a diminutive [illegible]ination.] 1. A ſmall ring.—

Silver the lintals, deep projecting o'er;
And gold the *ringlets* that command the door.
Pope.

A circle.—

You demy puppets, that
By moon-ſhine do the green *ringlets* make,
Whereof the ewe not bites. *Shak*.
To dance our *ringlets* to the whiſtling wind.
Shak.

A curl.—

With *ringlets* quaint, and wanton windings wove. *Milton*.
Her golden treſſes in wanton *ringlets* wav'd,
As the vine curls her tendrils. *Milton*.
Theſe in two ſable *ringlets* taught to break,
Once gave new beauties to the ſnowy neck.
Pope.

RING-OUSEL, in ornithology, a ſpecies of TURDUS.
RINGSTED, a town of Denmark, in Zealand. [illegible] was anciently a large city, but has been greatly [illegible]ſtroyed by fires. The great church was built in [illegible]65. Waldemar I. and II. St Erick and ſeveral [illegible] kings of Denmark lie interred in it. It has [illegible] a court of judicature, to which appeals lie from [illegible] all Zealand. It is 29 miles SW. of Copenhagen, [illegible]. 11. 51. E. Lat. 55. 28. N.
* RINGSTREAKED. *adj.* [*ring* and *ſtreaked*.] Circularly ſtreaked.—He removed the he goats that were *ringſtreaked* and ſpotted. *Gen.* xxx. 35.
(1.) * RINGTAIL. *n. f.* [*ring* and *tail*.] A kind of kite with a whitiſh tail. *Bailey*.
(2.) RING-TAIL. See FALCO, N° 6.
(1.) RINGWOOD, a large town of England, in Hampſhire, on the Avon, with a market on Wedneſday and a conſiderable manufacture of knit worſted hoſe. Near it, the D. of Monmouth was taken after his defeat at Sedgmoor, in 1685. It is 14 miles NNE. of Pool, 30 SW. of Winchester, and 91 W. by S. of London. Lon. 1. 41. W. Lat. 50. 49. N.
(2.) RINGWOOD, a town of New Jerſey; 23 miles N. of Morriſtown.
* RINGWORM. *n. f.* [*ring* and *worm*.] A circular tetter.—It began with a ſerpigo, making many round ſpots, ſuch as is generally called *ringworms*. *Wiſeman*.
* *To* RINSE. *v. a.* [from *rein*, German, pure, clear.] 1. To waſh; to cleanſe by waſhing.—

This laſt coſtly treaty
Swallow'd ſo much treaſure, and like a glaſs
Did break i' th' *rinſing*. *Shak*.

—Whomſoever he toucheth, and hath not *rinſed* his hands in water, he ſhall be unclean. *Lev.* xv. 11.—To purge and *rinſe* the fountain thereof, our unclean and polluted hearts. *Perkins*. 2. To waſh the ſoap out of cloaths.—

They cannot boil, nor waſh, nor *rinſe*, they ſay,
With water ſometimes ink, and ſometimes whey. *King*.

* RINSER. *n. f.* [from *rinſe*.] One that waſhes or *rinſes*; a waſher.
RINTELN or RINTLEN, } a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Rauenburg, on the S. bank of the Weſer. The univerſity of Stadthagen was removed to this town in 1621. The profeſſors and people are Lutherans and Calviniſts. The Lutherans have the town church, and the Calviniſts and garriſon poſſeſs the univerſity church. It is 9 miles SSE. of Minden, and 35 SW. of Hanover. Lon. 9. 20. E. Lat 52. 14. N.
RINUCCINI, Octavius, a celebrated Italian compoſer, born at Florence. He was the inventor of the OPERA; and his verſes are compoſed with much elegance and exactneſs. He died in 1621.
RINVEEL POINT, a cape of Ireland, on the W. coaſt of Galway. Lon. 9. 58. W. Lat. 53. 36. N.
RINJUM, a town of Perſia, in the prov. of Segeſtan: 60 miles ENE. of Zareng.
RIO, a Spaniſh word ſignifying *river*, very unneceſſarily prefixed to the names of many rivers, and even with ſtill greater abſurdity to thoſe of ſome towns. Examples of both are ſubjoined.
1. RIO APOSTOLO, or RIO DOS APOSTOLOS, a river of N. America, which runs into the Gulf of California.
2. RIO BUENO, a river of Jamaica, which runs into the ſea on the N. coaſt; in Lon. 77. 19. W. Lat. 18. 30. N.
3. RIO COBRE, a river of Jamaica, which paſſes by Spaniſh Town, and runs into the ſea, 4 miles NW. of Kingſton.
4. RIO DEL CONCHES, a river of N. America, which runs into the Brava, near its mouth.
5. RIO DE LA HACHA, a river of Terra Firma, in the province of Venezuelo, which runs into the N. coaſt, near the town of Hacha.
6. RIO DE LA MADALENA, a river of S. America, in Terra Firma, which riſes almoſt under the equator; and, running N. through Terra Firma, falls into the Gulf of Mexico, between Carthagena and St Martha.
7. RIO GRANDE, a river of S. America, in Brazil, which riſes in an unknown country: it croſſes the captainſhip of Rio Grande, and falls into the ſea at Natal los Reyes.
8. RIO GRANDE, a river of Africa, which runs from E. to W. through Negroland, and falls into the

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the Atlantic Ocean, in Lat. 11° N. Some take it to be a branch of the Niger.

9. Rio Grande, a diſtrict or captainſhip of Brazil. *Tigranes* is the capital.

10. Rio Grande, a town of Brazil, in the province of Fernambuco; formerly the capital of the diſtrict.

11. Rio Grande, a river of Jamaica, which runs into the ſea on the N. coaſt. Lon. 76. 14. W. Lat. 18. 13. N.

12. Rio Janeiro, a province of Brazil. See Janeiro, N° 1.

13. Rio Janeiro, a river in the above province, to which it gives name. See Janeiro, N° 2. It falls into the Atlantic, in Lon. 42. 38. W. Lat. 22. 54. S.

14. Rio Janeiro, a city in the above province, and the capital of Brazil, ſeated on a plain near the coaſt, on the W. ſide of a bay, at the foot of ſeveral high mountains. The houſes are of ſtone, two ſtories high; with balconies and lattices before their windows, in the Portugueſe ſtyle. It is above 3 miles in circumference. The ſtreets are ſtraight and broad. It is ſupplied with water from the hills by an aqueduct. The churches are very elegant. Its population in whites, blacks, mulattoes, and creoles, is eſtimated at 666,000. It is ornamented with great numbers of trees, which are frequented by numerous flocks of birds, of the moſt beautiful plumage. Prickly pars, melons, oranges, pine apples, and other fruits abound.

15. Rio La Plata. See Plata.

16. Rio Real, a river of Brazil, which runs almoſt parallel with the St Francis; divides the captainſhip of Seregippe from that of Todos los Santos, and falls into the ocean, 123 miles N. of the bay ſo named.

(1.) RIOBAMBA, a province of Peru, in Quito, abounding in mines of gold and ſilver.

(2.) Riobamba, the capital of the above province; famous for its manufactures, in which it excells all the other towns of Peru.

RIOM, an ancient town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome, and ci-devant province of Auvergne; ſeated on a hill, in ſo agreeable a country, that it was called the *garden of Auvergne*. It is 8 miles N. of Clermont, and 115 S. of Paris. Lon. 3. 12. E. Lat. 45. 51. N.

RIONS, a town of France, in the department of the Gironde, and ci-devant province of Guienne: 8 miles from Bourdeaux.

(1.) * RIOT. *n. ſ.* [*riotte*, old Fr. *riotto*, Italian.] 1. Wild and looſe feſtivity.—

His headſtrong *riot* hath no curb. *Shak.*

So ſenſeleſs of expence,
That he will neither know how to maintain it,
Nor ceaſe his flow of *riot*. *Shak.*

All now was turn'd to jollity and game,
To luxury and *riot*, feaſt and dance. *Milton.*

2. A ſedition; an uproar.—

Transform'd to ſerpents all, as acceſſories
To his bold *riot*. *Milton.*

3. *To run* Riot. To move or act without controll or reſtraint.—One man's head *runs riot* upon hawks and dice. *L'Eſtrange.*—

You never can defend his breeding,
Who, in his ſatyre's *running riot*,
Could never leave the world in quiet. *Swift.*

(2.) Riot, in law. The riotous aſſembling of 12 perſons, or more, and not diſperſing upon proclamation, was firſt made high treaſon by ſtat. 3 & 4 Edw. VI. c. 5. when the king was a minor, and a change of religion to be effected: but this ſtatute was repealed by ſtatute 1 Mar. c. 1. among the other treaſons created ſince the 25 Edw. III. though the prohibition was in ſubſtance re-enacted, with an inferior degree of puniſhment, by ſtatute 1 Mar. ſt. 2. c. 12. which made the firſt offence a ſingle felony. Theſe ſtatutes ſpecified and particularized the nature of the riots that were meant to ſuppreſs; as, for example, ſuch as were ſet on foot with intention to offer violence to the privy council, or to change the laws of the kingdom, or for certain other ſpecific purpoſes: in which caſes, if the perſons were commanded by proclamation to diſperſe, and they did not, it was by the ſtatute of Mary made felony, not within the benefit of clergy; and alſo the actors demnified the peace officers and their aſſiſtants if they killed any of the mob in endeavouring to ſuppreſs ſuch riot. This act was made at firſt only for a year, and afterwards continued for Queen Mary's life. And, by ſtat. 1 Eliz. c. 16. when the reformation in religion was to be once more attempted, it was revived and continued during her life alſo; and then expired. From the accession of James I. to the death of Q. Anne, it was never once thought expedient to revive it; but, in the firſt year of George I. it was judged neceſſary, to ſupport the execution of the act of ſettlement, to renew it, and at one ſtroke to make it perpetual with large additions. For, whereas the former acts expreſsly defined and ſpecified what ſhould be accounted a riot, the ſtatute 1 Geo. I. c. 5. enacts, generally, that if any 12 perſons are unlawfully aſſembled to the diſturbance of the peace, and any one juſtice of the peace, ſheriff, under-ſheriff, or mayor of a town, ſhall think proper to command them by proclamation to diſperſe, if they contemn his orders and continue together for one hour afterwards, ſuch contempt ſhall be felony without benefit of clergy. And farther, if the reading of the proclamation be by force oppoſed, or the reader be in any manner wilfully hindered from the reading of it, ſuch oppoſers and hinderers are felons without benefit of clergy; and all perſons to whom ſuch proclamation *ought to have been made*, and knowing of ſuch hindrance, and not diſperſing, are felons without benefit of clergy. There is the like indemnifying clauſe, in caſe any of the mob be unfortunately killed in the endeavour to diſperſe them; copied from the act of queen Mary. And by a ſubſequent clauſe of the new act, if any perſon, ſo riotouſly aſſembled, begin even before proclamation to pull down any church, chapel, meeting houſe, dwelling houſe, or out houſes, they ſhall be felons without benefit of clergy. Riots, routs, and unlawful aſſemblies, muſt have three perſons at leaſt to conſtitute them. An *unlawful aſſembly* is, when three, or more, do aſſemble themſelves together to do an unlawful act, as to pull down inclоſures, to deſtroy a warren or the game therein; and

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and part without doing it, or making any motion towards it. A *rout* is where three or more meet to do an unlawful act upon a common quarrel, and forcibly breaking down fences upon a right claimed of common, or of way, and make some advances towards it. A *riot* is where three or more actually do an unlawful act of violence, either with or without a common cause or quarrel; as if they beat a man; or hunt and kill game in another's park, chase, warren, or liberty; or do any other unlawful act with force and violence; or even do a lawful act, as removing a nuisance, in a violent and tumultuous manner. The punishment of unlawful assemblies, if to the number of ten, may be capital, according to the circumstances that attend it; but, from the number of three to eleven, is by fine and imprisonment only. The same is the case in riots and routs by the common law; to which the pillory in very enormous cases has been sometimes superadded. And by the statute 13 Hen. IV. c. 7. any two justices, together with the sheriff or under sheriff of the county, may come with the *posse comitatus*, if need be, and suppress any such riot, assembly, or rout, arrest the rioters, and record upon the spot the manner and circumstances of the whole transaction; which record alone shall be a sufficient conviction of the offenders. In the interpretation of this statute it hath been holden, that all persons, noblemen and others, except women, clergymen, persons decrepit, and infants under 15, are bound to attend the justices in suppressing a riot upon pain of fine and imprisonment; and that any battery, wounding, or killing the rioters, that may happen in suppressing the riot, is justifiable.

To RIOT. *v. n.* [*riotter*, old Fr.] 1. To revel; to be dissipated in luxurious enjoyments.—Not in rioting and drunkenness. *Rom.* xiii. 13.—

Now he exacts of all, wastes in delight,
Riots in pleasure, and neglects the law. *Daniel.*

2. To luxuriate; to be tumultuous.—

My life a long dead calm of fix'd repose;
No pulse that *riots*. *Pope.*

3. To banquet luxuriously. 4. To raise a seditious uproar.

RIOTER. *n. f.* [from *riot*.] 1. One who is dissipated in luxury. 2. One who raises an uproar or sedition.

RIOTISE. *n. f.* [from *riot*.] Dissoluteness; luxury. Obsolete.—

His life he led in lawless *riotise*. *Spenser.*

RIOTOUS. *adj.* [*riotteux*, Fr. from *riot*.] 1. Luxurious; wanton; licentiously festive.—

In which was nothing *riotous* nor vain. *Spens.*

All our offices have been oppress't
With *riotous* feeders. *Shak.*

John came neither eating nor drinking, that is, from the diet of Jerusalem and other *riotous* cities, but fared coarsely. *Brown.*—

With them no *riotous* pomp nor Asian train,
To infect a navy with their gaudy fears. *Dryd.*

2. Seditious; turbulent.

RIOTOUSLY. *adv.* [from *riotous*.] 1. Luxuriously; with licentious luxury.—He that gaineth by defrauding his own soul, gathereth for others that shall spend his goods *riotously*. *Eccluf.* 2. Seditiously; turbulently.

* RIOTOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *riotous*.] The state of being riotous.

* To RIP. *v. a.* [*hrypan*, Saxon.] 1. To tear; to lacerate; to cut asunder by a continued act of the knife, or of other force.—

You bloody Neros, *ripping* up the womb
Of your dear mother England, blush for shame. *Shak.*

—Thou wilt dash their children, and *rip* up their women with child. 2 *Kings*, viii. 12.—

The beast prevents the blow,
And upward *rips* the groin of his audacious foe. *Dryden.*

2. To take away by laceration or cutting.—

Macduff was from his mother's womb
Untimely *ripp'd*. *Shak.*

—Esculapius, because *ripped* from his mother's womb, was feigned to be the son of Apollo. *Hayward.*—

Rip this heart of mine
Out of my breast. *Otway.*

He'll *rip* the fatal secret from her heart. *Granville.*

3. To disclose; to search out; to tear up; to bring to view.—Let it be lawful for me to *rip* up to the very bottom, how and by whom your discipline was planted. *Hooker.*—You *rip* up the original of Scotland. *Spenser.*—This *ripping* up of ancestors is very pleasing unto me. *Spenser.*—They *ripped* up all that had been done from the beginning of the rebellion. *Clarendon.*—A trial would *rip* up old sores. *Arbuthnot.*

RIPA, or RIPA TRANSONE, a small, but handsome and populous town of Italy, in the territory of the church, and marquisate of Ancona, with a bishop's see; 13 miles from the Adriatic, and 8 from Fermo. Lon. 13. 50. E. Lat. 42. 59. N.

* RIPE. *adj.* [*ripe*, Saxon; *rijp*, Dutch.] 1. Brought to perfection in growth; mature.—

Macbeth
Is *ripe* for shaking. *Shak.*

—Their fruit is improfitable, not *ripe* to eat. *Wisd.* iv. 5.—

So may'st thou live, till, like *ripe* fruit, thou drop
Into thy mother's lap. *Milton.*

2. Resembling the ripeness of fruit.—

Those happiest smiles,
That play'd on her *ripe* lip. *Shak.*

3. Complete; proper for use.—

I by letters shall direct your course,
When time is *ripe*. *Shak.*

4. Advanced to the perfection of any quality.—

There was a pretty redness in his lips,
A little *riper* and more lusty red
Than that mix'd in his cheeks. *Shak.*

O early *ripe!* to thy abundant store,
What could advancing age have added more? *Dryden.*

5. Finished; consummate.—Beasts are in sensible capacity as *ripe*, even as men themselves, perhaps more *ripe*. *Hooker.*—He was a scholar and a *ripe* and good one. *Shak.* 6. Brought to the point of taking effect; fully matured.—

He thence shall come,
When this world's dissolution shall be *ripe*. *Milton.*

—While things were just *ripe* for a war, the cantons,

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tons, their protectors, interposed as umpires in the quarrel. *Addison.* 7. Fully qualified by gradual improvement.—At thirteen years old he was *ripe* for the university. *Fell.*—

Ripe for heav'n, when fate Æneas calls.
Dryden.

(1.) * *To* RIPE, *v. a.* To mature; to make ripe.—

He is retir'd, to *ripe* his growing fortunes,
To Scotland. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* RIPE, *v. n.* [from the adj.] To ripen; to grow ripe; to be matured. *Ripen* is now used.—

From hour to hour we *ripe* and *ripe*. *Shak.*
Stay the very *riping* of the time. *Shak.*
Till us death lay
To *ripe* and mellow there, we're stubborn clay.
Donne.

* RIPELY. *adv.* [from *ripe.*] Maturely; at the fit time.—

It fits us therefore *ripely*. *Shak.*

RIPEN, in geography, a town of Denmark, in N. Jutland, and capital of a diocese of the same name, with a bishop's see, a good harbour, a castle, two colleges, and a public library. The tombs of several of the kings of Denmark are in the cathedral church, which is a very handsome structure. The harbour, which has contributed greatly to the prosperity of this place, is at a small distance, being seated at the mouth of the Nipsa, in a country which supplies the best beeves in Denmark. It is 45 miles NW. of Sleswick, and 45 S. by W. of Wiburg. The diocese is bounded on the N. by those of Wiburg and Athuys, on the S. by the duchy of Sleswick, and on the E. and W. by the sea. Lon. 8. 94. E. Lat. 55. 25. N.

(1.) * *To* RIPEN, *v. n.* [from *ripe.*] To grow ripe.—

When he thinks, good easy man, full surely
His greatness is a *ripening*, nips his root;
And then he falls as I do. *Shak.*

—Afore the soun grape is *ripening* in the flower. *Is.* xviii. 5.—The pricking of a fruit, before it *ripeneth*, ripens the fruit more suddenly. *Bacon.*—Trees, that *ripen* latest, blossom soonest; as peaches and cornelians; and it is a work of providence that they blossom so soon; for otherwise they could not have the sun long enough to *ripen*. *Bacon.*—

Melons on beds of ice are taught to bear,
And strangers to the sun, yet *ripen* here.
Granville.

(2.) * *To* RIPEN, *v. a.* To mature; to make ripe.—

That I'll prove on better men than Somerset,
Were growing time once *ripen'd* to my will.
Shak.

When to *ripen'd* manhood he shall grow,
The greedy sailor shall the seas forego. *Dryden.*
I left th' acknowledgment for time to *ripen*.
Dryden.

The genial sun
Has daily, since his course begun,
Ripen'd the Peruvian mine. *Addison.*
The rest succeeding times shall *ripen* into fate.
Pope.

Here elements have lost their uses;
Air *ripens* not, nor earth produces. *Swift.*

* RIPENESS. *n. s.* [from *ripe.*] 1. The state of being ripe; maturity.—They have compared it to the *ripeness* of fruits. *Wiseman.*—Little water is deposited in the abscess, before it arrives towards its *ripeness*. *Sharp.* 2. Full growth.—

Time, which made them their fame outlive
To Cowley scarce did *ripeness* give. *Denham.*

3. Perfection; completion.—They, which are either in years but young, or touching perfection of virtue as yet not grown to *ripeness*, might learn. *Hooker.*—

This royal infant promises
Upon this land a thousand thousand blessings
Which time shall bring to *ripeness*.
Inward *ripeness* doth much less appear. *Id.*

4. Fitness; qualification.—

Men must endure
Their going hence, ev'n as their coming hither:
Ripeness is all.

RIPENING OF GRAIN means its arrival at maturity. The following paper, from the transactions of the *Transf. of the Royal Society of Edin.* is worthy the attention of farmers, as it frequently happens, from continued rains, that the corn is quite green when the frost sets in; in consequence of which, the farmers cut it down, without thinking it can possibly arrive at further maturity. "Summer 1782 having been remarkably cold and unfavourable, the harvest was very late, and much of the grain, especially oats, was cut even in October. In the beginning of October the cold was so great, that, in one night, ice was produced on ponds near Kinneil, in the neighbourhood of Borrowstounness, ice three quarters of an inch thick. It was apprehended by many farmers, that such a degree of cold would effectually prevent the further filling or ripening of their corn. To ascertain this point, Dr Roebuck selected several stalks of oats, nearly equal fulness, and immediately cut down, which, on the most attentive comparison, appeared the best, and marked the others, but suffered them to remain in the field 14 days longer; at the end of which time they, too, were cut down, kept in a dry room for 10 days. The grain of each parcel were then weighed; when 11 grains which had been left standing in the field were found to be equal in weight to 30 grains which had been cut a fortnight before, though even the best of the grains were far from being ripe. During that fortnight (viz. from the 7th to Oct. 21st) the average heat, according to Fahrenheit's thermometer, which was observed every day at 8 o'clock A. M. and 6 P. M. was a little above 43. Dr Roebuck observes, that the ripening and filling of corn in so low a temperature should be the less surprising to us, when we reflect, that seed corn will vegetate in the same degree of heat; and he draws an important inference from his observations, viz. That farmers should be cautious of cutting down their wheat corn, on the supposition that in a cold autumn it could fill no more." Agricola, a writer in the Scots Magazine for June 1792, on this subject adds, "That grain cut down before it is quite ripe will grow or spring equally well as ripe, plump grain, provided it is properly preserved; and that he saw the experiment made.

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RIPHACES. See RIPHATH.

RIPHÆAN MOUNTAINS, a chain of high mountains in Ruſſia, on the NE. of the river Oby, but there are ſaid to be the fineſt fables of the whole empire. See URALIAN.

RIPHATÆI. See the next article.

RIPHAT, or RIPHATH, } the 2d ſon of Gomer, and grandſon of Japhet. (Gen. x. Riphat.) In moſt copies he is called *Diphath* in the Chronicles. (1 Chr. i. 6. דיפת *Diphat.*) The reſemblance of the two Hebrew letters ר *Reſh* and ד *Daleth* is ſo much, that they are very often confounded. But, to the credit of the tranſlators of our Engliſh verſion be it ſaid, that in this inſtance, as well as in many others, they have reſtored the original reading, and rendered it Riphath. The learned are not agreed about the country that was peopled by the deſcendants of Riphath. The Chaldee and Arabic take it for Europe; Euſebius for the country of the *Sauromatæ*; the Chronicon Alexandrinum for that of *Germania*; Joſephus for *Paphlagonia*. Meia ſays, that anciently the people of this province were called RIPHATÆI, or RIPHACES; that in Bithynia, bordering upon Paphlagonia, there is found the river *Rhebeus*, a people called *Rhebeni*, and a canton of the ſame name. Theſe names have prevailed with Bochart to believe, that Riphath peopled Paphlagonia. Others think he peopled the Montes Riphæi; and this opinion ſeems the moſt reaſonable, becauſe the other ſons of Gomer peopled the northern countries towards Aſia, and beyond the Euxine ſea.

RIPLEY, an Engliſh Alchemiſt of the 15th century. He publiſhed, 1. *A compend of Alchymy*, &c. and 2. *Aurum Potabile, or The Univerſal Medicine*. He died in 1490.

RIPLEY, in geography, a town of Yorkſhire in the W. Riding, with a market on Monday. It is ſeated on the Nyd; 23 miles WNW. of York, and 221 N. by W. of London. Lon. 1. 30. W. Lat. 54. 4. N.

RIPPER. *n. ſ.* [from *rip.*] One who rips; who tears; one who lacerates.

RIPPLE. *v. n.* To fret on the ſurface, as ſwiftly running.

RIPON, a pleaſant, well built, and populous city of Yorkſhire, in the W. Riding; famous for the manufactures of hardwares, particularly ſteel. It is an ancient town, and was famous for religious houſes. It has a church as magnificent as a cathedral, with 3 lofty ſpires. It ſends two members to the imperial parliament. It is ſeated on the Ure, or Yore; 28 miles NW. of York, and 218 NNW. of London. Lon. 1. 29. W. Lat. 54. 11. N.

RIPTON, a townſhip of Vermont, in Addiſon county.

RIPTOWEL. *n. ſ.* A gratuity, or reward given to ſervants, after they had reaped their lord's harveſt. *Bailey.*

RIQUIER, an ancient town of France, in the province of the Somme, and late bailiwick of Picardy, ſeated on the Cardon, 5 miles NE. of Abbeville, and 95 N. of Paris. Lon. 1. 59. E. Lat. 50. 10. N.

(1.) RISANO, a diſtrict of Maritime Auſtria, about 5, 7 miles ſquare. It contains a number of populous villages, particularly RISANO, (N° 2.) *Crivoſcio, Ledenizze*, and *Morigno*.

(2.) RISANO, a conſiderable and populous borough, in the above diſtrict, anciently called RHIZINIUM, by the Romans. It has a large market place called *Dabella*.

(3.) RISANO, a river of Maritime Auſtria, in Iſtria, near the CAPO, called alſo *Formiche*. On its banks there are above 20 corn mills and tobacco manufactories.

RISBOROUGH, a town of Buckinghamſhire, with a market on Saturday; 20 miles S. of Aileſbury, and 37 WNW. of London. Lon. 0. 42. W. Lat. 51. 40. N.

RISDON, Triſtram, an Engliſh antiquary, born near Great Torrington, in Devonſhire, about 1580. He was educated at Oxford; after which he retired to his family ſeat at Winſcot, where he collected and wrote *the Hiſtory and antiquities of Devonſhire*; of which many copies are extant. Mr Edmund Curll, the bookſeller, printed a mutilated edition of it in 1714, in 2 vols 8vo. Mr Riſdon died in 1640, aged 60.

* RISE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. The act of riſing, locally or figuratively. 2. The act of mounting from the ground.—In leaping with weights, the hands go backward before they take their *riſe*. *Bacon.* 3. Eruption; aſcent.—Upon the candle's going out, there is a ſudden *riſe* of water. *Bacon.*—

Sometimes mounts, but ſo as billows play;
Whoſe *riſe* not hinders, but makes ſhort our way. *Dryden.*

4. Place that favours the act of mounting aloft.—

Rais'd ſo high, from that convenient *riſe*
She took her flight, and quickly reach'd the ſkies. *Creech.*

—If the ground be but firm, whereon the batteries are erected, there is no farther inquiry of whom it is borrowed, ſo it affords but a fit *riſe* for the preſent purpoſe. *Locke.* 5. Elevated place.—

Such a *riſe*, as doth at once invite
A pleaſure, and a reverence. *Denham.*

6. Appearance as of the ſun in the Eaſt.—

The world to which you fly ſo faſt,
From us to them can pray your haſte
With no ſuch object, and ſalute your *riſe*
With no ſuch wonder, as De Mornay's eyes. *Waller.*

7. Encreaſe in any reſpect. 8. Encreaſe of price.—Upon a breach with Spain, muſt be conſidered the preſent ſtate of the king's treaſure, the *riſe* or fall that may happen in his conſtant revenue by a Spaniſh war. *Temple.*—The biſhops have had ſhare in the gradual *riſe* of lands. *Swift.* 9. Beginning; original.—It has its *riſe* from the lazy admonitions of thoſe who give rules, and propoſe examples, without joining practice with their inſtructions. *Locke.*—All wickedneſs taketh its *riſe* from the heart. *Nelſon.*—His reputation quickly peopled it, and gave *riſe* to the republick, which calls itſelf after his name. *Addiſon.* 10. Elevation; encreaſe of ſound.—In the ordinary *riſes* and falls of the voice, there fall out to be two beemolls between the uniform and the diapaſon. *Bacon.*

* *To* RISE. *v. n.* pret. *roſe*; part. *riſen*. *Cowley* has *ris*, for *roſe*; ſo has *Johnſon*. [*riſan*, Saxon; *reiſen*, Dutch.] 1. To change a jacent or recumbent

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cumbent, to an erect poſture.—I have ſeen her *riſe* from her bed. *Shak. Macbeth.*—The archbiſhop received him ſitting, for, ſaid he, I am too old to *riſe*. *Earl of Orrery.* 2. To get up from reſt.—Never a wife leads a better life than ſhe does; do what ſhe will; go to bed when ſhe liſt; *riſe* when ſhe liſt. *Shak.*—As wild aſſes in the deſert, go they forth to their work, *riſing* betimes for a prey. *Job*, xxiv. 5.—

To reſt ſecure, and not *riſe* up to grieve.
Daniel's Civ. War.

Thy manſion wants thee, Adam, *riſe*. *Milton.* 3. To get up from a fall.—

True in our fall
Falſe in our promis'd *riſing*. *Milt. Par. Loſt.*

4. To ſpring; to grow up.—

For one forbidden tree a multitude,
Now *ris'n* to work them farther woe. *Milton.*

5. To gain elevation of rank or fortune.—

Some *riſe* by ſin, and ſome by virtue fall. *Shak.*

—If they *riſe* not with their ſervice, they will make their ſervice fall with them. *Bacon.*—

To *riſe* i' th' world,
No wiſe man that's honeſt ſhould expect. *Otway.*

—Thoſe, that have been raiſed by ſome great miniſter, trample upon the ſteps by which they *riſe*, to rival him. *South.* 6. To ſwell.—If the bright ſpot ſtay in his place, it is a *riſing* of the burning *Lev.* xiii. 28. 7. To aſcend; to move upwards.—The ſap in old trees is not ſo frank as to *riſe* all to the boughs. *Bacon.*—If two plane poliſh'd plates of a poliſh'd looking-glaſs be laid together, ſo that their ſides be parallel, and at a very ſmall diſtance from one another, and then their lower edges be dipped into water, the water will *riſe* up between them. *Newton.* 8. To break out from below the horizon, as the ſun.—He maketh the ſun to *riſe* on the evil and the good. *Matt.* v.—He affirmeth, that Tunny is fat upon the *riſing* of the Pleiades. *Brown.*—

Whether the ſun
Riſe on the earth, or earth *riſe* on the ſun. *Milt.*

9. To take beginning; to come into exiſtence or notice.—

Only he ſpoke, and every thing that is,
Out of the fruitful womb of nothing *riſe*. *Cowley.*

10. To begin to act.—

High winds began to *riſe*. *Milton.*
With Vulcan's rage the *riſing* winds conſpire.
Dryden.

11. To appear in view.—The poet muſt lay out all his ſtrength, that every thing he deſcribes may immediately preſent itſelf, and *riſe* up to the reader's view. *Addiſon.* 12. To change a ſtation; to quit a ſiege.—He, *riſing* with ſmall honour from Gunza, and fearing the power of the chriſtians, was gone. *Knolles.* 13. To be excited; to be produced.—

Indeed you thank'd me; but a nobler gratitude
Roſe in her ſoul; for from that hour ſhe lov'd me. *Otway.*

—A thought *roſe* in me, which often perplexes men of contemplative natures. *Spectator.* 14. To break into military commotions; to make inſurrections.—

At our heels all hell ſhould *riſe*. *Milton.*
Numidia's ſpacious kingdom lies
Ready to *riſe* at its young prince's call. *Addiſon.*

No More ſhall nation againſt nation *riſe*. *P*
15. To be rouſed; to be excited to action.—W
will *riſe* up for me againſt evil-doers? *Pſ.* xci
Riſe up to the battle. *Jer.* 16. To make ho
attack.—If any man hate his neighbour, and
up againſt him, and ſmite him mortally, and
into one of theſe cities, the elders of his
ſhall fetch him thence. *Deut.* 17. To grow
or greater in any reſpect.—

A hideous gabble *riſes* loud
Among the builders.

—The great duke *riſes* on them in his dem
Addiſon on Italy. 18. To increaſe in price.—
lion is *riſen* to ſix ſh. and 5d. the ounce.
19. To be improved.—From ſuch an unta
couple, we can hope to have our family
its ancient ſplendour of face, air, counten
and ſhape. *Tatler.* 20. To elevate the ſtile.

Fall when he falls, and when he *riſes*,
Ro

21. To be revived from death.—After I a
again, I will go before you. *Mat.* xxvi.—

The ſtars of morn ſhall ſee him *riſe*.

22. To come by chance.—

There chanced to the prince's hand to
An ancient book.

23. To be elevated in ſituation.—

On a *riſing* ground the trunk he plac'd,
Which with the ſpoils of his dead foe he
D

—A houſe we ſaw upon a *riſing*. *Addiſon.*—
on banks or *riſing* grounds near rivers, will
exceedingly. *Mortimer.*

* RISEN. *part.* [from *riſe*.]

* RISER. *n. ſ.* [from *riſe*.] One that riſes

The iſle Ææa, where the palace ſtands
Of th' early *riſer*, with the roſy hands.

* RISIBILITY. *n. ſ.* [from *riſible*.] The
of laughing.—How comes lowneſs of ſtile to
much the property of ſatyr, that without
poet can be no more a ſatyriſt, than without
bility he can be a man. *Dryden.*—Whatever
philoſophers may talk of their *riſibility*, neig
a more noble expreſſion than laughing. *Ar*

(1.) * RISIBLE. *adj.* [*riſible*, Fr. *riſibile*
1. Having the faculty or power of laughing.
are in a merry world, laughing is our buſine
if, becauſe it has been made the definition
that he is *riſible*, his manhood conſiſted in no
elſe. *Gov. of the Tongue.* 2. Ridiculous; ca
laughter.

(2.) RISIBLE. Riſible objects are ſo com
and ſo well underſtood, that it is unneceſſa
conſume paper or time in deſcribing them.
merous examples may be found in works o
mour, but to quote them here would probab
attended with as little effect, as a ſtory, othe
riſible enough perhaps, which when formally
faced by the dull introduction of—"I will tel
a ſtory that will make you laugh," almoſt al
fails of its riſible effect. To excite riſibility,
reader, as well as the hearer, muſt be take
ſurpriſe. See LAUGHTER, § 1—7.

* RISK. *n. ſ.* [*riſque*, Fr. *riſg*, Span.] Haz
danger; chance of harm.—Some run the *riſk* o
abſolute ruin for the gaining of a preſent ſup
L'Eſtr.—An inſolent deſpiſer of diſcipline, ma
ted into contempt of all order by a long *riſk* o

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ence. *South.*—By allowing himſelf in what is innocent, he would run the *riſk* of being betrayed into what is not ſo. *Atterbury.*—An innocent man ought not to run an equal *riſk* with a guilty one. *Atterbury.*

* *To* RISE. *v. a.* [*riſquer*, French.] To hazard; to put to chance; to endanger.—

Who would hope new fame to riſe,
Or *riſk* his well eſtabliſhed praiſe? *Addiſon.*

* RISKER. *n. ſ.* [from *riſk*.] He who riſks.—

He thither came, t' obſerve and ſmoak
What courſes other *riſkers* took. *Butler.*

* RISS. The obſolete preterite of *riſe*.—

Riſs not the conſular men and left their places,
So ſoon as thou ſat'ſt down? *Ben Jonſon.*

(1.) RITBURG, a county of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, 15 miles long and 5 broad.

(2.) RITBURG, the capital of the above county; with a caſtle, ſeated on the Embs: 12 miles NW. of Paderborn. Lon. 8. 42. E. Lat. 51. 52. N.

(1.) * RITE. *n. ſ.* [*rit*, Fr. *ritus*, Lat.] Solemn act of religion; external obſervance.—The ceremonies, we have taken from ſuch as were before us, are the ancient *rites* and cuſtoms of the church. *Hooker.*—It is by God conſecrated into a ſacrament, a holy *rite*. *Hammond.*—

When the prince her fun'ral *rites* had paid,
He plow'd the Tyrrhene ſeas. *Dryden.*

(2.) RITE, among divines, denotes the particular manner of celebrating divine ſervice in a country.

RITORNELLO, *n. ſ.* or REPEAT, in muſic, the burden of a ſong, or the repetition of the firſt or other verſes of a ſong at the end of each couplet.

RITTENHOUSE, David, a late eminent philoſopher and mathematician, commonly ſtyled the *Newton of America*. He was the ſon of a farmer, born at *Norrington*, or NORRISTOWN, in Pennſylvania. His parents, not being able to give him education, farther than reading and writing, intended to breed him to farming; but David having made a wooden clock without inſtruction, he was put apprentice to a watch-maker, and his riſing genius encouraged. Aſtronomy next became the object of his inquiries; and by procuring a few books on the ſubject, he ſoon made great progreſs in that ſcience, and became an excellent practical aſtronomer. About this time he was ſtill farther aſſiſted in his ſtudies, by a new connection. The Rev. Mr Barton, a learned epiſcopal clergyman of Lancaſter county, having married his ſiſter, took him home to his own houſe for a conſiderable time, and inſtructed him not only in mathematics, but various other branches of literature. The firſt public diſplay he gave of his ingenuity was in 1768, when he completed his *New Orrery*, which met with univerſal ſatisfaction: and Mr Jefferſon, (now preſident of the United States,) ſaid on that occaſion, that "as an artiſt he had exhibited as great proofs of mechanic genius, as the world had ever produced." This New Orrery greatly increaſed his fame; and the truſtees of the college of Philadelphia conferred on him the honorary degree of M. A. Not long after this, he communicated by his friend, Dr Smith, to the American Philoſophical Society, a *Projection of the tranſit of Venus*, calculated from Halley's Tables; in conſequence whereof, he was appointed by them, with ſeveral other learned men, to make the neceſſary preparations for obſerving the tranſit at his houſe at Norriſtown. This tranſit happened on the 3d June, 1769, (ſee ASTRONOMY, *Index*;) when Mr Rittenhouſe not only gave ſatisfaction to the friends of ſcience in America, but alſo obtained the applauſe of the aſtronomers of Europe, who eſteemed his obſervation of this ſingular phænomenon (which occurs ſo very ſeldom, ſee ASTRONOMY, *Index*,) extremely accurate and ingenious. In the beginning of 1775, he delivered the *Annual Oration before the American Philoſophical Society*; which was afterwards publiſhed, with a dedication to the Delegates of the 13 United Colonies, then aſſembled in Congreſs; 'and at this early period, above a year before the declaration of independence,' (ſays his American biographer,) our aſtronomer made a diſplay of his whiggiſm in this addreſs, by aſſerting "that the future liberties, and conſequently the virtue, improvement in ſcience, and happineſs of America, were intruſted to this newly aggregated body." In this little work, our author gives a ſhort account of the riſe and progreſs of aſtronomy, takes notice of the moſt important diſcoveries made in the ſcience, and concludes with pointing out a few of its defects. His deſcription of the changes that will follow from the PRECESSION OF THE EQUINOXES, (ſee that article,) is equally elegant and intereſting.—"Whatever other purpoſes, (ſays he,) this great law may anſwer, it will produce an amazing change in the appearance of the heavens; and ſo contribute to that endleſs variety, which obtains throughout the works of nature. The ſeven ſtars, that now adorn our *winter* ſkies, will take their turn to ſhine in *ſummer*. SIRIUS, that now ſhines with unrivalled luſtre, among the gems of heaven, will ſink below our horizon, and riſe no more for many ages! ORION, too, will diſappear, and no longer afford our poſterity a glimpſe of glory beyond the ſkies! Glittering CAPELLA, that now paſſes to the N. of the Zenith, will nearly deſcribe the equator; and LYRA, one of the brighteſt in the heavens will become our *Polar Star*; while the preſent POLAR STAR, from its humble appearance, will paſs unheeded, and all its long continued ſervices ſhall be forgotten." The reputation of Mr Rittenhouſe now extended far and wide. He was appointed profeſſor of aſtronomy in the College of Philadelphia; and was treaſurer of the State of Pennſylvania for above 12 years, when he reſigned on account of bad health. On the whole, as a citizen, a philoſopher, and man of ſcience, America has not produced any one ſuperior to David Rittenhouſe. To the principles of liberty, he was invariably attached; his philanthropy was univerſal, and rendered him a friend to the whole human race, without diſtinction of country, colour, or complexion. In private life amiable and unaſſuming; in public a conſtant and firm aſſerter of the rights of man. He died in June, 1796.

RITTERHUSIUS, Conrad, a learned German civilian, born at Brunſwick in 1560. He was profeſſor of civil law at Altdorf, and publiſhed a variety of works, particularly as a civilian; together with an edition of Oppian in Greek and Latin: he was moreover an excellent critic; his notes upon many eminent authors having been inſerted in the beſt editions of them. He died in 1613.

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(3.) * RITUAL. *adj.* [*rituel*, Fr.] Solemnly ceremonious; done according to some religious institution.—

Instant I bade the priests prepare
The *ritual* sacrifice, and solemn pray'r, *Prior.*

—If to tradition were added, certain constant *ritual* and emblematical observances, the memory of the thing recorded would remain. *Forbes.*

(2.) * RITUAL. *n. s.* [from the adj.] A book in which the rites and observances of religion are set down.—An heathen *ritual* could not instruct a man better than these several pieces of antiquity. *Addis.*

(3.) RITUALS, PAGAN. The ancient heathens had also their rituals, which contained their rites and ceremonies to be observed in building a city, consecrating a temple or altar, in sacrificing, and deifying, in dividing the curiæ, tribes, centuries, and in general, in all their religious ceremonies. There are several passages in Cato's books, *De re Rustica*, which may give us some idea of the rituals of the ancients.

* RITUALIST. *n. s.* [from *ritual*.] One skilled in the ritual.

RIVA, a strong town of Germany, in Trent. It was taken by the French, in 1703, who soon abandoned it. It was again taken by the French republicans, 19th Aug. 1796. It is seated at the mouth of a rivulet, that runs into lake Garda, 17 miles SW. of Trent. Lon. 11. 7. W. Lat. 46. 4. N.

RIVADEC, a sea port town of Spain, in Galicia, 39 miles NW. of Oviedo. Lon. 6. 34. W. Lat. 43. 38. N.

* RIVAGE. *n. s.* [Fr.] A bank; a coast. Not in use.—

You stand upon the *rivage*. *Shak. Henry V.*

(1.) * RIVAL. *n. s.* [*rivalis*, Lat.] 1. One who is in pursuit of the same thing which another man pursues; a competitour.—

Oh love! thou sternly dost thy pow'r maintain,
And wilt not bear a *rival* in thy reign. *Dryden.*

2. A competitour in love.—She saw her father was grown her adverse party, and yet her fortune such as she must favour her *rival*. *Sidney.*

France and Burgundy,
Great *rivals* in your younger daughter's love.
Shak.

Your *rival*'s image in your worth I view;
And what I lov'd in him, esteem in you. *Granv.*

(2.) * RIVAL. *adj.* Standing in competition; making the same claim; emulous.—

Had I but the means
To hold a *rival* place with one of them,
I should be fortunate. *Shak. Merch. of Venice.*

Equal in years, and *rival* in renown. *Dryd.*

You bark to be employ'd,
While Venus is by *rival* dogs enjoyed. *Dryden.*

(3.) RIVAL is figuratively applied to an antagonist in any other pursuit, as well as love.

(1.) * *To* RIVAL. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To stand in competition with another; to oppose.—Those, that have been raised by the interest of some great minister, trample upon the steps by which they rise, to *rival* him in his greatness. *South.* 2. To emulate; to endeavour to equal or excel:—

To *rival* thunder in its rapid course,
And imitate inimitable force. *Dryden's Æn.*

O Thou, too great to *rival* or to praise. *Harte.*

(2.) * *To* RIVAL. *v. n.* To be competito
Out of use.—

We first address'd tow'rd you, who with
king
Have *rival'd* for our daughter. *Shak. K. L*

* RIVALITY. RIVALRY. *n. s.* [*rivalitas*, from *rival*.] Competition; emulation.—It is privilege of posterity to set matters right betw those antagonists, who, by their *rivalry* for gr ness, divided a whole age. *Addison.*

RIVALLO, a handsome town of Naples, mountain: 20 miles from Naples.

RIVALO, a rich town of the Italian repu in the dep. of the Upper Po; district and late ritory of Cremona.

* RIVALRY. See RIVALITY.

* RIVALSHIP. *n. s.* [from *rival*.] The sta character of a rival.

RIVANNA, a river of Virginia, formed veral streams that unite a few miles N. of lottesville; and thence passing through the mountains, falls into James river. It is navi in batteaux for 22 miles to the mountains.

(1.) * *To* RIVE. *v. a.* preter. *rived*, part. *ri* [*rift*, broken; *rijven*, Dutch; *river*, Fr. to di To split; to cleave; to divide by a blunt in ment; to force in disruption.—

So hugely struck, that it the steel did ri
And cleft his head. *Spe*

His deep wounded heart in two did *rive*.

Thro' *riven* clouds and molten firmame
The fierce three-forked engine making way.
Spe

I have seen tempests, when the scolding w
Have *riv'd* the knotty oaks.

As one he stood escap'd from cruel fight
Sore toil'd, his *riven* arms to havock hewn.

—The neighbouring forests, formerly shaken *riven* with the thunder-bolts of war. *Howel*

Had I not been blind, I might have seen
Yon *riven* oak, the fairest of the green. *Dr*

Let the fierce light'ning blast, the th
rive me.

(2.) * *To* RIVE. *v. n.* To be split; to be d by violence.—Freestone *rives*, splits, and in any direction. *Woodward.*

(3.) * *To* RIVE. for *derive* or *direct*. Not

Ten thousand French have ta'en the sacra
To *rive* their dangerous artillery
Upon no christian soul but English Talbot. *Sh*

* *To* RIVEL. *v. a.* [*gerifled*, Saxon, corrug rumpled.] To contract into wrinkles and corr tions.—

Then droop'd the fading flow'rs, their bea
fled,
And *rivel'd* up with heat, lay dying in their
Dry

Take in good part, from our poor poet's bo
Such *rivel'd* fruits as winter can afford. *D*

Alum stipticks, with contracting pow'r,
Shrink his thin essence like a *rivel'd* flow'r. *P*

* RIVEN. part. of *rive*.

(1.) * RIVER. *n. s.* [*riviere*, Fr. *rivus*, Lat.] land current of water bigger than a brook.—It a most beautiful country, being stored throug out with many goodly *rivers*, replenished with sorts of fish. *Spenser.*—The first of these *rivers* been celebrated by the Latin poet for the gent

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of its courſe, as the other for its rapidity.

RIVER is otherwiſe defined, a ſtream of freſh water flowing in a bed or channel, from its ſource to the ſea. See SPRING. The great as well as middle-ſized rivers proceed either from a concourſe of brooks and rivulets, or from lakes; but a river of conſiderable magnitude flows from a ſpring, or one lake, but is augmented by the confluxion of many. Thus, the Wolga receives above 200 rivers and brooks before it diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea; and the Danube receives fifty before it enters the Euxine ſea. Some rivers are much augmented by frequent rains, or melted ſnow. In the country of Peru and Chili; there are ſmall rivers that only flow in the day; becauſe they are only fed by the ſnow upon the mountains of the Andes, which is then melted by the heat of the ſun. There are alſo ſeveral rivers on both ſides the extreme parts of Africa, and Aſia, which for the ſame reaſon are greater by day than by night. The rivers alſo in theſe places are almoſt dried up in ſummer, but ſwell and overflow their banks in winter or in the wet ſeaſon. The Wolga in May and June is filled with water, and overflows its ſhelves and iſlands, though at other times of the year it is ſo ſhallow, as ſcarce to afford a paſſage for loaded ſhips. The Nile, Ganges, the Indus, &c. are ſo much ſwelled with rain or melted ſnow, that they overflow their banks; and theſe deluges happen at different times of the year, becauſe they proceed from various cauſes. Thoſe that are ſwelled with rain, are generally higheſt in winter, becauſe it is uſually more rainy at that than at other times of the year; but if they proceed from ſnow, which in ſome places is melted in the ſpring, in others in ſummer, or begins both, the deluges of the rivers happen accordingly. Some rivers hide themſelves under ground, and riſe up in other places, as if they were new rivers. Thus the Tigris meeting with mount Taurus runs under it, and flows out at the other ſide of the mountain; alſo, after it has run through the lake Toſpia, it again immerges, and, being carried about 18 miles under ground, breaks out again, &c.

RIVERS, DISAPPEARING OF. In a memoir of the academy of ſciences lately publiſhed, we have ſome curious obſervations and conjectures, concerning the diſappearing of rivers, by the abbé Guettard. "It is very ſurpriſing, (he obſerves,) that a river in its courſe, which is often very extenſive, ſhould not meet with ſpongious ſoils to ſwallow up its waters, or gulphs in which they may be loſt: nevertheleſs, as there has been hitherto known but a ſmall number of rivers whoſe waters have diſappear, this phenomenon has been accounted very extraordinary, both by the ancients and moderns. Pliny ſpeaks of it with an energy peculiar to him; and Seneca mentions it in his *Quæſtiones Naturales*: he even diſtinguiſhes theſe rivers into two ſorts; thoſe that are loſt by degrees, and thoſe which are ſwallowed up all at once, or gulphed. M. Guettard has undertaken to remove part of the obſcurity attending this ſubject, by deſcribing what he has obſerved in ſeveral rivers of Normandy, which are loſt and afterwards appear again; theſe are the Rille, the Ithon, the Aure, the Sap-Audré, and the Drôme. The three firſt diſappear gradually, and then come in ſight again; the 4th loſes itſelf entirely by degrees, but afterwards re-appears; the 5th loſes ſome of its water in its courſe, and ends by precipitating itſelf into a cavity, whence it is never ſeen to riſe again. What ſeems to occaſion the loſs of the Rille, the Ithon, and the Aure, is the nature of the ſoil through which they paſs. M. Guettard has obſerved, that it is in general porous, and compoſed of a thick ſand, the grains of which are not well compacted together; it ſinks ſuddenly down by its own weight in ſome places, and there forms great holes; and when the water overflows the meadows, it frequently makes many cavities in ſeveral parts of them. If we therefore ſuppoſe inequalities in the channels of theſe rivers, and that there are certain places in which the water ſtagnates longer than in others, it muſt there dilute the ground, if we may uſe that expreſſion; and having carried away the parts which united the grains of ſand together, thoſe grains will become afterwards no other than a kind of ſieve, through which the waters will filtrate themſelves, provided nevertheleſs that they find paſſage under ground, through which they may run. This conjecture appears to be ſo well founded, that each of theſe three rivers loſes itſelf nearly in the ſame manner, that is, through cavities which the people of the country call *betoirs*, and which ſwallow up more or leſs according to their largeneſs. M. Guettard, who has carefully examined them, remarks, that theſe betoirs are holes in the form of a tunnel, whoſe diameter and aperture is at leaſt two feet, and ſometimes exceeds 11; and whoſe depth varies in like manner from one and two feet to 5, 6, and even 20. The water generally gets into theſe cavities, when the river is not very high, making a guggling noiſe, and turning round in an eddy. A proof that waters are there filtered and abſorbed among the grains of the ſharp diluted ſand, is, that frequently in a betoir 2 or 3 feet deep, and through which a great deal of water is loſt, one cannot thruſt a ſtick further than the ſurface of its bottom. Wherefore, as theſe betoirs ſo frequently occur in the bed and banks of the Rille, the Ithon, and the Aure, it is not ſurpriſing that theſe rivers ſhould be thus loſt. The Rille during the ſummer ſeaſon loſes almoſt all its water in the ſpace of two ſhort leagues; the Ithon does very near the ſame. But M. Guettard obſerves ſomething curious concerning this river, to wit, that formerly it was not loſt, but kept its courſe without any interruption, as appears by the hiſtory of the country: very likely the mud, which had been collected together in ſeveral parts of its channel, might have occaſioned the waters remaining in others, and thereby cauſed many betoirs. This is the more probable, as the mud having been collected together in the bed of the river Aure, it appears that, in conſequence thereof, the cavities were greatly increaſed, which makes it loſe itſelf much ſooner than formerly; however, it has been reſolved to cleanſe its channel to remedy this inconvenience. Beſides, poſſibly an earthquake happening in the country might have cauſed ſeveral ſubterraneous canals through which the water of the Ithon has forced its way. In effect, it appears,

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appears, that a ſoil's being porous is not ſufficient to cauſe the loſs of a river; for if it were, then to do ſo it would occaſion many fens round about, nor would it renew its courſe after having diſappeared a certain time. M. Guettard ſuppoſes that there are, in theſe parts, ſubterraneous cavities through which the waters may flow; and in conſequence of this he reports a number of facts, all tending to prove that there muſt be hollow quarries ſerving for ſtrainers to theſe waters. He then enters into a diſcuſſion of this queſtion: Are there any ſubterraneous rivers, and is the preſumption of ſome perſons in favour of this particular well founded? He makes appear by ſeveral inſtances which he quotes, and by many reaſons which he urges, that there are at leaſt ſtrong preſumptions in favour of this opinion. A fact that is obſerved in the betoirs of the rivers, and particularly of the Rille, proves in ſome meaſure that there are conſiderable lakes of waters in the mountains which limit its courſe; this fact is, that in winter the greateſt part of their betoirs become ſprings, which ſupply anew the river's channel with as much water as they had abſorbed from it during the ſummer. Now whence can that water come, unleſs from the reſervoirs or lakes that are incloſed in the mountains, which being lower than the river in ſummer, abſorb its water, and being higher in winter by occaſion of the rain they receive, ſend it back again in their turn? M. Guettard remarks, that this alternate effect of the betoirs ſwallowing up the water and reſtoring it again, cauſes perhaps an invincible obſtacle to the reſtraining of the water within the channel of the river. It has indeed been ſeveral times attempted to ſtop thoſe cavities; but the water returns with ſuch violence in winter, that it generally carries away the materials with which they were ſtopped. The SAP-ANDRE is loſt in part, like the Ithon and the Rille: but there is ſomething more remarkable in it than in theſe rivers; viz. that at the extremity of its courſe, where there is no perceptible cavity, it is ingulphed, without any fall: the water paſſes between the pebbles, and it is impoſſible to force a ſtick into that place any further than into the betoirs. What makes this river take that ſubterraneous direction, is an impediment which its ſtream meets with in that place: it is there ſtopped by a riſing ground 6 or 7 feet high, whoſe bottom it has very likely undermined, to gain a free paſſage, not having been able to make its way over it. At ſome diſtance it appears again; but in winter, as there is a greater quantity of water, it paſſes over that eminence, and keeps an uninterrupted courſe. The Drôme, after having loſt ſome of its water in its courſe, vaniſhes near the pit of Soucy; in that place it meets with a ſort of ſubterraneous cavity near 25 feet wide, and more than 15 deep, where the river is in a manner ſtopped, and into which it enters, though without any perceptible motion, and never appears again. M. Guettard obſerves, that in a part of Lorrain, which likewiſe is not very extenſive, 5 other rivers loſe themſelves in the ſame manner. M. Guettard finiſhes this memoir with ſome obſervations upon the Ierre. This river is loſt in the ſame manner as the Rille; and though it is very near Paris, this ſingularity is unknown to almoſt every body; were it not for the account of the Abbe le Bœuf, M. Guettard would have been ignorant of it. We may add to the phenomena, that we have in Surrey the river Mole which riſes in Dorking hundred, and, after a conſiderable courſe, paſſes by Witchill, near Dorking a little beyond which this river hides itſelf, or is ſwallowed up, in a cavern, at the foot of the hill whence Camden ſays it is called the *Swallow*. He alſo takes notice of its running under ground for about two miles and riſing again, and ſpreading itſelf into a wide ſtream. It is alſo affirmed that there are ſeveral of theſe dipping rivers in Wales and others in the ſouthern counties of England.

(4.) RIVER WATER is generally much finer and better accommodated to economical purpoſes than ſpring-water. For though rivers proceed originally from ſprings, yet, by their rapid motion and by being expoſed during a long courſe to the influence of the ſun and air, the earthy and metallic ſalts which they contain are decompoſed, the acid flies off, and the terreſtrial parts precipitate to the bottom. Rivers are alſo rendered water by the vaſt quantity of rain-water, which paſſing along the ſurface of the earth, is carried into their channels. But all rivers carry with them a great deal of mud and other impurities; and, when they flow near large and populous towns, they become impregnated with a multitude of heterogeneous ſubſtances, in which ſtate the water is certainly unfit for the purpoſes of life; yet, by remaining for ſome time at reſt, all the feculencies ſubſide, and the water becomes perfectly pure and potable.

* RIVER-DRAGON. *n. ſ.* A crocodile. A name given by *Milton* to the king of Egypt.—

Thus with ten wounds
The *river-dragon* tam'd at length, ſubmits
To let his ſojourners depart.

* RIVERET. *n. ſ.* [diminutive of *river*.] A ſmall ſtream; a rill.—

Bringing all their *riverets* in,
There ends; a new ſong to begin.
Calls down *riverets* from her ſpring,
Their queen upon her way to bring.

* RIVER-GOD. *n. ſ.* Tutelary deity of a river.

—His wig hung as ſtrait as the hair of a *river*-god riſing from the water. *Arbuthnot.*

RIVER-HEAD, a townſhip of New York, on Long Iſland, at the head of a river.

(1.) RIVER-HORSE. *n. ſ.* Hippopotamus.

Roſe,
As plants ambiguous between ſea and land,
The *river-horſe* and ſcaly crocodile.

(2.) RIVER-HORSE. See HIPPOPOTAMUS.

RIVERS, Earl. See WODEVILE.

RIVERSTOWN, two towns of Ireland: 1. in Cork, Munſter, near Glanmire: 2. in Galway, Connaught.

RIVESALTES, a town of France, in the department of the Eaſtern Pyrenees, and ci-devant province of Rouſſillon; ſeated on the Egly famous for excellent wine.

* RIVET. *n. ſ.* [*river*, Fr. to break the point of a thing; to drive.] A faſtening pin clenched at both ends,—

The armourers accompliſhing the knights
With buſy hammers cloſing *rivets* up,
Give dreadful note of preparation.

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Thy armour
I'll ſruſh, and unlock the *rivets* all,
But I'll be maſter of it. *Shak.*
Though Valeria's fair, and though ſhe loves me too,
Gainſt her my ſoul is arm'd on every part;
Yet there are ſecret *rivets* to my heart,
Where Berenice's charms have found the way,
Subtile as lightnings. *Dryden.*
So ſmooth and equal, that no ſight can find
The *rivet*, where the poliſh'd piece was join'd.
Dryden.
The *rivets* of thoſe wings inclos'd
Fit not each other. *Dryden.*
This inſtrument ſhould move eaſy upon the *rivet*. *Sharp.*

To RIVET. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To faſten with rivets.—
This man,
If all our fire were out, would fetch down new
Out of the hand of Jove; and *rivet* him
To Caucaſus, ſhould he but frown. *Ben Jonſon.*
To faſten ſtrongly; to be made immoveable.—
You were to blame to part with
A thing ſtuck on with oaths upon your finger,
And *rivetted* with faith unto your fleſh. *Shak.*
Why ſhould I write this down, that's *rivetted*
Screw'd to my mem'ry? *Shak.*
That one party thought to *rivet* to a ſettled
By the influence of the Scots, that the other
Of. *King Charles.*—
Her blows not ſhook but *rivetted* his throne,
Dryden.
Thus hath God not *rivetted* the notion of himſelf into our natures. *Till.*—If the eye ſees thoſe things *rivetted* which are looſe, where will you begin to rectify the miſtake? *Locke.*—Where we find words of a looſe and wandering ſignification, there follows miſtake and error, which thoſe maxims made by their authority confirm and *rivet*. *Locke.*
Rivet and nail me were I ſtand, ye pow'rs!
Congreve.
Rivet the painting ſavage to the ground.
Addiſon.
Similitude of nature and manners, in ſuch a degree as we are capable of, muſt tie the holy knot and *rivet* the friendſhip between us. *Atterbury.* 2. To drive or clench a rivet.—In *rivetting*, where you *rivet* in ſhould ſtand upright to the blow you *rivet* it upon; for if it do not ſtand upright, you will be forced to ſet it upright, after it is *rivetted*. *Moxon.*

RIVIERE, GRANDE, a river of Lower Canada, which runs into the Atlantic, thro' the N. ſhore of Chaleur Bay: 18 miles WNW. of Cape Deſpair. It has a good cod fiſhery.

RIVINA, in botany, *American Nightſhade*; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the octandria claſs of plants.—The perianth is four-leaved, coloured, and permanent, the leaflet oblong-egged and obtuſe; there is no corolla, unleſs the calyx be conſidered as ſuch. There are 7 or 8 filaments, ſhorter than the calyx, approaching by pairs, permanent; the antheræ are ſmall. The germ is large and roundiſh; the ſtyle very ſhort; the ſtigma ſimple and obtuſe. The berry is globular, fitting on the green reflected calyx, and crowned with an incurved point. There is one ſeed, lens form and rugged. This plant is called *Solanoides* by Tournefort, and PIERCEA by Müller. It grows naturally in moſt of the iſlands of the Weſt Indies. The juice of the berries of the plant will ſtain paper and linen of a bright red colour, and many experiments made with it to colour flowers have ſucceeded extremely well in the following manner: the juice of the berries was preſſed out, and mixed with common water, putting it into a phial, ſhaking it well together for ſome time, till the water was thoroughly tinged; then the flowers, which were white and juſt fully blown, were cut off, and their ſtalks placed into the phial; and in one night the flowers have been finely variegated with red; the flowers on which the experiments were made were the tuberoſe, and the double white narciſſus.

(1.) RIVOLI, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Po, and ci-devant province of Piedmont, with a magnificent caſtle: 9 miles W. of Turin. Near this town, the French under Bonaparte defeated the Auſtrians, on the 14th and 15th Jan. 1796, and took 13,000 priſoners. But on the 31ſt March 1799, Rivoli was retaken by the Auſtrians under Gen. Kray. Lon. 7. 32. E. Lat. 45. 4. N.

(2.) RIVOLI, or RIVOLO, a town of the Italian republic, in the department of the Mincio, diſtrict and late duchy of Verona; ſeated on the E. bank of lake Garda, 20 miles NW. of Verona. Lon. 11. 1. E. Lat. 45. 34. N.

* RIVULET. *n. ſ.* [*rivulus*, Lat.] A ſmall river; a brook; a ſtreamlet.—
By fountain or by ſhady *rivulet*,
He ſought them. *Milton.*
—The veins, where innumerable little *rivulets* have their confluence into the common channel of the blood. *Bentley.*—I ſaw the *rivulet* of Salforata, formerly called Albula, and ſmelt the ſtench that ariſes from its water, which Martial mentions. *Addiſon.*

RIXAMARÆ, an ancient people of Illyricum. *Livy*, xlv. c. 26.

(1.) * RIXDOLLAR. *n. ſ.* A German coin, worth about four ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling. *Dict.*

(2.) RIXDOLLAR. See MONEY, § 9.

RIZZIO, David, an Italian muſician, who about 1563, attended the Piedmonteſe ambaſſador to Scotland, where, by his profeſſional ſkill, he got into favour with Queen Mary. She appointed him her French ſecretary, and ſhowed him ſuch marks of diſtinction, as gave offence to Lord Darnley, and other nobles, who, with great brutality, aſſaſſinated him in her preſence. See MARY, N° 45 and SCOTLAND.

ROA, a ſtrong town of Spain, in Old Caſtile; with a citadel: ſeated on the Douero, in a fertile country; abounding in corn and wine: 10 miles SW. of Aranda, and 70 N. of Madrid. Lon. 3. 33. W. Lat. 41. 35. N.

(1.) * ROACH. *n. ſ.* [from *rutilus*, Lat. redhaired.] A *roach* is a fiſh of no great reputation for his dainty taſte: his ſpawn is accounted much better than any other part of him, he is accounted the water ſheep, for his ſimplicity and fooliſhneſs; and it is noted, that *roaches* recover ſtrength, and grow in a fortnight after ſpawning. *Walton.*

If

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If a gudgeon meet a *roach*,
He dare not venture to approach. *Swift.*

(2.) ROACH, in ichthyology. See CYPRINUS.

(1.) * ROAD. *n. ſ.* [*rade*, Fr. *route*, French, *route* is *via trita*.] 1. Large way; path.—Would you not think him a madman, who, whilſt he might eaſily ride on the beaten *road* way, ſhould trouble himſelf with breaking up of gaps? *Sucklt.*

To God's eternal houſe direct the way,
A broad and ample *road*. *Milton.*

—The liberal man dwells always in the *road*. *Felt.*

—To be indifferent whether we embrace falſehood or truth, is the great *road* to error. *Locke.*

Could ſtupid atoms, with impetuous ſpeed,
By diff'rent *roads* and adverſe ways proceed,
That here them might rencounter, here unite.
Blackmore.

—There is but one *road* by which to climb up. *Addiſon.* 2. [*Rade*, Fr.] Ground where ſhips may anchor.—

I ſhould be ſtill
Peering in maps for ports and *roads*. *Shak.*

—About the iſland are many *roads*. *Sandys.* 3. Inroad; incurſion.—

The Volſcians ſtand
Ready, when time ſhall prompt them, to make *road*
Upon's again. *Shak.*

—Caſon was deſirous of the ſpoil, for he was, by the former *road* into that country, famous and rich. *Knolles.*—The king of Scotland, ſeeing none came in to Perkin, turned his enterprize into a *road*, and waſted Northumberland with fire and ſword. *Bacon.* 4. Journey. The word ſeems, in this ſenſe at leaſt, to be derived from *rode*, the preterite of *ride*: as we ſay, *a ſhort* ride; *an eaſy* ride.—

With eaſy *roads* he came to Leiceſter. *Shak.*
He from the Eaſt his flaming *road* begins.
Milton.

5. The act, or ſtate of travelling.—Some on the *road*, others at their own fire-ſides. *Law.*

(2.) ROAD, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) in navigation, a bay, or place of anchorage, at ſome diſtance from the ſhore, whither ſhips or veſſels occaſionally repair to receive intelligence, orders, or neceſſary ſupplies; or to wait for a fair wind, &c. The excellence of a road conſiſts chiefly in its being protected from the reigning winds and the ſwell of the ſea; in having a good anchoring-ground, and being at a competent diſtance from the ſhore. Thoſe which are not ſufficiently incloſed are termed *open roads*.

(3.) *A* ROAD (§ 1. *def.* 1.) is an open way, or public paſſage, forming a communication between one place and another: Of all the people in the world the Romans took the moſt pains in forming roads; and the labour and expences they were at in rendering them ſpacious, firm, ſtraight, and ſmooth, are incredible. They uſually ſtrengthened the ground by ramming it, laying it with flints, pebbles, or ſands, and ſometimes with a lining of maſonry, rubbiſh, bricks, &c. bound together with mortar. In ſome places in the ci-devant Lionnois, F. Meneſtrier obſerves, that he has found huge cluſters of flints cemented with lime, reaching 10 or 12 feet, deep, and making a maſs as hard and compact as marble; and which, after reſiſting the injuries of time for 1600 years, ſtill ſcarce penetrable by all the force of hammers, mattocks, &c. and yet the flints it conſiſts of are not bigger than eggs. The moſt noble of the Roman roads was the VIA APPIA, which was carried to ſuch a vaſt length, that Procopius reckons it five days journey to the end of it, as Lipſius computes it at 350 miles: It is 12 feet broad, and made of ſquare free-ſtone generally a foot and a half on each ſide; and though this has laſted for above 1800 years, yet in many places it is for ſeveral miles together as entire as when it was firſt made.

(4.) ROADS, ANCIENT. The ancient roads are diſtinguiſhed into military roads, ſubterraneous roads, &c. The military roads were grand roads formed by the Romans for marching their armies into the provinces of the empire; the principal of theſe Roman roads in England are Watling-ſtreet, Ikenild-ſtreet, Foſs-way, and Erminage-ſtreet. Double roads among the Romans, were roads for carriages, with two pavements, the one for thoſe going one way, and the other for thoſe returning the other: theſe were ſeparated from each other by a cauſeway raiſed in the middle, paved with bricks, for the conveniency of foot paſſengers; with borders and mounting ſtones from ſpace to ſpace, and military columns to mark the diſtance. Subterraneous roads are thoſe cut through a rock, and left vaulted; as that of Puzzuoli near Naples, which is near half a mile long, and is 15 feet broad and as many high.

(5.) ROADS, LAWS RESPECTING. The firſt law enacted reſpecting highways and roads in England was in 1285; when the lords of the ſoil were joined to enlarge thoſe *ways* where bothes, woods or ditches be, in order to prevent robbers. The next law was made by Edward III. in 1346, when a commiſſion was granted by the king to lay a toll on all ſorts of carriages paſſing from the hoſpital of St Giles in the fields to the bar of the Old Temple, and alſo through another highway called *Portpool* (now Gray's Inn Lane) joining the before named highway; which roads had become almoſt impaſſable. Little further relates to this ſubject occurs, till the reign of Henry VI. when the pariſhes were entruſted with the care of the roads, and ſurveyors were annually elected to take care of them. But the increaſe of luxury and commerce introduced ſuch a number of heavy carriages for the conveyance of goods, and lighter ones for the convenience and eaſe of travelling, that pariſh aid was found inſufficient to keep the beſt frequented roads in repair, and introduced toll-gates or turnpikes; that ſome thing might be paid towards their ſupport by every individual who enjoyed the benefit of the improvements, by paſſing over the roads.

(1.) * *To* ROAM. *v. n.* [*romigare*, Italian. ROOM.] To wander without any certain purpoſe; to ramble; to rove; to play the vagrant. It is imagined to come from the pretences of vagrants, who always ſaid they were going to Rome.

Five ſummers have I ſpent in fartheſt Greece
Roaming clean through the bounds of Aſia.
Sh.

Daphne *roaming* through a thorny wood.
Sh.

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The lonely fox *roams* far abroad. *Prior.*
A savage *roaming* through the woods, and wilds
In quest of prey. *Thomson.*

(1.) * *To* ROAM. *v. a.* To range; to wander over.—

Now fowls in their clay nests were couch'd, And now wild beasts came forth the woods to *roam.* *Milton.*

* ROAMER. *n. f.* [from *roam.*] A rover; a rambler; a wanderer; a vagrant.

(1.) * ROAN. *adj.* [*rouen*, Fr.] *Roan* horse is a horse of a bay, sorrel, or black colour, with grey or white spots interspersed very thick. *Farr.*

(2.) ROAN HORSE. When this party-coloured horse is accompanied with a black head and black extremities, he is called a *roan horse with a black-moor's head:* and if the same mixture is predominant upon a deep sorrel, he is called *claret-roan.*

(3.) ROAN, LOCH, or LOCH ROHN, a lake in Broadbrightshire, in the parish of Crossmichael, which covers above 40 acres. It is situated in the west part of the country, yet has no visible outlet for its water, nor any stream running into it. It is from 10 to 22 fathoms deep, and seldom freezes, even in the severest winters.

ROANNE, a populous and commercial town of France, in the department of the Rhone and Loire, and ci-devant province of Lyonnois. It is seated on the Loire, at the place where it begins to be navigable for barks. Hence the merchandise of Lyons, Marseilles, and the Levant, is conveyed down the Loire, and by the canal of Briare, into the Seine, and thence to Paris. It is 50 miles NE. of Clermont, and 210 S. of Paris. Lon. 4. 12. E. Lat. 46. 13. N.

(4.) ROANOAK, or ROANOKE, an island of North America, near the coast of Carolina. Here the English first attempted to settle in 1585, but were obliged to leave it for want of provisions. Lon. 75. 0. E. Lat. 35. 40. N.

(5.) ROANOKE, a river of N. America, which rises in Virginia, runs through N. Carolina, and at length falls into the sea, where it forms a long narrow island called *Albemarle Sound.*

(6.) ROANOKE INLET, an inlet on the coast of North Carolina, leading into Albemarle Sound. Lon. 76. 14. W. Lat. 35. 56. N.

(7.) ROANOKE ISLAND, an island on the S. side of Albemarle Sound, about 7 miles W. of the inlet.

(8.) ROANOKE RIVER, LITTLE, a river of the United States, which runs into the Staunton from the N. about 15 miles above its junction with the same.

* ROAR. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The cry of a lion or other beast.—

The wonted *roar* is up. *Thomson.*

An outcry of distress. 3. A clamour of merriment.—Where be your gibes now? your flashes of merriment, that were wont to set the table in a *roar? Shak.* 4. The sound of the wind or sea.—

The *roar*
Of loud Euroclydon. *Phillips.*

Any loud noise.—

Deep throated engines belch'd whose *roar*
Imbowel'd with outrageous noise the air. *Milt.*

I hear the far-off curfew sound,
Over some wide-water'd shore,
Swinging slow with sullen *roar.* *Milton.*

Our neighbour princes trembled at their *roar.* *Waller.*

The waters, list'ning to the trumpet's *roar,*
Obey the summons, and forsake the shore. *Dryden.*

* *To* ROAR *v. n.* [*rarar*, Saxon.] 1. To cry as a lion or other wild beast.—

Roaring bulls he would make him to tame. *Spenser.*

Warwick and Montague,
That in their chains fetter'd the kingly lion,
And made the forest tremble when they *roar'd.* *Shak.*

—The young lions *roared* upon him. *Jer.* ii. 15.—

The Libyan lions hear, and hearing *roar.* *Dryden.*

2. To cry in distress.—

At his nurse's tears
He whin'd and *roar'd* away your victory. *Shak.*

Sole on the barren sands the suff'ring chief
Roar'd out for anguish. *Dryden.*

3. To sound as the wind or sea.—

South, East, and West, with mix'd confusion *roar.* *Dryden.*

Loud as the wolves on Orca's stormy steep,
Howl to the *roaring* of the northern deep. *Pope.*

4. To make a loud noise.—

The brazen throat of war had ceas'd to *roar,* *Milton.*

How oft I crost'd where carts and coaches *roar'd.* *Gay.*

* ROARER. *n. f.* [from *roar.*] A noisy brutal man.—The English *roars* put down all. *Howel.*

* ROARY. *adj.* [better *rory; roreus*, Latin,] Dewy.—

On Lebanon his foot he set,
And shook his wings with *roary* May dews wet. *Fairfax.*

(1.) * ROAST. for *roasted.*—He lost his *roast* beef stomach, not being able to touch a sirloin. *Addison.*—

Roast beef and ale make Britons fight. *Prior.*

It warns the cook-maid, not to burn
The *roast* meat, which it cannot turn. *Swift.*

(2.) * ROAST, TO RULE THE. To govern; to manage; to preside. It was perhaps originally *roist,* which signified a tumult to direct the populace.—

Where champions *rule the roast,*
Their daily disorder is most. *Tusser.*

The new made duke, that *rules the roast.* *Shak.*

Alma slap-dash, is all again;
Runs here and there, like Hamlet's ghost,
While every where she *rules the roast.* *Prior.*

* *To* ROAST. *v. a.* [*rostir, rotir*, French; *rosten*, German; *geroſtod*, Saxon, roasted; from *rastrum*, Latin, a grate; to *roast,* being, in its original sense, to boil on a gridiron.] 1. To dress meat by turning it round before the fire.—He *roasteth* not that which he took in hunting. *Decay of Piety.*—*Roasting* and boiling are below the dignity of your office. *Swift.* 2. To impart dry heat to flesh.—

Air ripens not, nor earth produces;
Fire will not *roast,* nor water boil. *Swift.*

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3. To dreſs at the fire without water.—In eggs boiled and *roaſted*, there is ſcarce difference to be diſcerned. *Bacon.* 4. To heat violently.—

Roaſted in wrath and fire,
He thus o'erfized with coagulate gore,
Old Priam ſeeks. *Shak.*

ROASTING, *part. n.ſ.* in metallurgy, the diſſipation of the volatile parts of ores by heat. See METALLURGY, *Part* III. *Sect.* I.

(1.) * ROB. *n.ſ.* [I believe Arabick.] Inſpiſſated juices.—The infuſion, being evaporated to a thicker conſiſtence, paſſeth into a jelly, *rob*, extract, which contain all the virtues of the infuſion. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) ROB, in pharmacy, is the juice of fruits purified and inſpiſſated till it is of the conſiſtence of honey.

* *To* ROB. *v. a.* [*robber*, old French; *robare*, Italian.] To deprive of any thing by unlawful force, or by ſecret theft; to plunder. To be *robbed*, according to the preſent uſe of the word, is to be injured by theft ſecret or violent; to *rob*, is to take away by unlawful violence; and to *ſteal*, is to take away privately—

Is't not enough to break into my garden,
And, like a thief, to come to *rob* my grounds?
Shak.

—There was no preventing of God's juſtice from reaping that glory in our calamities, which we *robbed* him of in our proſperity. *King Charles.*—I have not here deſigned to *rob* him of any part of that commendation, which he has ſo juſtly acquired. *Dryden.*—

Bœotia, *robb'd* of ſilver Dirce, mourns.
Addiſon.

2. To ſet free; to deprive of ſomething bad. Ironical.—

Our houſe is hell, and thou, a merry devil,
Didſt *rob* it of ſome taſte of tediouſneſs. *Shak.*

3. To take away unlawfully.—Better be diſdain'd of all, than faſhion a carriage to *rob* love from any. *Shak.*—Procure, that the nouriſhment may not be *robbed* and drawn away. *Bacon.*—

Thus aſſuming all, he *robs* from you. *Dryd.*
Oh double ſacrilege on things divine,
To *rob* the relick, and deface the ſhrine! *Dryd.*

ROBBEN ISLAND, a barren ſandy iſland near the Cape of Good Hope; called alſo PENGUIN ISLAND, in ſome Engliſh charts. Lon. 18. 22. E. Lat. 33. 50. S.

* ROBBER. *n.ſ.* [from *rob.*] One that plunders by force, or ſteals by ſecret means; a plunderer; a thief.—

With *robbers* hands, my hoſpitable favour
You ſhould not ruffle thus. *Shak.*
Then, like a *robber*, ſtrip'd'ſt them of their robes. *Milton.*

—The *robber* muſt run, ride, and uſe all the deſperate ways to eſcape. *South.*—

A train of ills, a ghaſtly crew,
The *robber's* blazing track purſue. *Dryden.*

—Publick *robbers* are more criminal than petty and common thieves. *Davenant.*

(1.) * ROBBERY. *n.ſ.* [*roberie*, old Fr. from *rob.*] Theft perpetrated by force or with privacy.—

Thieves for their *robbery* have authority,
When judges ſteal themſelves. *Meaſ. for Meaſ.*
A ſtorm or *robbery*
Shook down by mellow hangings. *Sh*
—Some more effectual way might be found, ſuppreſſing common thefts and *robberies*. *Tem*

(2.) ROBBERY, the *rapina* of the civilians, is felonious and forcible taking from the perſon another, of goods or money to any value, by violence or putting him in fear. 1. There muſt be king, otherwiſe it is no robbery. A mere attempt to rob was indeed held to be felony ſo late Henry IVth's time; but afterwards it was to be only a miſdemeanour, and puniſhable fine and impriſonment; till the ſtatute 7 Geo. c. 21. which makes it a felony (tranſportable 7 years) unlawfully and maliciouſly to aſſault other, with any offenſive weapon or inſtrument or by menaces, or by other forcible or violent manner, to demand any money or goods; with felonious intent to rob. If the thief, having taken a purſe, returns it, ſtill it is a robbery; ſo it is whether the taking be ſtrictly from perſon of another, or in his preſence only; where a robber by menaces and violence, puts man in fear, and drives away his ſheep or cattle before his face. 2. It is immaterial of the value the thing taken is: a penny, as well as pound thus forcibly extorted, makes a robbery. 3. Laſtly, the taking muſt be by force, or a previous putting in fear; which makes the violence of the perſon more atrocious than privately ſtealing. This ſpecies of LARCENY is debarred of benefit of clergy by ſtatute 23 Hen. VIII. and other ſubſequent ſtatutes; not indeed in neral, but only when committed in a dwelling houſe, or in or near the king's highway. A bery, therefore, in a diſtant field, or footpath, not puniſhed with death; but was open to the nefit of clergy, till the ſtatute 3 and 4 W. & c. 9. which takes away clergy from both cipals and acceſſories before the fact, in bery, whereſoever committed. See LAW, III. *Chap.* III. *Sect.* IV. § 30.

* ROBE. *n.ſ.* [*robbe*, Fr. *robba*, Italian *ba*, low Lat.] A gown of ſtate; a dreſs nity.—

Through tatter'd cloaths ſmall vices pear;
Robes and furr'd gowns hide all.
My Nan ſhall be the queen of all fairies,
Finely attired in a *robe* of white.
The laſt good king, whom willing obeyed,
Was the poor offſpring of a captive maid;
Yet he thoſe *robes* of empire juſtly bore,
Which Romulus, our ſacred founder wore.
Dry

* *To* ROBE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To pompouſly; to invent.—To ſee an order of George only to *robe*, and feaſt, and per rites and obſervances. *Bacon.*—

The Chaldæans *rob'd* in white appear'd,
And Brachmans.
Robed in looſe array ſhe came to bathe.
Thom

* ROBERSMAN. ROBERTSMAN. *n.ſ.* In old ſtatutes, a ſort of bold ſtout robbers or thieves, ſaid to be ſo called from Robin Hood a famous robber.

(1.) ROBE

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(1.) ROBERT I. or ROBERT BRUCE, king of Scotland, in 1306; a renowned general, and the deliverer of his country from a ſtate of vaſſalage to the Engliſh. See SCOTLAND.

(2, 3.) ROBERT II. and III. See SCOTLAND.

(4.) ROBERT, king of France, ſurnamed the Wiſe and Pious, came to the crown in 996, after the death of Hugh Capet, his father. He married Berta his couſin, daughter of Conrad king of Burgundy; but the marriage was declared null by Gregory V.; and the king was excommunicated. He contracted a ſecond marriage with Conſtance, daughter of William count of Arles in Provence. Henry duke of Burgundy, brother of Hugh Capet, dying in 1002, without lawful iſſue, left his dukedom to his nephew king Robert, who inveſted his ſecond ſon Henry with the dukedom, who, afterwards coming to the throne, reſigned it in favour of Robert, the chief of the firſt royal branch of the dukes of Burgundy, who flouriſhed till 1361. King Robert was ſo much eſteemed for his wiſdom and prudence, that he was offered the empire and kingdom of Italy, which, however, he declined to accept. Hugh, called the *Great*, whom he had by Conſtance, being dead, he cauſed his ſecond ſon Henry I. to be crowned at Rheims. He died at Melun, July 20, 1031, at the age of 60. Robert was a wiſe and a juſt prince. He cultivated and patronized the ſciences. According to ſome authors, he inſtituted the order of the Holy Ghoſt commonly attributed to king John.

(5.) ROBERT I. Count of Artois, or ROBERT of FRANCE, 2d ſon of Lewis VIII. and brother to St Lewis, who erected in his favour Artois into a peerage in 1237. It was during this time that the difference between pope Gregory IX. and the emperor Frederic II. took place. Gregory offered to St Lewis the empire for Robert; but he refuſed it. Robert accompanied St Lewis into Egypt, and was killed at the battle of Maſſora, on the 9th Feb. 1250. He was an intrepid prince, but paſſionate, dogmatical, and quarrelſome.

(6.) ROBERT II. Count of Artois, ſon of the preceding, ſurnamed the Good and the Noble, was in the expedition into Africa in 1270. He drove the rebels from Navarre in 1276. He brought a powerful aſſiſtance to Charles I. king of Naples, of which kingdom he was regent during the captivity of Charles II. He defeated the Arragoneſe in Sicily in 1289, the Engliſh near Bayonne in 1296, and the Flemiſh at Furnes in 1298. But having in 1302 imprudently attempted to force the laſt, when encamped near Courtray, he received no leſs than 30 wounds; and in that expedition loſt his life. He was a brave, but paſſionate and fierce man, and good at nothing but fighting. Robert his daughter inherited the dukedom of Artois, and married Otho duke of Burgundy, by whom ſhe had two daughters, Jane wife of Philip the Long, and Blanche wife of Charles the Fair. In the mean time Philip, ſon of Robert II. had a ſon, viz.

(7.) ROBERT III. who diſputed the dukedom of Artois with Maud his aunt; but he loſt his ſuit by two ſentences given in againſt him in 1302 and 1318. He wiſhed to revive the proceſs in 1329, under Philip of Valois, by means of pretended new titles, which were found to be falſe. Robert was condemned the third time, and baniſhed the kingdom in 1331. Having found an aſylum with Edward III. king of England, he undertook to declare him king of France; which proved the cauſe of thoſe long and cruel wars which diſtreſſed that kingdom. Robert was wounded at the ſiege of Vannes in 1342, and died of his wounds in England. John, ſon to Robert, and Count of Eu, was taken priſoner at the battle of Poitiers in 1356, and terminated his career in 1387. His ſon Philip II. high conſtable of France, carried on war in Africa and Hungary, and died in 1397, being a priſoner of the Turks. He had a ſon named *Charles*, who died in 1472, leaving no iſſue.

(8.) ROBERT, K. of Naples, or ROBERT of ANJOU, ſurnamed the wiſe, 3d ſon of Charles the Lame, ſucceeded his father in 1309, by the protection of the pope, and the will of the people, to the excluſion of Charobert, ſon of his eldeſt brother. He aided the Pope againſt the emperor Henry VII. and, after the death of that prince, was nominated in 1313 vicar of the empire in Italy, in temporal matters, until a new emperor was elected. This title was given him by Clement V. in virtue of a right which he pretended to have to govern the empire during an interregnum. Robert reigned with glory 33 years, eight months, and died on the 19th of January 1343, aged 64. He was religious, affable, generous, kind, wiſe, prudent, and a zealous promoter of juſtice. He was called the *Solomon* of his age.

(9.) ROBERT I. ſurnamed *the Magnificent*, duke of Normandy, ſecond ſon of Richard II. in 1028, ſucceeded his brother Richard III. whom it is reported he poiſoned. He had early in his reign to ſuppreſs frequent rebellions of ſeveral of the great vaſſals. He re-eſtabliſhed in his eſtates Baldwin IV. count of Flanders, who had been unjuſtly ſtript of his poſſeſſions by his own ſon. He forced Canute, king of Denmark and England, to divide his poſſeſſions with his couſins Alfred and Edward. In 1035, he undertook barefooted a journey to the Holy Land; on his return from which he died, being poiſoned at Nice in Bithynia, leaving as his ſucceſſor William his natural ſon, afterwards king of England, whom he had cauſed before his departure to be publicly acknowledged in an aſſembly of the ſtates of Normandy.

(10.) ROBERT, or RUPERT, ſurnamed *the Short* and the *Mild*, elector Palatine, ſon of Robert the Niggardly, was born in 1352, and elected emperor of Germany in 1400, after the depoſition of the cruel Wenceſlaus. To gain the affection of the Germans, he wiſhed to reſtore Milan to the empire, which Wenceſlaus had taken from it; but his attempts in this reſpect were unſucceſsful. His attachment to the anti-pope Gregory XII. entirely alienated the affections of the German princes. To ſuch a degree were they incenſed againſt him, that they entered into a conſpiracy to cut him off; but his death, on the 18th of May 1410, in his 58th year, put a ſtop to their machinations. Robert began to ſettle the ſovereignty of the German princes. The emperors had formerly retained in their own hands the power of life and death, within the territories of many of the nobles; but he

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yielded them this right by his letters patent.—He was twice married.

(11.) ROBERT, or RUPERT, of Bavaria, prince palatine of the Rhine, and duke of Cumberland, the ſon of Frederic, elector palatine, by Elizabeth, daughter of James I. king of England, diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his valour as a general and admiral; firſt in the Dutch, and then in the Engliſh ſervice. He was unſucceſsful in the cauſe of his uncle Charles I. againſt the parliament's force; but under Charles II. he defeated the Dutch fleet, and was made lord high admiral of England in 1673. Pr. Rupert was the inventor of MEZZOTINTO, and otherwiſe celebrated; was a lover of the ſciences, and a ſkilful chemiſt. He died in 1683.

(12.) ROBERT, ſirnamed GUISCARD, K. of Naples. See NAPLES, § 9.

(13.) ROBERT BAY, a bay of Martinico, with an excellent natural harbour, able to contain the largeſt fleet, with ſuch convenience, that ſhips may ride near enough the ſhore, to reach it with a plank. It is 6 miles broad, and is formed by the Point of Galleons on the W. and Point Roſe on the E.

(14.) * ROBERT. *n. ſ.* [*geranium ruperti*, Lat.] An herb; ſtork-bill. *Ainſworth.*

(15.) ROBERT, HERB. See GERANIUM.

(16.) ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, the oldeſt of the Engliſh Poets. He flouriſhed in the reign of Henry II. Camden quotes many of his old Engliſh rhymes, and ſpeaks highly in his praiſe. He died in the beginning of K. John's reign, at an advanced age.

ROBERTELLS, Francis, a learned Italian, of the 16th century, who was ſucceſſively profeſſor of philoſophy and rhetoric, at Lucca, Piſa, Bologna and Padua. He wrote commentaries on ſeveral of the Greek and Latin poets; and ſeveral other works. He died in 1567.

ROBERTON, a pariſh of Scotland, in the W. extremities of the counties of Selkirk and Roxburgh, where they march with that of Dumfries. It is 13 miles long and 6 broad. The *Borthwick* and the *Ale* run through it from W. to E. The ſurface is hilly, but has no hills of any height. They afford good paſture, and ſome moſs. The population in 1793 was 621: decreaſe 22, ſince 1755. The number of ſheep was 18,000; horſes 127, and black cattle, 358. There are relics of ſome ancient camps, particularly one named Africa.

(1.) ROBERTOUN, a pariſh of Scotland, in Lanarkſhire, united to that of WISTOWN in 1792.

(2.) ROBERTOUN, a village in the above pariſh, on the W. bank of the Clyde; containing 30 families, with 160 inhabitants, in 1791.

* ROBERTSMAN. See ROBERSMAN.

(1.) ROBERTSON, George, an eminent landſcape painter, born in London. He travelled to Italy, under the patronage of Mr Beckford, to whom Dr Brydone's Letters are addreſſed. His ſtyle reſembles that of Salvator Roſa.

(2.) ROBERTSON, William, D. D. a learned divine born in Dublin, in 1705. He took the degree of M. A. at Glaſgow, whence he returned to Ireland; and entering into orders obtained ſeveral conſiderable livings. All theſe, however, he reſigned in 1764; and in 1766, publiſhed his Apology, with his reaſons for what he had done. He preſented a copy of his book to the Univerſity of Glaſgow; whoſe profeſſors, in return gave him the degree of D. D. The Company of Merchant Tailors, patrons of the grammar ſchool of Wolverhampton, preſented him with the maſterſhip of it; in which office he died, in 1783.

(3.) ROBERTSON, William, D. D. and F. R. S. a late celebrated hiſtorian and clergyman of the church of Scotland, born at Edin. in 1721. He was the ſon of the rev. Wm. Robertſon, miniſter of the Old Gray Friars Church, a deſcendant of the Robertſons of Gladney in Fifeſhire, a branch of the family of Struan, in Perthſhire, by Elen Pitcairn, daughter of David Pitcairn, Eſq. of Dunhorn. He was educated at the ſchool of Dalkeith, then in high reputation under Mr Fraſer; and afterwards at the univerſity of Edinburgh. In 1743, he was appointed miniſter of Gladſmuir. 1743, when the conſtitution in church and ſtate was thought to be in danger, he offered his ſervice as a volunteer. His parents dying about this time, leaving 6 daughters, and a younger ſon, a trick, afterwards a reſpectable Jeweller in Edinburgh, he took them all under his care, though his living did not then exceed L. 100 a-year, and maintained them till they were all ſettled in the world. Till this object was attained, he ever delayed the completion of an union, which had long been the object of his heart, viz. his marriage. 1751, with his couſin Mary Niſbet, daughter of the rev. Mr Niſbet, one of the miniſters of Edinburgh. About this period he began to attain eminence as an orator, and not long after became a leading member in the General Aſſembly. 1755, he preached a Sermon before the Society for Propagating Chriſtian Knowledge, the only work he ever publiſhed, on the ſtate of the World, previous to the appearance of Chriſt, which was much admired. In Feb. 1759, he publiſhed his celebrated *Hiſtory of Scotland*, in 4to, which was received with unbounded applauſe. While this work was in the preſs, he was tranſlated from Gladſmuir to Edinburgh. In 1759, he was appointed Chaplain of Stirling Caſtle; in 1761, one of his majeſty's chaplains; and in 1762, Principal of the Univerſity of Edinburgh. In 1764, the office of King's Hiſtoriographer for Scotland was revived in his favour with a ſalary of L. 200 a year. Some of his friends now adviſed him to turn to the Engliſh Church; but of this propoſal, (ſays his biographer, Profeſſor Dugald Stewart,) "his diſapprobation was expreſſed in thoſe decided terms, which became the conſiſtency and dignity of his character." About 1761 he began, and in 1769 publiſhed his celebrated *Hiſtory of Charles* V. in 4to. In 1775, he publiſhed his *Hiſtory of America*, for which excellent work, he received 4500 l. In 1780, after having, for near 30 years, acted the moſt conſpicuous part in the ſupreme eccleſiaſtical Court, he retired from the General Aſſembly. In 1790, he publiſhed his *Hiſtorical Diſquiſition concerning ancient India*. He died at Edinburgh June 11 1793. As an author his ſtyle has been univerſally admired. As a miniſter of the goſpel, he was a faithful paſtor, and juſtly merited the eſteem and veneration of his flock. In a word, he may be pronounced to be one of the moſt perfect characters of the age; and his name will be a laſting [illegible]

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...re to the island that gave him birth. His con...ation was cheerful, entertaining, and instruc...ve; his manners affable, pleasing, and endearing.

...ERT's Town, a town of Ireland, in Kildare ..., Leinster. It is the stage between Sallins ... Rathangan, on the Grand Canal; 21 miles ... Dublin.

ROBERVAL. See next article.

ROBERVALLIAN LINES, a name given to certain lines used for the transformation of figures; ...called from their inventor ROBERVAL, an eminent French mathematician, who died in 1675, ...76. These lines bound spaces that are infinitely extended in length, which are nevertheless ...to other spaces that are terminated on all ... The Abbe Gallois, in the *Memoirs of the ... Academy*, 1693, observes, that the method ...transforming figures, explained at the latter end ...Roberval's Treatise of Indivisibles, was the ... with that afterwards published by James ...ory, in his *Geometria Universalis*, and also ...rrow in his *Lectiones Geometricæ*; and that ...letter of Toricelli, it appears, that Roberval ...the inventor of this manner of transforming ..., by means of certain lines, which Torri... therefore called *Robervallian lines*. He adds, ...it is highly probable that J. Gregory first ...the method in the journey he made to Pa... 1660, the method itself having been known ...from the year 1646, though the book was ...published till the year 1692. This account ...ears, we think, completely refuted by David ...ory in his vindication of his uncle, published ... *Philos. Transf.* of 1694. The Abbe, how... rejoined in the Memoirs of the French Aca... of 1703; and it is but fair to observe, that ...Hutton, speaking of the controversy, expresses ...self as if he thought it undecided.

ROBESON, a county of N. Carolina, in Fay...ville district, bounded on the NW. and N. by ...mond; N. by Cumberland; E. and SE. by ...ur counties; and SW. by S. Carolina. It con...ed 4793 citizens, in 1795, and 533 slaves. ...erton is the capital.

ROBESPIERRE, Maximilian. See REVOLU..., § VI, 16—18.

ROBIGALIA, festivals held by the ancient Ro..., on the 25th of April; when incense was ...ered, along with the intrails of a sheep and a ... in honour of

ROBIGO, and } a Roman goddess and god,
ROBIGUS, } who joined in the preservation ...rom from *blight*.

ROBIL, a town of Germany, in Lower Saxony ...d duchy of Mecklenburg: seated on the Muretz.

(1.) * ROBIN. ROBIN-RED-BREAST. *n. s.* [*rubecula*, Lat.] A bird so named from his red breast; ...redbreast.—

Up a grove did spring, green as in May,
When April had been moist; upon whose bushes
The pretty *robins*, nightingales, and thrushes
Warbled their notes. *Suckling.*

The *robin-red breast*, till of late had rest,
And children sacred held a martin's nest. *Pope.*

(2.) ROBIN HOOD. See HOOD, N° 1.

(3.) ROBIN HOOD'S BAY, a bay of England, on the coast of the N. Riding of Yorkshire, between ...rborough, and Whitby, about one mile broad. It abounds with fish, and the coast swarms with shell fish, which afford employment to the inhabitants of a fishing village on the bay, who plentifully supply the city of York, and its neighbourhood with fish, crabs, lobsters, &c.

(4.) ROBIN HOOD'S BAY, a bay on the E. coast of Newfoundland, much frequented by small vessels; near Trinity harbour, and the Fox Islands.

(5.) ROBIN RED-BREAST. See N° 1; and MOTACILLA, N° 12.

ROBINIA, FALSE ACACIA, in botany, a genus of the decandria order, belonging to the diadelphia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 32d order, *Papilionaceæ*. The calyx is quadrifid; the legumen gibbous and elongated. There are 9 species. The most remarkable are,

1. ROBINIA CARAGNANA. The leaves are conjugated, and composed of a number of small folioles, of an oval figure, and ranged by pairs on one common stock. The flowers are leguminous, and are clustered on a filament. Every flower consists of a small bell-shaped petal, cut into 4 segments at the edge, the upper part being rather the widest. The keel is small, open, and rounded. The wings are large, oval, and a little raised. Within are 10 stamina united at the base, curved towards the top, and rounded at the summit. In the midst of a sheath, formed by the filaments of the stamina, the pistil is perceivable, consisting of an oval germen, terminated by a kind of button. This germen becomes afterwards an oblong flattish curved pod, containing 4 or 5 seeds, of a size and shape irregular and unequal; yet in both respects somewhat resembling a lentil. This tree grows naturally in the severe climates of Northern Asia, in a sandy soil mixed with black light earth. It is particularly found on the banks of great rivers, as the Oby, Jenisia, &c. It is very rarely met with in the inhabited parts of the country, because cattle are very fond of its leaves, and hogs of its roots; and it is so hardy, that the severest winters do not affect it. Gmelin found it in the neighbourhood of Tobolsk, buried under 15 feet of snow and ice, yet had it not suffered the least damage. Its culture consists in being planted or sowed in a lightish sandy soil, which must on no account have been lately manured. It thrives best near a river, or on the edge of a brook or spring; but presently dies if planted in a marshy spot, where the water stagnates. If it is planted on a rich soil, well tilled, it will grow to the height of 20 feet, and in a very few years will be as big as a common birch tree. In a very bad soil this tree degenerates, and becomes a mere shrub: the leaves grow hard, and their fine bright green colour is changed to a dull deep green. The Tonguſian Tartars, and the inhabitants of the northern parts of Siberia, are very fond of the fruit of this tree, it being almost the only sort of pulse they eat. M. Strahlemberg, author of an esteemed *description of Siberia*, assures us that this fruit is tolerably pleasant food, and very nourishing. These pease are first infused in boiling water, to take off a certain acrid taste they have, and are afterwards dressed like common pease or Windsor beans; and being ground into meal, pretty good cakes are made of them. The leaves and tender

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tender shoots of this tree make excellent fodder for several sorts of cattle. The roots, being sweet and succulent, are very well adapted to fattening hogs; and the fruit is greedily eaten by all sorts of poultry. After several experiments somewhat similar to the methods used with anil and indigo, a fine blue colour was procured from its leaves. The smaller kind of this tree seems still better adapted to answer this purpose. The striking elegance of its foliage joined to the pleasing yellow colour of its beautiful flowers, should, one would imagine, bring it into request for forming nosegays, or for speedily making an elegant hedge. Besides the qualities above recited, it grows exceedingly quick, and is easily transplanted. There are large plantations of it now in Sweden, Norway Lapland, and Iceland. Linnæus assures us, that, after the *Pinus fol. quinis*, erroneously called the *cedar tree of Siberia*, this tree, of all that are to be found in Siberia, is most worthy of cultivation.

2. ROBINIA FEROX is a beautiful hardy shrub, and, on account of its robust strong prickles, might be introduced into this country as a hedge plant, with much propriety. It resists the severest cold of St Petersburg, and perfects its seed in the garden of the emperor there. It rises to the height of 6 or 8 feet; does not send out suckers from the root, nor ramble so much as to be with difficulty kept within bounds. Its flowers are yellow, and the general colour of the plant a light pleasing green. A figure of it is given in the *Flora Rossica* by Dr Pallas, who found it in the southern districts, and sent the seeds to St Petersburg, where it has prospered in a situation where few plants can be made to live.

ROBINS, Benjamin, a most ingenious mathematician, born at Bath in 1707. His parents were Quakers, not in affluence, and therefore not able to give him a proper education. But his propensity to science procured him a recommendation to Dr Pemberton, at London, by whose aid, he not only acquired a high knowledge of mathematics, but even commenced teacher of the science. But he soon dropt this for more active employment. He tried many laborious experiments in projectiles, to ascertain the resistance of the air on swift projectiles, a principle, which he considered as too much overlooked by writers on Gunnery. He also studied the mechanic arts, as depending on mathematical principles; and applied his discoveries to the construction of mills, the building of bridges, the draining of fens, the rendering of rivers navigable, the building of harbours, and the erection of fortifications; in which last branch he improved his ideas in Flanders, in some tours which he made with persons of rank. On his return from one of these, he found the learned engaged with Dr Berkeley's *Analyst*, when an attempt was made to explode the method of Fluxions. Mr Robins was desired to clear up this affair, by giving a distinct account of Newton's doctrines, so as to obviate all objections. On this he published, in 1735, *A Discourse concerning the Nature and Certainty of Sir I. Newton's Method of Fluxions*. Some objections being made to his manner of defending Sir Isaac, he wrote 2 or 3 additional discourses In 1738, he defended Newton against an objection urged in a Latin p entitled *Matho, sive Cosmotheoria puerilis*; 1739, published *Remarks on Euler's Tra Motion*; *Dr Smith's System of Optics, and D rieu's Discourse of Vision*. (See OPTICS, In 1739, this universal genius published 3 mous political pamphlets, two of which, convention with Spain, were so much a to procure him a very honourable post committee being appointed to enquire into Walpole's conduct, Mr Robins was chose tary. In 1742, he published his celebrated tise, entitled *New Principles of Gunnery*, ing the result of many experiments: (See JECTILES.) A discourse being afterward lished in the *Philos. Trans.* to invalidate some opinions, he presented an account of his the Society wherein he took notice of tho riments; in consequence whereof, sever *Dissertations on the Resistance of Air*, and his experiments exhibited before the Society, for which they honoured him w gold medal. In 1748 appeared *Lord Voyage round the World*, which, though bears the name of Mr *Walter*, is ascribed Robins. Mr Walter, chaplain of the Co had brought it down to his departure from when he proposed to print it by subscripti it was first thought necessary to be review corrected by an able judge, and this task volved on Robins, who was authorised t the whole anew. Hence, the introductio the style, and many dissertations in the w the sole compositions of Mr Robins; Mr original MS. containing little more than the wind and weather, currents, cours ings, distances, qualities of the anchoring and the like particulars, that commonly sailor's account. No work of the kind with a more favourable reception; 4 l pressions were sold within a year, and it translated into most of the languages of Mr Robins was soon after desired to co apology for the defeat at Preston-pans; w prefixed to the report of the board of officers, on their examination into the co L. G. Sir J. Cope. This was esteemed a piece. He afterwards contributed to impr observatory at Greenwich. He was then the choice of two employments, either to Paris as a commissioner to adjust the li *Acadia*, or to be engineer general to the E. company. He preferred the latter, and arri the E. Indies in 1750, but fell a sacrifice climate in 1751; or as Dr Watkins has it, in

(1.) ROBINSON, Anastasia, an eminent sician and singer on the stage, afterwards co of Petersborough. She was the daughter portrait-painter, and was born in 1662. She figured at the concerts; afterwards at the op where her salary and emoluments amounted 2000 l. a-year. She died in 1750, aged 88. MUSIC, § 73.

(2.) ROBINSON, John, a celebrated divine of 16th and 17th centuries, who was much and j ly respected as the reformer of the independe See INDEPENDENTS, § 4.

(3.) ROBINSON, the most rev. Sir Richard, A

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…ough and Lord Rokeby, was descended …e Robinsons of Rokeby, in Yorkshire, and …1709. He was educated at Westminster, …thence to Christ-Church, Oxford, in 1726. …dburne, Abp. of York, made him his chap… …soon after rector of Elton in Yorkshire, …ubendary of Grindal. In 1751, he accom… …the D. of Dorset, lord lieutenant of Ireland, …kingdom, as his chaplain; and was soon …p. of Killala. In 1759, he was translated …lin and Fern; in 1761 to Kildare; and in …the D. of Northumberland being lord lieut. …promoted to be primate of all Ireland, …ranger, and vice-chancellor of the universi… …Dublin. In 1777, the king created him …Rokeby; in 1783, prelate to the order of …rick; and in 1785, one of the lords justices. …ther, Sir William, dying in 1785, he suc… …to the title of baronet. He was a very public …prelate; procured many favours, as well …of justice, to the inferior clergy; got ma… …ches repaired; and at his own expence …a most princely palace at Armagh, and an …library. In these works, he spent no less …sum. for the benefit of the public, and of …y. This excellent prelate died at Clifton, …istol, in Oct. 1794.

ROBINSON, Robert, a celebrated dissenting …er, born at Swaffham, in Norfolk, Oct. …. His father died in his infancy, and his …r maternal grandfather, Robert Wilkin, …n-hall, Esq. who had been displeased with …ther's marriage, cut him off with half a …from his maternal inheritance. His uncle, …, a rich farmer, took him home, and …him under the rev. Joseph Brett, at Scar… …school, in Norfolk, where lord chancellor …r was his school-fellow. He became a di… …of George Whitefield, in 1750, and com… …preacher in 1755, but left the Methodists …and settled at Norwich with a small con… …n of Independents. In 1759, he was in… …Cambridge, where he had so small a con…, and so poor a living, that he was ob… …ed as a barber. But in 1774, his congre… …had increased to 1000. His abilities then …practice, and he set up a Sunday evening …, which was well attended, as he preached …extempore, in an agreeable manner, without …m. He was even attended by the mem… …of the university. But at last his attention …turned by an accident to the doctrine of In… …ptism, finding as he thought, no authority …ipture for it, commenced baptist; and thus …ged his kind uncle, and hurt his wordly …more than all his former changes. At this …he had a wife and *ten* children. In 1764, …ever, his auditors were so numerous and libe… …that they built him a new and elegant meeting… …. He was also invited to lecture in the ad… …villages. He died 9th June, 1790, with the …ation of a man of abilities and integrity, but …imprudence. His abilities appear from his …erous works. *His plan of Lectures on the prin… …of Nonconformity*, is said to be very illiberal …acrimonious against the church of England. …chief work is his *History of Baptism, and of the …ists*; published since his death.

ROBOLSAY, a town of Dorsetshire, in Matthi… …wood valley.

(1.) ROBORANT, *adj.* [from *robur*, Lat. an oak.] Strengthening.

(2.) ROBORANTS, *n. s.* in pharmacy, medicines which strengthen the parts, and give new vigour to the constitution.

* ROBOREOUS. *adj.* [*robur*, Lat.] Made of oak. *Dict.*

ROBOROUGH, a small town of England, in Devonshire, E. of Torrington.

* ROBUST. } *adj.* [*robustus*, Lat. *robuste*, * ROBUSTIOUS. } Fr.] 1. Strong; sinewy; vigorous; forceful.—

These redundant locks,
Robustious to no purpose. *Milton.*

2. Boisterous; violent; unwieldy.—The men sympathize with the mastiffs, in *robustious* and rough coming on. *Shak.*—It offends me to hear a *robustious* periwig pated fellow tear a passion to tatters. *Shak.*—While I was managing this young *robustious* fellow, that old spark, who was nothing but skin and bone, slipt through my fingers. *Dryd.*

Romp-loving miss
Is haul'd about in gallantry *robust*. *Thomson.*

3. Requiring strength.—The tenderness of a sprain leaves a lasting caution in the man, not to put the part quickly again to any *robust* employment. *Locke.* 4. *Robustious* is now only used in low language, and in a sense of contempt.

* ROBUSTNESS. *n. s.* [from *robust*.] Strength; vigour.—Beef may confer a *robustness* on my son's limbs. *Arbuthnot and Pope.*

(1.) ROCA ISLANDS, a cluster of islands, lying off the N. coast of Venezuela, in Terra Firma: about 120 miles NW. by W. of Tortugas.

(2.) ROCA PARTIDO, an island in the N. Pacific Ocean; SE. of Mesa, and W. of Nublada. Lon. 128. 0. W. Lat. 16. 35. N.

(1.) * ROCAMBOLE. *n. s.* See GARLICK.—*Rocambole* is a sort of wild garlick, otherwise called Spanish garlick; the seed is about the bigness of ordinary peaſe. *Mortimer.*—Garlick, *rocambole*, and onions abound with a pungent volatile salt. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) ROCAMBOLE. See ALLIUM.

(1.) ROCCA D'ABBAZZE. See N° 3.

(2.) ROCCA D'ANFO, a strong town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Mella, district and late territory of Brescia: seated on the lake Idro, 25 miles SE. of Trent. Lon. 11. 40. E. Lat. 45. 50. N.

(3.) ROCCA D'ANNONE, and ROCCA D'ABBAZZE, 2 mountains of the French empire, with a fort on each, in the dep. of Marengo, and ci-devant duchy of Montferrat, on the road from Asti to Alexandria.

ROCH, a river of England, in Lancashire, which rises in the hills of Yorkshire.

ROCHCONNEL, a town of Ireland, in the county of West Meath, and province of Leinster; E. of Mullingar.

(1.) ROCHDALE, a town of England, in Lancashire, seated in a valley, on the Roch, at the foot of the Yorkshire hills; and has flourishing manufactures of serges, bays, and other woollen goods. The manufactories extend about 10 miles N. of the town: which is 55 WSW. of York, and

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195 NNW. of London. Lon. 2. 18. W. Lat. 53. 38. N.

(2.) ROCHDALE, a town of Ireland, in the county of Louth, and province of Leinſter.

(1.) ROCHE, an ancient town of the French empire, in the dep. of Forets, and ci-devant duchy of Luxemburg, in the foreſt of Ardennes; with a ſtrong caſtle, ſeated on a rock, near the Ourte; 22 miles S. of Liege, and 32 NW. of Luxemburg. Lon. 5. 40. E. Lat. 50. 15. N.

(2.) ROCHE, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Bern; memorable for having been the reſidence of the celebrated Haller. It is famous for its ſalt works, of which Haller was director, from 1758 to 1766.

(3.) * ROCHE-ALUM, *n. ſ.* [*roche*, Fr. a rock.] A purer kind of alum.—*Roche alum* is alſo good. *Mortimer.*

(4.) ROCHE BERNARD, a town of France, in the dep. of the Morbihan, and ci-devant province of Brittany, ſeated on the Vilaine; 25 miles E. of Vannes.

(5.) ROCHE, CAPE DE LA, a promontory of Hiſpaniola, on the N. ſide; 15 miles W. of Old Cape François.

(6.) ROCHE CHOUART, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Vienne, and ci-devant prov. of Limouſin; with a caſtle on the top of a mountain; near a rivulet that runs into the Vienne. It is 60 miles S. by E. of Poitiers, and 189 S. by W. of Paris. Lon. 0. 53. E. Lat. 45. 46. N.

(7.) ROCHE MACHERAN, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Forets, and ci-devant duchy of Luxemburg, with a ſtrong caſtle, 15 miles NE. of Luxemburg. Lon. 6. 25. E. Lat. 49. 46. N.

(8.) ROCHE POSAY, a town of France, in the dep. of Indre and Loire, and ci-devant province of Touraine: ſeated on the Creuſe, and famed for its mineral waters. Lon. 1. 2. E. Lat. 46. 45. N.

(9.) ROCHE SUR YONNE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Vendee, and ci-devant province of Poictou; ſeated near the Yonne, 20 miles NW. of Luçon, and 202 SW. of Paris. Lon. 1. 31. W. Lat. 46. 40. N.

ROCHEFORD, a town of England, in Eſſex; with a market on Thurſday; 16 miles SW. of Chelmsford, and 40 E. by N. of London. Lon. 0. 41. E. Lat. 51. 36. N.

(1.) ROCHEFORT, a handſome and conſiderable town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Charente, and late territory of Aunis. It was built by Lewis XIV. in the midſt of marſhes drained for that purpoſe; and as a port it ſoon became as important to France as Breſt or Toulon. It has a department of the marine, and large magazines of naval ſtores. It has alſo one of the fineſt halls of arms in the empire. There are alſo forges for anchors, and work-houſes for ſhip-carpenters. They likewiſe caſt great guns, and there are ſtocks for building men of war, rope-walks, magazines for proviſions of powder, a manufactory of ſail-cloth, an hoſpital for ſailors, and proper places to clean the ſhips. The town is ſeated on the Charente, about 15 miles from its mouth. The ſtreets are broad and ſtraight, but the buildings are moſtly low and irregular. Lon. 0. 54. W. Lat. 46. 3. N.

(2.) ROCHEFORT, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Forets, and late province of Luxemburg; with a caſtle built by the Romans, is ſurrounded by rocks, and is 15 miles SE. Dinant, and 50 NW. of Luxemburg. Lon. 5. E. Lat. 50. 12. N.

(1.) ROCHEFOUCAULT, Francis earl of deſcended of an illuſtrious family, was chamb to Charles VIII. and Lewis XII. He died in with the character of a worthy man and ex lent ſtateſman.

(2.) ROCHEFOUCAULT, Francis duke of, of Marſillac, governor of Poictou, was 1603.—He was the ſon of Francis, the firſt of Rochefoucault, and was diſtinguiſhed equ his courage and his wit. He wrote two works: the one a book of Maxims, and the Memoirs of the Regency of Queen Anne of tria. In the civil war he ſignalized himſelf battle of St Antoine. After the civil wa ended, he thought of nothing but enjoy pleaſures of friendſhip and literature. H became the rendezvous of every perſon of in Paris and Verſailles. He died at Paris aged 68, leaving an excellent character.

(3.) ROCHEFOUCAULT, a town of Fr the dep. of Charente, and late prov. of Ang with a caſtle; ſeated on the Tardouere, NE. of Angouleſme, and 208 S. by W. of

ROCHELLE, a celebrated city of Fr the dep. of Lower Charente, late capital ci-devant territory of Aunis, with a very c dious and ſafe harbour, which, though it admit veſſels of conſiderable burden, is well lated for trade. It has a baſon a quarter of in circumference, and 2 old towers. The ted mound erected by Richelieu extends fr to ſide acroſs the whole harbour, nearly liſh mile in length, and when the ſea retire viſible. Before the revolution, Rochelle biſhop's ſee, and contained a college, an a ſchool for medicine, anatomy, and bot a mint. It was only a little collection o on the ſhore, inhabited by fiſhermen, wh liam IX. laſt count of Poictou, beca ter of it in 1139. From this Prince it to his only daughter Eleanor, afterwar of Henry II. of England; and her charte porating the town is ſtill preſerved in the of the city. In 1540, Rochelle was the a ſylum of the Proteſtants; and the maſſacre ris was ſoon followed by the ſiege of Roc which began in Nov. 1572, and was raiſed in 1573; but in 1628, after a moſt obſtinate reſi and a ſiege of 13 months, it ſurrendered to XIII. At the beginning of the firſt ſiege, the ber of inhabitants amounted to 72,000; in th they diminiſhed to 28,000; and they were, Mr Wraxal was there, between 17 and 18,00 which ſcarce 2000 were Huguenots. The h are fine, and ſupported with piazzas; and ſtreets in general are as ſtraight as a line. are ſeveral handſome churches, and other tures, beſides a remarkable pump in the ſqua Dauphiny, which throws out the water thr ſeveral pipes. There are no remains of the old tifications, except on the ſide of the harbour, w there are bulwarks and ſtrong towers to de the entrance. The new fortifications are in manner of Vauban. Before Canada was ced Eng

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land, and New Orleans to Spain, the trade of which was very lucrative. It revived about 1660, and, beside that to the coast of Guinea and the East Indies, the inhabitants carried on a considerable trade in wines, brandy, salt, pepper, linen, cloth, and serge. It is seated on the ocean, 1. 11. W. Lat. 46. 10. N.

(2.) ROCHESTER, a city of England, in Kent, situated on the Medway, seven miles and a half above Maidstone, and 30 from London. It was a Roman station, and Roman coins have been found here. It has 3 parish churches built with stone besides the cathedral. This city, which became a bishop's see by king Ethelbert, in 604, abounds with many misfortunes. In 676, it was burnt by Eldred king of Mercia; in 8.9 and 885, plundered by the Danes, but rescued by king Alfred. About 100 years after, it was besieged by Ethelred, and forced to pay L. 100. In 999 it was taken and plundered by the Danes. In 1088 it was besieged and taken by William Rufus. In king John's time it was taken from the Barons, after a month's siege; and in 1256, its castle, built by William the Conqueror, was stormed and taken by the Barons, under the French king's son. In the reign of Henry III. it was besieged by Simon Montford, who burnt its then wooden bridge and tower, and spoiled the church and city. It has also been several times destroyed by fire, viz. in 1130, on June 3, in 1137 and in 1179; after which it continued desolate till 1225, when it was repaired, ditched, and walled round. In 1264, its old wooden bridge was carried off by the ice in a sudden thaw after a frost which had made the Medway passable on foot. Another was built in the reign of Richard II. but pulled down again, on the rumour of an invasion from France. It was afterwards restored, but so often subject to expensive repairs, by reason of the rapid course of the river by it, as well as the great breadth and depth of it, that in the reign of Edward III. it was ordered to build a new bridge of stone; which was begun, and completed, at the expence of Sir John Cobham and Sir Robert Knolles, Edward III.'s generals, out of the spoils they had taken in France. It has 21 arches. The town is governed by a mayor, recorder, 12 aldermen, 12 common-councilmen, a town-clerk, and inferior officers. To its cathedral belong a dean and six prebendaries. Gundulph's tower stands on the north side of the cathedral, supposed to have been built by the bishop, to keep the treasures and archives of that church and see in. Its loop-hole windows, and the thickness of its walls, show strength and defence were necessary. This tower is 60 feet high, but part has fallen down; the walls are six feet thick, and contain an area of 20 feet square: it was divided into five stories, and had a communication with the upper part of the church, by means of an arch, the steps of which are still visible. For the maintenance of its bridge, certain lands are allotted by parliament, to which it has sent members from the first. The town-house, built in 1687, for the courts, assizes, and sessions, and the charity-school, are two of the most public buildings here.—A mathematical school was founded here, and an alms-house for lodging six poor travellers every night, and allowing them 4 d. in the morning when they depart, except persons contagiously diseased, rogues, and proctors. In the summer here are always six or eight lodgers, who are admitted by tickets from the mayor. The Roman Watling-street runs through this town from Shooter's-Hill to Dover. The mayor and citizens hold an admiralty court once a-year for regulating the oyster-fishery in the creeks and branches of the Medway within their jurisdiction, and for prosecuting offenders. Every licensed dredger pays 6s. 8d. a-year to the support of the courts, and the fishery is now in a flourishing way. Part of the castle is kept in repair, and is used as a magazine, where a party of soldiers do constant duty. The bridge was repaired in 1744, and palisadoed with new iron rails. Rochester contains about 700 houses, and 2000 inhabitants. It consists of one principal street, which is wide, and paved with flints, and four narrow lanes. The houses are generally well built with brick, and inhabited by tradesmen and inkeepers. Stroud is at the W. end, and Chatham at the E. It is 27 miles NW. by W. of Canterbury, and 30 SE. by E. of London. Lon. 0. 36. E. Lat. 51. 23. N.

(2.) ROCHESTER, Earl of. See WILMOT.

(3.) ROCHESTER, a village, in Northumberland, on the Watling Street or Roman road, NW. of Otterbur, near the source of the Read. It has some Roman altars, inscriptions, and other relics of antiquity.

(4.) ROCHESTER, a township of Massachusetts, in Plymouth county, 53 miles S. of Boston: containing 2,644 citizens in 1795.

(5.) ROCHESTER, a township of New Hampshire, in Strafford county, on the W. bank of the N. branch of the Piscataqua, 24 miles NW. of Portsmouth. It contained 2,857 citizens in 1795.

(6.) ROCHESTER, a township of New York, in Ulster county, extending W. to the Delaware, and lying 12 miles SW. of Esopus. It contained 1628 inhabitants in 1795, of whom 228 were electors, and 281 slaves.

(7.) ROCHESTER, a township of Vermont, in Windsor county; containing 215 citizens in 1795.

ROCHESTOWN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Dublin, and province of Leinster.

* ROCHET. *n. s.* [*rochet*, Fr. *rochetum*, from *roccus*, low Lat. a coat.] 1. A surplice; the white upper garment of the priest officiating.—

What zealous phrenzy did the senate seize,
That tare the *rochet* to such rags as these?
Cleaveland.

2. [*Rubellio*, Lat.] A fish. *Ainsworth.*

ROCHILZ, an ancient town of Germany, in Saxony, in the territory of Leipsic; with a castle, copper mines, and a handsome bridge over the Muldaw.

(1.) * ROCK. *n. s.* [*roc*, *roche*, Fr. *rocca*, Ital.] 1. A vast mass of stone, fixed in the earth.—

The splitting *rocks* cow'r'd in the sinking sands.
Shakesp.

—There be *rock* herbs; but those are where there is some mould. *Bacon.*—All that came over was as limpid and colourless as *rock* water. *Boyle.*—These lesser *rocks*, or great bulky stones, are they not manifest fragments? *Burnet.*—Of amber a no-

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dule, inveſted with a coat, called *rock* amber. *Woodward.*—Pigeons or doves are of ſeveral ſorts; as wood pigeons and *rock* pigeons. *Mortimer.*—

Ye darkſome pines, that o'er yon *rocks* reclin'd,
Wave high, and murmur to the hollow wind.
Pope.

2. Protection; defence. A ſcriptural ſenſe.—The *rock* of Iſrael will be an everlaſting ſtay. *K. Charles.*

3. [*Rock*, Daniſh; *rocca*, Italian; *rucca*, Spaniſh; *ſpinroch*, Dutch.] A diſtaff held in the hand, from which the wool was ſpun by twirling a ball below.

A learned and a manly ſoul
I purpos'd her; that ſhould with even powers,
The *rock*, the ſpindle, and the ſheers, controul
Of deſtiny, and ſpin her own free hours. *B. Jon.*
On the *rock* a ſcanty meaſure place
Of vital flax, and turn the wheel apace. *Dryd.*
Flow from the *rock* my flax, and ſwiftly flow,
Purſue thy thread, the ſpindle runs below.
Parnel.

(2.) ROCK. See MOUNTAIN, PETRIFACTION, and STONE.

(3.) ROCK, in ornithology, a ſpecies of VULTURE.

(4.) ROCK BASONS are cavities or artificial baſons of different ſizes, from ſix feet to a few inches diameter, cut in the ſurface of the rocks for the purpoſe, as is ſuppoſed, of collecting the dew and rain pure as it deſcended from the heavens, for the uſe of ablutions and purifications, preſcribed in the druidical religion; theſe, eſpecially the dew, being deemed the pureſt of all fluids. There are two ſorts of theſe baſons, one with lips or communications between the different baſons, the other ſimple cavities. The lips as low as the bottom of the baſons, which are horizontal, and communicate with one ſomewhat lower, ſo contrived that the contents fell by a gradual deſcent through a ſucceſſion of baſons either to the ground, or into a veſſel ſet to receive it. The baſons without lips might be intended for reſervoirs to preſerve the rain or dew in its original purity without touching any other veſſel, and was perhaps uſed for the druid to drink, or waſh his hands, previous to officiating at any high ceremony, or elſe to mix with their miſſetoe. Some of theſe baſons are ſo formed as to receive the head and part of the human body; one of this kind is found on a rock called king Arthur's bed, in the pariſh of North Hall in Cornwall, where are alſo others, called by the country people Arthur's troughs, in which they ſay he uſed to feed his dogs.

(5.) ROCK CRYSTAL, in natural hiſtory, otherwiſe called *ſprig cryſtal*, a name given to the third order of cryſtals, from their being affixed to a rock or other ſolid body. See CRYSTAL, § 6, VI.: and MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *Claſs* I. *Ord.* I. *Gen.* II. *Sp.* 1.

(6.) * ROCK-DOE. *n. ſ.* A ſpecies of deer.—The *rock-doe* breeds chiefly upon the Alps: a creature of admirable ſwiftneſs; and may probably be that mentioned in the book of Job: her horns grow ſometimes ſo far backward, as to reach over her buttocks. *Grew.*

(7.) ROCK DOE. See CERVUS.

(8.) ROCK FISH. See GOBIUS.

(9.) ROCK OIL. See PETROLEUM.

(10.) * ROCK ROSE. *n. ſ.* [*rock* and *roſe*.] A plant.

(11.) ROCK ROSE. See CISTUS.

(12.) * ROCK-RUBY. *n. ſ.* A name given imperly by lapidaries and jewellers to the when it is of a very ſtrong, but not deep red, has a fair caſt of the blue. *Hill.*—*Rock-ruby* is deep red, and the hardeſt of all the kinds.

(13.) * ROCK-SALT. *n. ſ.* Mineral ſalt.—pieces of tranſparent *rock-ſalt*; one white, ther red. *Woodward.*

(14.) ROCK SALT. See SALT.

(1.) * *To* ROCK. *v. a.* [*roquer*, Fr.] 1. To to move backwards and forwards.—If, by a er *rocking* of the engine, the ſmoke were ſwiftly ſhaken, it would, like water, vibrate fro. *Boyle.*—

A riſing earthquake *rock'd* the ground.
—A living tortoiſe, being turned upon its could help itſelf only by its neck and h puſhing againſt the ground to *rock* itſelf cradle to find out the ſide towards which quality of the ground might more eaſily p roll its ſhell. *Ray.* 2. To move the cradle der to procure ſleep.—

Rock the ground whereon theſe ſleepe

Leaning her head upon my breaſt,
My panting heart *rock'd* her aſleep.
My bloody reſolutions
Were *rock'd* aſleep by reaſon.
He *rocks* the cradle of the babe of Spain.
High in his hall, *rock'd* in a chair of
The king with his tempeſtuous council ſate.

3. To lull; to quiet.—

Sleep *rock* thy brain,
And never come miſchance between us

(2.) * *To* ROCK. *v. n.* To be violently ed; to reel to and fro.—

The *rocking* town
Supplants their footſteps.
I like this *rocking* of the battlements.

ROCKAWAY, a poſt town of New Jer Morris county, on the S. bank of a river fo 15 miles N. by W. of Morriſtown, and 12 N. of Philadelphia.

ROCKBO, a large river of China, in the of Yun-nan; thence runs S. into the kingd Tonquin, and falls into the bay of Cochin-Ch

ROCKBRIDGE, a mountainous county of ginia; bounded on the N. by Auguſta, and S. the James, which ſeparates it from Botetourt co ty. It lies between the Allegany mountains the Blue Ridge; and is ſo named from a natu bridge over the CEDAR CREEK.

ROCKCORREY, a town of Ireland, in county of Monaghan, and province of Ulſter.

ROCKEMECKO, a townſhip of the Uni States, in Lincoln county, Maine.

* ROCKER. *n. ſ.* [from *rock*.] One who roc the cradle.—

His fellow, who the narrow bed had kept,
Was weary, and without a *rocker* ſlept.

(1.) * ROCKET. *n. ſ.* [*roccbetto*, Italian.] artificial firework, being a cylindrical caſe of p per filled with nitre, charcoal, and ſulphur, a which mounts in the air to a conſiderable heig

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there bursts.—Every *rocket* ended in a constellation, throwing the air with a shower of silver sparks. *Addison.*—

When bonefires blaze, your vagrant works shall rise
And *rockets*, till they reach the wond'ring skies. *Garth.*

* ROCKET, *n. f.* [*eruca.*] A plant. The wild plant hath a peculiar fetid smell. *Miller.*—It is one of the sallet furniture. *Mortimer.*

ROCKET. See PYROTECHNY.

ROCKET, in botany. See BRASSICA.

ROCKET, BASTARD. See RESEDA.

ROCKET, CORN. See BUNIAS.

ROCKET, MARSH. See SISYMBRIUM.

ROCKET, SEA. See BUNIAS.

ROCKET, VIOLET. See HESPERIS.

ROCKET, WATER. } See SISYMBRIUM.
ROCKET, WINTER. }

ROCKFIELD, a town of Ireland, in the county of Roscommon, and province of Connaught.

ROCKFISH, the NW. branch of James river, Virginia, which falls over a large precipice, consisting of fine marble variegated with red, blue and green.

ROCKFORD, a post town of N. Carolina, 573 miles from Philadelphia.

ROCKHILL, a town of Ireland, in the county of Cork, and province of Munster.

ROCKHILL, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of Bucks.

ROCKINGHAM, a town of England, in Northamptonshire, 87 miles from London, stands near the river Welland. It has a charity school, a market on Thursday, and a fair on Sept. 8, for 5 days. Its forest was reckoned one of the largest and best of the kingdom, in which William the Conqueror built a castle; it extended, in the time of the ancient Britons, almost from the Welland to Aldwin, and was noted formerly for iron mines and great quantities of flags, *i. e.* the refuse of the iron ore, being met with in the adjacent fields. It was disafforested, according to a survey in 1641, near 30 miles in length, from the W. end of Middleton Stoney to the town of Mansford, and 5 miles in breadth, from Brigstock to the Welland; but is now chambered into parcels, by the interposition of fields and towns, and is divided into 3 walks. In several of its woods a great quantity of charcoal is made of the tops of trees, of which many waggon loads are sent every year to Birmingham. Lon. 0. 48. W. Lat. 52. 32. N.

ROCKINGHAM, a county of New Hampshire, in the SE. part of the state; bounded on the E. by the Atlantic; Massachusetts on the S. Strafford on the W. and Strafford on the N. It is 30 miles long, and 30 broad, and contained 12 townships, 43,169 citizens, and 98 slaves, in 1795. Portsmouth, Exeter, and Concord, are the principal towns.

ROCKINGHAM, a county of N. Carolina, in Salisbury district, bounded on the E. by Caswell, S. by Guildford, N. by Virginia, and W. by Stokes. It contained 5087 citizens, and 11,000 slaves in 1795. The Dan runs through it, and it abounds with veins of copper ore.

ROCKINGHAM, a town of N. Carolina, capital of Richmond county, on a hill, 6 miles E. of the Great Pedee. It is 40 miles from Bethania, 74 from Hillsborough, and 536 from Philadelphia.

(5.) ROCKINGHAM, a mountainous county of Virginia; 40 miles long, and 25 broad. It is bounded on the N. by Shanandoah, NE. by Culpepper, SE. by Orange, S. by Augusta, and W. by Pendleton. It had 6677 citizens, and 772 slaves, in 1795.

(6.) ROCKINGHAM, the capital of the above county, (N° 5.) is seated on the Shanandoah.

(7.) ROCKINGHAM, a township of Vermont, in Windham county, on the W. bank of the Connecticut. It contained 1235 citizens in 1795.

ROCKINGHAMSHIRE, a spacious plain of Northamptonshire, which is a common to the four towns of Cottingham, Rockingham, Corby, and Gretton. King William Rufus called the council here of the great men of the kingdom. Lon. 0. 46. W. Lat. 52. 32. N.

ROCKING STONES. See STONES, ROCKING.

ROCKISAW, a town of Bohemia, in Pilsen.

* ROCKLESS. *adj.* [from *rock.*] Being without rocks.—

A cryſtal brook
Is weedleſs all above, and *rockleſs* all below.
Dryden.

ROCKOMBOLE. See ALLIUM.

ROCKONCAMA, a lake of New York, in the centre of Long Island, between Smith and Islip, which ebbs and flows within certain periods; rising gradually for several years to a certain height, and then falling more rapidly to its lowest bed.

* ROCKWORK. *n. f.* [*rock* and *work.*] Stones fixed in mortar, in imitation of the asperities of rocks. A natural wall of rock.—The garden is fenced on the lower end, by a natural mound of *rockwork. Addison.*

(1.) * ROCKY. *adj.* [from *rock.*] 1. Full of rocks.—Val de Compare presenteth her *rocky* mountains. *Sandys.*—

Make the bold prince
Through the cold North and *rocky* regions run.
Waller.
The vallies he reſtrains
With *rocky* mountains. *Dryden.*

—Nature lodges her treaſures in *rocky* ground. *Locke.* 2. Reſembling a rock.—

He oppos'd the *rocky* orb
Of tenfold adamant, his ample ſhield. *Milton.*

3. Hard; ſtony; obdurate.—

I, like a poor bark, of ſails and tackling reft,
Ruſh all to pieces on thy *rocky* boſom. *Shak.*

(2.) ROCKY, in geography, a river of N. Carolina, which riſes in Rowan county, and running to Hind's Creek, thence turns to the E. receives Coldwater river, and winding NE. falls into the Yadkin.

(3.) ROCKY MOUNT, or FRANKLIN COURT-HOUSE, a town of Virginia, 25 miles from Martinſburg, 40 from Liberty, and 133 from Philadelphia.

(4.) ROCKY POINT, a cape on the S. coaſt of Lake Erie; 80 miles from Sandusky Bay.

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(5.) ROCKY RIVER, a river in the North Western Territory, which runs into the Miſſiſippi on the E. ſide; 70 miles below the mouth of Mine River. A lead mine extends from the mouth of this river, on the banks, above 100 miles upwards.

ROCO GRANDE, an iſland on the coaſt of the Spaniſh Main, in the W. Indies. Lon. 67. 59. W. Lat. 11. 5. N.

ROCOUX, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Ourte, and ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands; near Liege. The French defeated the Auſtrians near it, in 1746.

ROCROY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ardennes, and ci-devant prov. of Champagne, on a plain ſurrounded by foreſts. It is famous for the victory gained by the celebrated Prince of Condé, then only D. of ENGHIEN, in his 22d year, over the Spaniards, in 1643. It is 6 miles from the Maeſe, and 16 N. of Rethel. Lon. 4. 27. E. Lat. 49. 56. N.

(1.) * ROD. *n. ſ.* [*roede*, Dutch.] 1. A long twig.—Some chuſe a hazel *rod* of the ſame year's ſhoot. *Boyle.* 2. A kind of ſcepter.—

Sh' had all the royal makings of a queen;
As holy oil, Edward Confeſſor's crown,
The *rod* and bird of peace. *Shak.*

The paſt'ral reed of Hermes, or his opiate *rod*. *Milton.*

O gentle ſleep, I cry'd,
Beaſts, birds, and cattle, feel thy balmy *rod*.
Harte.

3. Any thing long and ſlender.—

Let the fiſherman
Increaſe his tackle, and his *rod* retie. *Gay.*

Haſte, ye Cyclops, with your forked *rods*.
Granville.

4. An inſtrument for meaſuring.—Decempeda was a meaſuring *rod* for taking the dimenſions of buildings. *Arbuthnot.* 5. An inſtrument of correction, made of twigs tied together.—If he be found again ſo loitering, he may ſcourge him with whips or *rods*. *Spenſer.*—

I am whipt and ſcourg'd with *rods*. *Shak.*
—The *rod* of God hath a voice to be heard. *Hammond.*—Thy *rod*, as well as thy ſtaff, may comfort us. *K. Charles.*—

They trembling learn to throw the fatal dart,
And under *rods* of rough centurions ſmart.
Dryden.

—As ſoon as that ſentence is executed, theſe *rods* are thrown into the fire. *Atterbury.*—

A wit's a feather, and a chief a *rod*. *Pope.*

(2.) ROD, (§ 1. *def.* 4.) a land meaſure of 16 feet and a half; the ſame with perch and pole.

(3.) ROD, for fiſhing, a long taper rod or wand, to which the line is faſtened for angling. See FISHING-ROD.

(4.) ROD, BLACK. See USHER.

* RODE. pret. of *ride*.—

He in paternal glory *rode*. *Milton.*

RODERSTORFF, a town of the French empire, in Soleure. See MEZERLE.

RODESTO, RODOSTO, or RUDISTO, a town of European Turkey, in Romania, with a harbour and a Greek biſhop's ſee. It is a populous and commercial town, ſeated on the ſide of a hill, on the coaſt of the ſea of Marmora; 62 miles S. of Conſtantinople. Lon. 27. 37. E. Lat. 41. 1. N.

RODEZ. See RHODEZ.

(1.) RODING, a river of England, in E. which riſes near Canfield, and running thro' the RODINGS, (N° 2—9.) falls into the Thames below Barking.

(2—9.) RODING, the name of 8 pariſhes in Eſſex, derived from the above river, and diſtinguiſhed by the appellations of *Abbots*, *Berners*, *Beauchamp*, *Eythorp*, *High*, *Leaden*, *Margaret's*, and *White*. Hence this diſtrict is called the RODINGS, and is celebrated for excellent arable land.

(1.) RODNEY, George Bridges, Lord R. was born in 1718. His father was a naval officer commanding, at the time of his ſon's birth, the yacht in which the king, attended by the duke of Chandos, was paſſing to or from Hanover; afterwards obtained leave to call his ſon *George Bridges*. The royal and noble godfather advited Captain Rodney to educate his ſon for his own profeſſion, promiſing to promote him as rapidly as the merit he ſhould diſplay, and the regulations of the navy would permit. Of Lord Rodney's early exertions in the ſervice of his country, nothing, however, is known till 1747, when we find him, in the rank of a Commodore, ſent out to make accurate diſcoveries reſpecting an iſland, which was ſuppoſed to lie about 30 deg. Lat. and about 300 leagues W. of England. On he returned without having ſeen any ſuch iſland. In the war which ſoon followed this voyage of diſcovery, he was promoted to the rank of rear admiral, and was employed to bombard Havre de Grace; which in 1759 and 1760 he conſiderably damaged, together with ſome ſhipping. In 1761 he was ſent on an expedition againſt Martinico, which was reduced in the beginning of 1762. About the ſame time St Lucia ſurrendered to captain Harvey. Both were reſtored at the peace in 1763. In reward for his ſervices, he was made a K. B. but being inattentive to economy, his circumſtances became ſo embarraſſed, that he was obliged to fly from his country. He was in France when that court took a decided part with America againſt Great Britain; and ſome meaſures offered him a high command in the French navy, if he would carry arms againſt his own country. This offer he rejected with indignation. When the diviſions, which the mutual recriminations of Admiral Keppel and Sir Hugh Palliſer excited in the Britiſh navy, made it difficult for the miniſtry to procure experienced and popular commanders for their fleets, Lord Sandwich wrote to Sir G. B. Rodney, offering him a principal command; but the difficulty was how to find money to pay his account in France, ſo that he might be permitted to leave that kingdom. The money, it has been ſaid, was advanced to him by the courtiers who had offer he had before indignantly rejected. He arrived, therefore, in England, and was again employed. His firſt exploit was in January 1780, when he took 19 Spaniſh tranſports bound to Cadiz from Bilboa, with a 64 gun ſhip and five gates. On the 16th Jan. he fell in with the Spaniſh fleet, conſiſting of 11 ſail of the line, o

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Don John de Langara; of which one was blown up during the engagement, 5 were taken, and carried into Gibraltar, among which was the admiral's ship, and the reſt were much ſhattered. In April 1780, he fell in with the French fleet, under Adm Guichen, at Martinico, whom he obliged to fight, and completely beat; though from the ſhattered ſtate of his own fleet, and the unwillingneſs of the enemy to riſk another action, he took none of their ſhips. His ſucceſsful efforts during 1780 were generally applauded. He received the thanks of both Houſes of Parliament, and addreſſes of thanks from various parts of Great Britain, and the iſlands to which his victories were more particularly ſerviceable. In 1781, he continued his exertions, with much ſucceſs, in relieving the Weſt India iſlands; and, along with Gen. Vaughan, he conquered St Euſtatius; for which occaſion his conduct to the inhabitants has been much cenſured; but with what juſtice we will not decide. The iſland was certainly a nurſe of contraband traders. On the 12th April 1782, he came to a cloſe action with the French fleet under Count de Graſſe; during which he took one ſhip, and took five, of which the admiral's ſhip, the Ville de Paris, was one. Peace was made in 1782; but, as a reward for his numerous ſervices, he had a grant of 2000l. a-year for himſelf and his two ſucceſſors. He had long before been created a baronet, was rear admiral of Great Britain, and at length was juſtly promoted to the peerage, by the title of *Baron Rodney* of Stoke, in Berkſhire, and made vice-admiral of Great Britain. He was once alſo governor of Greenwich Hoſpital. Lord Rodney had been twice married; firſt to the ſiſter of the Earl of Northampton, and 2dly, to the daughter of John Cries, Eſq. with whom he did not reſide for ſeveral years before his death, which happened on the 24th May 1792. He was ſucceeded in title and eſtates by his ſon George. His attention to the wants of the ſeamen, and the warrant officers ſerving under him, indicated that humanity which is always allied to true courage. He often, from the table brought to his table, ſelected ſomething for plain for himſelf, and ſent the reſt to the meſs-mens meſs.—His public tranſactions will tranſmit his name with honour to poſterity; his bravery was unqueſtionable, and his ſucceſs has been ſeldom equalled. It has, indeed, been very generally ſaid, that he was indebted to the ſuperior abilities of Captain Young and Sir Charles Douglas for the manœuvres by which he was ſo ſucceſsful againſt Langara and De Graſſe. But, ſuppoſing this to be true, it detracts not from his merit. A weak or fooliſh commander could not always make choice of the ableſt officers for his firſt captains, nor would ſuch a man be guided by their advice. In 1783 the Houſe of Aſſembly in Jamaica voted 1000l. towards erecting a marble ſtatue to him, as a mark of their gratitude and veneration for his gallant ſervices, ſo timely and gloriouſly performed for the ſalvation of that iſland, the Weſt India iſlands, and trade in general.

(2.) RODNEY POINT, a cape on the NW. coaſt of N. America, and the N. point of Norton Sound. Lon. 166. 3. W. Lat. 64. 30. N.

RODOLPH I. and II. emperors of Germany. See GERMANY, § 15. and 16.

* RODOMONTADE. *n. ſ.* [from a boaſtful boiſterous hero of Arioſto, called *Rodomonte; rodomontade*, Fr.] An empty noiſy bluſter or boaſt; a rant.—In theſe gameſome days men will give him hints, which may put him upon his *rodomontades*. *Gov. of the Tongue*.—The libertines of painting have no other model but a *rodomontade* genius. *Dryden*.—I could ſhew that the *rodomontades* of Almanzor are neither ſo irrational nor impoſſible, for Cethegus threatens to deſtroy nature. *Dryden*.

* *To* RODOMONTADE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To brag thraſonically; to boaſt like Rodomonte.

RODOSTO. See RODESTO.

RODRIGUES KEY, a pretty large iſland on the coaſt of Florida; one of the TORTUGAS. The roots of the trees are overflowed. Lon. 81. 17. W. Lat. 25. 0. N.

RODUMNA, an ancient town of Gallia Celtica, belonging to the Æduı, now called ROANNE, ſeated on the Loire.

(1.) ROE, Sir Thomas, an able ſtateſman and ambaſſador, born at Low Leyton, in Eſſex, about 1580. He was admitted into Magdalene College, Oxford, in 1593. After ſtudying at the Inns of court, and travelling to France, he was made Eſquire to Q. Elizabeth. In 1604, he was knighted by K. James I. and ſoon after ſent to make diſcoveries in America. In 1614, he was ſent ambaſſador to the Great Mogul, at whoſe court he continued 4 years. In 1620, he was choſen M. P. for Cirencester, and in 1621, ſent ambaſſador to the Grand Signior; in which rank he continued under Oſman, Muſtapha I. and Amurath IV. Of the tranſactions there, he ſent "A true and faithful relation" to the king and prince Henry; which was printed at London in 1622, 4to. He alſo wrote a curious account of his tranſactions at the Porte, which remained in MS. till 1740; when it was publiſhed by the Society for promoting learning, under the title of *The Negociations of Sir Thomas Roe, in his Embaſſy to the Ottoman Porte*; from 1621 to 1628, in folio. He alſo made a large Collection of Greek and Oriental MSS. which he preſented to the Bodleian Library. He alſo brought over the fine Alexandrian MS. of the Greek bible, ſent as a preſent to Charles I. by Cyril, patriarch of Conſtantinople; ſince tranſcribed and publiſhed by Dr. Grabe. In 1620 he was ſent to mediate a peace between the kings of Poland and Sweden. This he effected, and acquired ſuch credit with Guſtavus Adolphus, that the king, after the victory of Leipſic, ſent him a preſent of 2000l. and in his letter ſtiled him his *ſtrennum conſultorem*. In 1640, he was choſen M. P. for the univerſity of Oxford. His ſpeeches in parliament were printed, and ſhow his abilities. In 1641 he was ſent ambaſſador to Ratiſbon; and on his return was made chancellor of the garter, and a privy counſellor. He died in Nov. 1644.

(2.) * ROE. *n. ſ.* [*ra*, *ra-deor*, Saxon.] 1. A ſpecies of deer, yet found in the Highlands of Scotland.—

The *roe* bucks in their flight to overtake.
Spenſer.

The greyhounds are fleeter than the *roe*. *Shak*.

—They

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—They were as swift as the *roes* upon the mountains. 1 *Chron.*—Procure me a Troglodyte footman, who can catch a *roe* at his full speed. *Arbuthnot.* 2. The female of the hart:—

Run like a *roe* or hart upon
The lofty hills of Bitheron. *Sandys.*

(3.) * ROE. *n. s.* [properly *roan* or *rone*; *rænn*, Danish; *rogen*, German.] The eggs of fish.—

Here comes Romeo
Without his *roe*, like a dried herring. *Shak.*

(4.) ROE, the seed or spawn of fish. That of the male fishes is usually distinguished by the name of *soft roe*, or *milt*; and that of the female, *hard roe*, or *spawn*. So inconceivably numerous are these ovula or small eggs, that M. Petit found 342,144 of them in a carp of 18 inches; but M. Lieuwenhoek found in a carp no more than 211,629. This last gentleman observes, that there are four times this number in a cod; and that a common one contains 9,344,000 eggs.

(5.) ROE, in zoology. See CERVUS.

(1.) ROEBUCK, John, M. D. was born at Sheffield, in Yorkshire, in the year 1718. His father was a considerable manufacturer and exporter of Sheffield goods, who, by his abilities and industry, had acquired a competent fortune. John, his eldest son, was intended by his father for carrying on his own lucrative business at Sheffield; but was, from his early youth, irresistibly attached to other pursuits, more calculated to gratify his ambition, and give an ampler display of his powers. After the usual course of the grammar school at Sheffield, his parents being dissenters, they placed their son under the tuition of the late Dr Doddridge, then master of an academy at Northampton. He was next sent to the university of Edinburgh, where he studied medicine and chemistry; and he afterwards spent some time at the university of Leyden; at which last place he obtained a degree in medicine, in 1743. He left Leyden, after having visited some part of the north of Germany, about the end of 1744. Soon after his return, he settled as a physician at Birmingham, where he met with great encouragement. Strongly attached to chemistry, he conceived high views of extending its usefulness, and of rendering it subservient to the improvement of arts and manufactures. With this view, he fitted up a small laboratory in his own house, in which he spent every spare moment of his time. His first discoveries were certain improved methods of refining gold and silver, and particularly an ingenious mode of collecting the smaller particles of these precious metals, which had been formerly lost in the practical operations of many of the manufacturers. By other chemical processes, carried on about the same time in his little laboratory, he discovered also improved methods of making sublimate, hartshorn, and sundry other articles of equal importance. In order to render these employments useful to himself and the public, he chose as his associate Mr Samuel Garbet of Birmingham. They erected an extensive laboratory at Birmingham, for the purposes above mentioned; which was productive of many advantages to the manufactures of that place, and of much emolument to themselves. In 1747, the Doctor married Miss Ann Roe of Sheffield. In 1749, Messrs Roebuck and Garbet established a manufacture of the oil of vitriol at Prestonpans; and, by conducting their operations with concealment and secrecy they were enabled to preserve the advantages of their ingenuity and industry for a long period of years; and not only served the public at a much cheaper rate than had ever been done formerly, but realized, in that manufacture, a greater annual profit from a smaller capital than had been done in any similar undertaking. The vitriol work is still carried on at Prestonpans; but long before Dr Roebuck's death he was obliged to withdraw his capital from it. The success of the establishment at Prestonpans, which had far exceeded their expectation, enabled the Doctor and his partner Mr Garbet to plan and execute works of still greater benefit and public utility. Having connected many of his monied friends with him in the speculation, Dr Roebuck projected the establishment of cast iron works on an extensive and improved plan; and under his direction, with the assistance of Mr Smeaton and Mr James Watt, the magnificent works at Carron were finished in the end of 1759. For some time after the establishment of the Carron works, Dr Roebuck continued to give his attention and assistance in the general management and superintendance of them, and with him all operations were concerted; but when the business sunk by degrees into a matter of ordinary detail, he was unfortunately tempted to engage in a new and different undertaking; from the failure of which he suffered a reverse of fortune, was deprived of the advantages resulting from his other works, and during the remainder of his life became subjected to much anxiety and disappointment. He was induced to become lessee of the Duke of Hamilton's extensive coal and salt works at Borrowstounness. The coal there was represented to exist in great abundance, and to be of superior quality; but the perpetual succession of difficulties and obstacles which occurred in working and raising of the coal, was such as has been seldom experienced in any work of that kind. The result was, that after many years of labour and industry, there were sunk in the coal and salt works at Borrowstounness, not only his own, and the considerable fortune brought him by his wife, but the regular profits of his more successful works; and along therewith, what distressed him above every thing, great sums of money borrowed from his relations and friends, which he was never able to repay; not to mention that, from the same cause, he was, during the last 20 years of his life, subjected to a constant succession of hopes and disappointments. But all difficulties his unconquerable and persevering spirit would have overcome, if the never-ceasing demands of his coal-works, after having exhausted the profits, had not also compelled him to withdraw his capital from all his different works in succession. He died on the 17th July, 1794. Dr Roebuck left behind him many *works*, but few *writings*. A comparison of the heat of London and Edinburgh, read in the Royal Society of London, June 29, 1775; experiments on ignited bodies, read there 16th Feb. 1776; observations on the ripening and filling of corn, read

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the Royal Society of Edinburgh, 5th June, 1784 — all the writings of his, two political pamphexcepted, which have been published.

(2.) ROE-BUCK, in zoology. See CERVUS.

(3.) ROEBUCK ISLAND, an island of N. Ameri- at the E. extremity of Lake Ontario.

ROELLA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia , belonging to the pentandria clafs of plants; in the natural method ranking under the 29th , *Campanaceæ*. The corolla is funnel-fhaped, its bottom fhut up by ftaminiferous valvules; ftigma is bifid; the capfule bilocular, and cyical inferior.

ROEM. See ROM.

ROEMER, Olaus, a noted Daniſh aſtronomer mathematician, was born at Arthuſen in Jut, 1644; and at 18 years of age was ſent to niverſity of Copenhagen. He ſtudied mathe- and aſtronomy, and became ſo expert in ſciences, that when Picard was ſent by XIV. in 1671, to make obſervations in the he was greatly ſurpriſed and pleaſed with He engaged him to return with him to , and had him preſented to the king, who ed him with the dauphin as a pupil, and him a penſion. He was joined with Picard aſſini, in making aſtronomical obſervations; 1672 he was admitted a member of the y of Sciences. During the ten years he at Paris, he gained great reputation by his ries: he firſt found out the velocity with light moves, by the eclipſes of Jupiter's . In 1681, Roemer was recalled to Den- by Chriſtian V, who made him profeſſor of ſy at Copenhagen; and chancellor of the quer, &c. He became counſellor of ſtate, ergomaſter of Copenhagen, under Frederic He died Sept. 19, 1710, aged 66. Horrebow, ciple, profeſſor of aſtronomy at Copenhagen, ed, in 4to, 1753, various obſervations of , with his method, under the title of *Baſis mie*. He had alſo printed various aſtrono- obſervations and pieces, in ſeveral volumes Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences , 1666, particularly vol. 1 and 10.

ROEPER, Conrad, an eminent Dutch painter, the Hague, in 1677. He excelled in paint- ſtorms, flowers, and plants. He died in 1748.

(1.) ROER, or RUER, a river of Germany, in ſpitalia, now included in the French empire; rifes in the ci-devant duchy of Juliers, paſ- the towns of Juliers and Ruremond, and after falls into the Maeſe.

(2.) ROER, a department of the French empire, of the 4, into which the conquered countries the left bank of the Rhine, were divided in ; comprehending the ci-devant duchy of Ju- that part of the late electorate of Cologn, lies on the left bank of the Rhine; with dres, Moeurs, and Cleves. Juliers is the tal.

ROESBOROUGH, a town of Ireland, in the nty of Cork, and province of Munſter.

ROESGREEN, a town of Ireland, in the coun- of Tipperary, and province of Munſter.

ROESTRAETEN, Peter, an eminent Dutch rait painter, born at Haerlem, in 1698. He painted, in a lively manner, gold, ſilver, and cryſtal vaſes, china wares, agates, muſical inſtruments, and curious ſhells.

ROEUX, a handſome town of the French empire, in the department of Jemappes, and ci-devant province of Auſtrian Hainault: 8 miles NE. of Mons. Lon. 4. 12. E. Lat. 50. 31. N.

ROGA, in antiquity, a preſent which the emperors made to the ſenators, magiſtrates, and even to the people; and the popes and patriarchs to their clergy. Theſe rogæ were diſtributed by the emperors on the firſt day of the year, on their birth-day, or on the *natulis dies* of the cities; and by the popes and patriarchs in paſſion-week. Roga is alſo uſed for the common pay of the ſoldiers.

ROGART, [Gael. *Rogbard*, i. e. *very high*,] a pariſh of Scotland, in the county of Sutherland, ſo named from its ſituation on the top of a high hill. It is about 10 miles long, and nearly as broad. The ſurface is very irregular. STRATHBRORA and STRATHFLEET, two valleys, 5 miles diſtant from each other, which conſtitute the greater part of it, and run from W. to E. through its whole length, are more regular than the reſt; yet even theſe are much interſected by bruſhwood and rapid rivulets. The interjacent part, between theſe ſtraths or valleys, is a group of rocky hills, with moſs intervening, which afford plenty of fuel. The ſides of the hills are moſtly cultivated, and produce oats, barley, and potatoes; but it is rare to ſee 3 yards of ground without a rock. The climate is ſharp, cold, and moiſt; much rain coming down from the lofty mountains of Strathnaver. The population, in 1791, was about 2000; the increaſe 239, ſince 1755. The Gaelic is chiefly ſpoken. Relics of camps, tumuli, and Pictiſh caſtles are numerous.

(1.) ROGATIO, or } in the Roman juriſpru-
(1.) ROGATION, } dence, a demand made by the conſuls or tribunes of the Roman people, when a law was propoſed to be paſſed. *Rogatio* is alſo uſed for the decree itſelf made in conſequence of the people's giving their aſſent to this demand; to diſtinguiſh it from a *ſenatus conſultum*, or decree of the ſenate.

(2.) * ROGATION. *n. ſ.* [*rogation*, Fr. from *rogo*, Lat.] Litany; ſupplication.—He perſecteth the *rogations* or litanies before in uſe. *Hooker.*—Supplications, with this ſolemnity for appeaſing of God's wrath, were of the Greek church termed litanies, and *rogations* of the Latin. *Taylor.*

(3.) * ROGATION WEEK. *n. ſ.* The week immediately preceding Whitſunday; thus called from three faſts obſerved therein, the Monday, Tueſday, and Wedneſday, called rogation days, becauſe of the extraordinary prayers and proceſſions then made for the fruits of the earth, or as a preparation for the devotion of holy Thurſday. *Dict.*

(1.) ROGER I, king of Sicily, the grandſon of Hauteville of Normandy, was born in 1097. He extended his territories: eſpouſed the cauſe of Anacletus, the anti-pope; took Pope Innocent II. priſoner, with all his ſuite; and releaſed him only on condition of being acknowledged in all his newly acquired dominions. He died in 1154.

(2.) ROGER II. See SICILY.

(3.) ROGER OF HEXHAM, an ancient Engliſh hiſtorian, educated in the monaſtery of Hexham in Northumberland. He was elected prior of it about

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bout 1138. He wrote a history of the campaign of the Scottish army, under David I, king of Scots, when the battle of the Standard was fought.

(4.) ROGER OF HOVEDEN, a learned man of the 13th century, was born in Yorkshire, most probably at the town of that name, now called *Howden*, some time in the reign of Henry I. After he had received the first parts of education in his native country, he studied the civil and canon law, which were then become the most fashionable and lucrative branches of learning. He became domestic chaplain to Henry II. who employed him to transact several ecclesiastical affairs; in which he acquitted himself with honour. But his most meritorious work was, his *Annals of England*, from A. D. 731, when Bede's Ecclesiastical History ends, to A. D. 1202. This work, which is one of the most voluminous of our ancient histories, is more valuable for the sincerity with which it is written, and the great variety of facts which it contains, than for the beauty of its style, or the regularity of its arrangement.

(14) ROGERS, Charles, F. R. S. an eminent antiquarian, born at London, August 2, 1711. In 1731, he obtained an office in the custom-house, and in 1747, was promoted to be clerk of the certificates. In 1752, he was admitted a member of the Society of Antiquaries; and soon after F. R. S. He published a most elegant and expensive work, which does honour to the country, exhibiting *specimens of the manner of the different masters*. This work was so much admired, that copies of it were placed in his majesty's library, and in those of the emperor of Germany, the empress of Russia, the late king of France, the British Museum, &c. &c. He also published a translation of *Dante's Inferno*, in 1782, 4to; and several curious papers. He died Jan. 2, 1784.

(2.) ROGERS, Captain Woods, an English circumnavigator, who sailed in a private ship of war from Bristol, and published an account of his voyage. He died in 1732.

(3.) ROGERS, John, D. D. an eminent English divine, born in 1679, at Eutham, in Oxfordshire, where his father was vicar. He was educated at Oxford, and in 1693, was admitted of Corpus Christi College, and became fellow in 1706. In 1710, he became B. D. and in 1716, rector of Wrington; when he married Miss Lydia Hare, sister of Lord Coleraine. In 1719, he engaged in the Bangorian controversy; and published, A Discourse on the Visible and Invisible Church of Christ; in 8vo. Dr Sykes having published an answer, he replied in a Review of the Discourse. He gained so much credit by these works, that the university of Oxford conferred on him unasked the degree of D. D. In 1726, he was made chaplain to the Prince of Wales, afterwards George II; when he published, A Defence of Christianity against Collin's *Scheme of Literal Prophecy*. In Oct. 1728, he was made vicar of St Giles's in London; but died 1st May, 1729.

ROGERSVILLE, a town of Tennessee, the capital of Hawkins county.

ROGHMAN, Roland, an eminent Dutch landscape painter; born at Amsterdam, in 1597. He died in 1696.

(1.) * ROGUE. *n. s.* [of uncertain etymology]
1. A wandering beggar; a vagrant; a vagabond.
For fear left we, like *rogues*, should be repu
—The sheriff and the marshal may do the g
good, and more terrify the idle *rogue*.
They will ever live like *rogues*, and not fall
work. *Bacon.*—The troops are all scattered,
the commanders very poor *rogues*. *Shak.*
knave; a dishonest fellow; a villain; a thief.
Thou kill'st me like a *rogue* and villain.
—A *rogue* upon the highway may have as
an arm, and take off a man's head as clev
the executioner; but the one action is murther
the other justice. *South.*—
If he call *rogue* and rascal from the gam
He means you no more mischief than a
The *rogue* and fool by fits is fair and
3. A name of slight tenderness and endearm
—Alas, poor *rogue*, I think indeed she
4. A wag.—
Oh, what a *rogue* and pleasant slave am

(2.) ROGUE, in law, an idle sturdy beggar;
by ancient statutes is for the first offence c
rogue of the first degree, and punished by whi
and boring through the gristle of the right e
a hot iron; and for the second offence, is
a *rogue of the second degree*, and, if above
of age, ordered to be executed as a felon.

* *To* ROGUE. *v. n.* [from the noun.]
wander; to play the vagabond.—If he be
so taken idly *roguing*, he may punish him w
stocks. *Spenser on Ireland.*—
He *rogued* away at last, and was lost.
2. To play knavish tricks.

* ROGUERY. *n. s.* [from *rogue*.] 1.
of a vagabond.—
To live in one land is captivity,
To run all countries a wild *roguery*.
2. Knavish tricks.—They will afterwards
be drawn to their wonted lewd life in thie
and *roguery*. *Spenser.*—There's nothing but
to be found in villanous man. *Shak.*—
Like the devil did tempt and sway 'em
To *rogueries*, and then betray 'em.
—The kid smelt out the *roguery*. *L'Estrange*
'Tis no scandal grown,
For debt and *roguery* to quit the town.
The *roguery* of alchymy,
And we, the bubbled fools.
3. Waggery; arch tricks.

* ROGUESHIP. *n. s.* [from *rogue*.] The
lities or personage of a rogue.—
Say, in what nasty cellar under ground,
Or what church porch, your *roguesh*
found.

* ROGUISH. *adj.* [from *rogue*.] 1. Vag
vagabond.—Though the persons, by whom
used, be of better note than the former
sort; yet the fault is no less worthy of a ma
Spenser. 2. Knavish; fraudulent.—
He gets a thousand thumps and kicks,
Yet cannot leave his *roguish* tricks.
3. W

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waggish; wanton; slightly mischievous.—The witching leer with her eyes, the most cast. *Dryden.*—Our friend Wimble is as any of them, and shews a thousand *ro*icks on these occasions. *Addison.*—Timo to be playing *roguish* tricks. *Arbuthnot.*

ROGUISHLY. *adv.* [from *roguish.*] Like a knavishly; wantonly.

ROGUISHNESS. *n. f.* [from *roguish.*] The ss of a rogue.

ROGUY. *adj.* [from *rogue.*] Knavish; wan bad word.—A shepherd's boy had gotten trick of crying a wolf. *L'Estrange.*

ROKACZOW, a considerable town and dis Lithuania. The town is seated at the con of the Dnieper and the Ordrwa; 37 miles of Rzeczica; and 158 N. of Kiow. Lon. 30. Lat. 48. 0. N.

ROHAN, Peter, Chevalier DE GHIE, a renchman, descended of the ancient princes n, who flourished under Lewis XI, who, abour, made him marshal of France, in He was one of the 4 lords, who governed gdom during that king's illness, in 1484. he defended Picardy against the arch duke ria. He commanded the vanguard at the of Fournoue, in 1495; and Lewis XII. ap him his prime counsellor, and general of in Italy. But all his merits were disre by the queen, Anne of Austria, who, ta umbrage at him for having stopped her perfecuted him with the most unrelent nce, and subjected him by an iniquitous to damages of 31,000 livres. This brave ried general died April 22, 1613.

ROHAN, Henry duke of, prince of Leon, r of France, was born at the castle of Blein, ay, in 1579; and gained the affection of IV. by his bravery at the siege of Amiens, ly in his 16th year. After Henry's death, e the chief leader of the Protestants in in defence of whose rights, he carried on rs against Lewis XIII. The first ended dvantage of the Protestants; the 2d and occasioned by the sieges of Rochelle. The last procured for them an honourable 1629. After this he retired to Venice, republic appointed him their commander against the Imperialists; but Lewis XIII. him, and sent him ambassador to Switzer and the Grisons. After many victories he the Spaniards and Imperialists out of the e, in 1633; and defeated the former again Como, in 1636. In 1637, he concluded a with the Grisons: But afterwards joining of Saxe Weimar, against the Imperialists, he ortally wounded, though victorious, at the of Rhinfeld, Feb. 28th, 1638; and died 13th aged 59. He was remarkable for genero sability, and sweetness of temper. Though ch engaged in wars, he wrote several trea s as 1. *The Interests of Princes*: Cologn: 1660, . 2. The Perfect General; 12mo. 3. On Corruption of the ancient Militia: 4. On the rnment of the 13 Provinces: 5. *Memoirs*; con ing the history of France, from 1610 to 1629. Political Discourses on State Affairs, from 1612 to 1629; 8vo. Paris, 1644. 7. Memoirs and Let ters on the war of the Valteline: in 3 vols. 12mo. Geneva. 1759.

(3.) ROHAN, Anne of, Sister to the duke, was a very learned lady, understood the Hebrew language, and wrote some fine poetry. She also distinguished herself in supporting the Protestants, during the reign of Lewis XIII.

(4.) ROHAN, in geography, a town of France, in the department of Morbihan, and ci-devant province of Bretagne: seated on the Aoust; 20 miles N. of Vannes. Lon. 2. 42. W. Lat. 48. 0. N.

ROHAULT, James, a celebrated Cartesian philosopher, the son of a merchant of Amiens, where he was born in 1620. He became well skilled in the mathematics, and taught them at Paris, where he became acquainted with M. Clerselier, an advocate, whose daughter he married. He taught philosophy in the same city with uncommon applause. He there improved the arts, and gave excellent lectures to the artists and workmen. He died at Paris in 1675. He wrote, in French, 1. A Treatise on Natural Philosophy. 2. The Elements of the Mathematics. 3. A Treatise on Mechanics, which is very curious. 4. Philosophical Conversations; and other works. His Physics were translated into Latin, by Dr Samuel Clarke, with notes, in which the Cartesian errors are corrected upon the Newtonian system.

ROHILCUND, or ROHILLA, } a territory of Indostan Proper, inhabited by the ROHILLAS. It lies E. of Delhi; and is subject to the Nabob of Oude; who conquered it in 1774. The capital is BEREILLY.

ROHILLAS, the inhabitants of the above country; who, in 1749, established their independence, by defeating the Imperial army; but they have since been conquered by the nabob of Oude.

ROHN, LOCH. See ROAN, N° 3.

* *To* ROIST. } *v. n* [of this word the most
* *To* ROISTER. } probable etymology is from *roister*, Islandick, a violent man.] To behave turbulently; to act at discretion; to be at free quarter; to bluster.—

I have a *roisting* challenge sent amongst
The dull and factious nobles of the Greeks.
Shak.

Among a crew of *roist'ring* fellows,
He'd sit whole ev'nings at the alehouse. *Swift.*

* ROISTER, or *roister. n. f.* [from the verb.] A turbulent, brutal, lawless, blustering fellow.

ROLAND, M. one of the celebrated founders of the French revolution, to which, with many others of the most eminent of them, he fell a sacrifice, was born in 1732, at *Le Clos de la Platiere*, 12 miles from Villefranche. His family was ancient and noble. He was the youngest of 5 brethren. He was educated for the church, but not relishing the clerical profession, he went to Rouen, where his relation M. Godinot was inspector of manufactures, and proposed to him to follow this branch of administration. He agreed, and soon was distinguished for activity, industry, and disinterestedness. In reward of his merits, government gave him a higher office, with an income which satisfied his wishes. Addicted to

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ſtudy, he ſoon became eminent as a philoſopher. Reſiding in his official capacity at Amiens, in 1775, in a viſit at Mad. Cannet's, where the converſation ran upon an extraordinary young lady of Paris, named *Phlipon*, he aſked and received a letter of introduction to her. On calling, he found her in mourning for her mother's death. Affliction gave her lovely countenance irreſiſtible attraction. She was in her 21ſt year. Our philoſopher, though double her age, found his philoſophy no ſhield againſt beauty: on her part ſhe conſidered him as *reſpectable* rather than *ſeducing*. At this period he had juſt returned from a tour thro' Germany, and was preparing to viſit Italy. He therefore depoſited all his MSS. in her hands, leſt any misfortune ſhould happen before his return. This mark of eſteem produced a regard which ended in a cloſer union. While in Italy, he wrote letters to her, by the medium of his brother, a Benedictine Prior, containing *Obſervations on the Men, Manners, and Manufactures of Italy*, which were afterwards publiſhed. On his return he repeated his viſits, and ſoon after married her, though againſt her father's conſent; and found her in every reſpect a moſt accompliſhed woman. Their firſt year was ſpent in Paris, where he cauſed ſome papers he had written for the academy to be printed, and prepared his MSS. reſpecting Italy for the preſs. Mad. Roland not only made out fair copies, but corrected the proof ſheets. She alſo went through a courſe of natural hiſtory, ſtudied botany, and, as her huſband's health was delicate, acted both as his cook and phyſician. The next 4 years were ſpent at Amiens, where ſhe had her only daughter, who ſurvived her. Mean time, though nurſing, ſhe continued to aſſiſt her huſband in his literary labours, who was now entruſted with a conſiderable part of the *Encyclopædie*. This happy couple never quitted their ſtudy but for rural enjoyment; during which Mad. Roland made an *herbal* of the plants of Picardy, and wrote a Treatiſe *on Equatic Botany*. In 1784, they removed to Lyons, and reſided ſome time at La Platiere near Villefranche. In 1784, they alſo viſited England, particularly the preſident of the Royal Society; and in 1787, made a tour through Germany. On the death of our author's mother, they reſided at the family manſion of *Le Clos de la Platiere*, where they purſued their uſeful labours, and where Mad. Roland acted as the friend and phyſician of all the peaſantry around. In 1789, ſhe ſaved her huſband's life, when at the laſt ſtage of a violent diſtemper; ſat up with him 6 days and nights, without ſleeping or changing her clothes; and nurſed him tenderly during a tedious convaleſcence of 6 months longer. At length the era of the revolution arrived. Friends of humanity and adorers of liberty, they fondly hoped, with millions of others throughout Europe, that the period of ameliorating the condition of mankind was arrived; and that the miſeries of the lower orders in France, which they had often lamented, and contributed to relieve, were to be terminated. In this perſuaſion, they conſidered the convocation of the *States General* as a happy event, and augured univerſal happineſs from it. Roland, happening to go to Lyons at this time, met with two ſets of people among his friends. The one [illegible] habituated to the ſelfiſh calculations of [illegible] could not conceive why he ſhould applaud [illegible] changes, by which the inferior claſſes alone [illegible] likely to profit; the other claſs, the patri[illegible] joiced to find a gentleman of family, [illegible] fortune attached to their intereſt; and at [illegible] formation of a municipality, they ele[illegible] one of their officers. In this ſituation he [illegible] tinguiſhed himſelf by his talents and in[illegible] Theſe qualities occaſioned him to be [illegible] in an important miſſion to the conſtitu[illegible] tional Aſſembly. Diſcuſſions on commer[illegible] occupied their attention; and it was pro[illegible] the 2d city in the kingdom for population[illegible] lence, and manufactures, ſhould have a [illegible] gent to watch over its intereſts. Roland [illegible] ingly went to Paris with his family, w[illegible] ſpent a year. His character was already [illegible] ed: he was a member of all the academ[illegible] S. of France; and had drawn up the CA[illegible] Lyons, on the convocation of the States [illegible] at the expreſs deſire of the Society of Agri[illegible] After faithfully diſcharging the duties of [illegible] ſion, he returned to his native province, w[illegible] learned that his office of *inſpector* was ab[illegible] Some proviſion was in equity due to him [illegible] 38 years faithful ſervice; and to obtain t[illegible] returned to Paris in Dec. 1791; but h[illegible] found, that particular intereſts muſt give w[illegible] what was thought for the general good, in[illegible] tuation of public affairs, which then pa[illegible] In that ſentiment his patriotiſm acquieſc[illegible] he dropt all further thoughts of indemni[illegible] At this period he became intimate with th[illegible] brated BRISSOT, who introduced him to t[illegible] COBLN CLUB, *then* conſiſting of an aſſembl[illegible] the moſt enlightened patriots, though it[illegible] wards fell under the government of a very[illegible] ent ſet of men. He was ſoon nominated [illegible] ber of the committee of correſpondence; [illegible] in this he was aſſiſted by his wife, his [illegible] excited aſtoniſhment. Several deputi[illegible] Aſſembly uſed to meet at the *Place Ven[illegible]* Roland was invited thither; but, the [illegible] from his place of reſidence being great, h[illegible] but ſeldom; yet theſe few appearances in[illegible] the high opinion formed of him. Much je[illegible] had been excited about this time by the ſe[illegible] ous conduct of the Court. The miniſtry [illegible] formed of men unfriendly to liberty; fe[illegible] weakneſs at laſt determined the Court to liſt[illegible] the public voice, to change the miniſtry, and [illegible] ploy citizens, whoſe CIVISM was undoub[illegible] Some of the Girondiſts being conſulted abou[illegible] formation of a patriotic adminiſtration, Ro[illegible] was pointed out by the committee of the [illegible] Vendôme, as a man every way qualified, by [illegible] litics, experience, age, reputation, integrity, [illegible] unſullied morals: and his writings were refe[illegible] to, as proofs of his attachment to liberty. [illegible] king approved, and Briſſot was ſent to Ma[illegible] Roland, to ſound her if her huſband would ac[illegible] of the important office of miniſter of the In[illegible] Department. Roland, though ſenſible of the [illegible] ficulties, dangers, and reſponſibility attend[illegible] ſuch an office, at ſuch a criſis; yet confiden[illegible] his own integrity, and the purity of his intenti[illegible] accep[illegible]

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ed of the appointment; resolving, how- to resign, if he found his exertions could the state. Next day Dumourier, then head of the foreign department, accompa- Brissot, called on Roland to announce, king had appointed him minister of the ; adding that now only one opinion pre- in the cabinet, between the king and mi- to support the constitution. Next day appeared at Court, to be presented, take , and enter on his new office; but the were astonished, and some of them of- to find him not in an elegant *court habit*, his ordinary dress. Lewis now made his ministry happy by appearing to enter zea- into all their plans of improvement. But ment patriotism only lasted a few weeks. the menacing attitude assumed by the of Vienna produced a crisis. Servan, the at war proposed to the assembly the for- of a camp of 20,000 men, under the walls . This scheme was adopted with enthu- well as another for repressing the refrac- . All the 6 ministers supported these , but the king made use of the *veto* which constitution had given him, and refused his or at least delayed it. Mean time the had several private conferences with Du- who at this early period began to in- Roland, who had discovered, that 10,0000 were lodged at a notary's, as payment public office, but in fact to be shared be- Dumourier and his mistress Mad. Beau- challenged him for his conduct to his face. ever, finding himself detected, resolved to patriot ministers dismissed, and a new mi- more agreeable to the king, appointed. Ro- resolved to come to an immediate ex- with the king, and either prevail upon assent to the two decrees, or resign, and his reasons. Accordingly when the king the written opinions of all the members cil, Roland took the opportunity of writ- famous letter, which has been so much ad- for its plainness, boldness, and the salu- it contained to the king. As it is too insertion; we shall only quote a single from it, which proved but too *prophe- after* urging every argument to prevail on , to "let the people see that he was *wil- ing* constitution should take its course," he If *force* were recurred to, in order to re- the National Assembly, if *terror* were spread Paris, and disunion and consternation vicinity, France would rise with indigna- and, distracted by the horrors of a *civil would display* that *gloomy energy*, the parent *great virtues* and *great crimes*, but *ever fatal* to who *provoke* it." With this letter Roland his resignation. The Constituent Assem- unanimously voted, that he had "retired with thanks and gratitude of his country." His ation had a prodigious effect on the minds public, and rendered the conduct of the suspicious. At length on the 10th of Au- the palace being taken, and the king and family made prisoners, Citizens Roland, ers, and Servan were restored to their offi- ces, and 3 new ones appointed, viz. Danton to that of Justice, Le Brun to that of Foreign Affairs, and Monge to the Marine. The Legislative Assembly having voted 100,000 livres to diffuse the spirit of liberty, Roland employed Louvet to publish the *Sentinelle*; sent the patriotic journals to the popular societies *gratis*, and dispersed writings in favour of liberty everywhere. But in Sept. 1792, a few sanguinary men murdered a number of the clergy and aristocracy, without trial or form of justice. Roland and all his friends of the Girondist party disapproved of these crimes, and endeavoured to bring the murderers to justice, and thus lost their popularity. Roland's house, formerly reverenced as sacred, was now treated with outrage by the mob. The barbarity and injustice of the Mountain party in the Convention soon afterwards arrived at its utmost pitch. On the 31st May, 1793, this great man, was denounced with the other chief patriots of the Girondist party. Such a bloody and unjust proscription had not been exhibited in Europe, since the days of Marius, Sylla and the Triumvirs. Roland endeavoured to conceal himself, by advice of his wife; who, trusting to her innocence, did not suspect her danger; but she was arrested soon after, imprisoned, and guillotined upon the most absurd pretence of being a royalist. Roland might have still concealed himself, but he could not survive his valuable wife. He left the asylum of a faithful friend, who had hitherto concealed him, at the risk of her own life; and repairing to a spot on the great road leading to Rouen, there gave himself the fatal blow. Thus died, in the 60th year of his age, the venerable Roland, the *Nestor* of the revolution, a man fitted for the republics of Greece and Rome, in their purest periods. No person during the whole course of this bloody revolution, exhibited a more pure and perfect character, than Roland and his virtuous wife.

ROLANDRA, in botany, a genus of the polygamia segregata order, belonging to the syngenesia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. The common calyx consists of distinct *floriculi*, between each of which are short *squamæ*, the whole forming a round head. The partial calyx is bivalved. The corolla is small and funnel-shaped, the tube small as a thread, the *laciniæ* short and acute. The stamina are five; the style bifid. It has no other seed vessel except the partial calyx, which contains a long three-sided seed. Of this there is only one species, viz.

ROLANDRA ARGENTEA; a native of the West Indies, found in copses and waste lands.

ROLAND'S TABLE, a flat mountain of Lower Canada, on the main land of the E. coast of the district of Gaspee, on the W. bank of the gulf of St Lawrence. Though flat on the top, it is higher than several others, and is seen at a great distance at sea. It is 15 miles from Cape Gaspee.

(1.) ROLDUC, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Ourte, and ci-devant duchy of Limburg; with a castle, 7 miles N. of Aix la Chapelle. Lon. 6. 6. E. Lat. 50. 55. N.

(2.) ROLDUC, a ci-devant territory of Limburg,

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of which the above town was the capital; now included in the French empire.

(1.) * ROLL. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The act of rolling; the ſtate of being rolled. 2. The thing rolling.—

Devolving through the maze of eloquence
A *roll* of periods. *Thomſon.*

[3. *Roulean*, Fr.] Maſs made round.—

Large *rolls* of fat about his ſhoulders clung.
Addiſon.

—To keep ants from trees, encompaſs the ſtem four fingers breadth with a circle or *roll* of wool newly plucked. *Mortimer.* 4. Writing rolled upon itſelf; a volume.

Buſy angels ſpread
The laſting *roll*, recording what we ſaid. *Prior.*

5. A round body rolled along; a cylinder.—Where the land is clotty, and a ſhower of rain comes that ſoaks through, uſe a *roll* to break the clots. *Mortimer.* 6. [*Rotulus*, Lat.] Publick writing.—

Cromwell is made maſter
O' th' *rolls*, and the king's ſecretary. *Shak.*

—Search was made in the houſe of the *rolls*. *Ezra*, vi. 1.—The *rolls* of parliament are extant. *Hale.* 7. A regiſter; a catalogue.—Beaſts only cannot diſcern beauty; and let them be in the *roll* of beaſts that do not honour it. *Sidney.*—

I am not in the *roll* of common men. *Shak.*
The *roll* and liſt of that army doth remain.
Davies.

Of that ſhort *roll* of friends writ in my heart,
There's none, that ſometimes greet us not.
Donne.

—'Tis a mathematical demonſtration, that theſe twenty-four letters admit of ſo many changes in their order, and make ſuch a long *roll* of differently ranged alphabets, not two of which are alike; that they could not all be exhauſted, though a million millions of writers ſhould each write above a thouſand alphabets a-day, for the ſpace of a million millions of years. *Bentley.* 8. Chronicle.—

Search the herald's *roll*. *Dryden.*
His chamber all was hanged about with *rolls*
And old records. *Spenſer.*
The eye of time beholds no name
So bleſt as thine, in all the *rolls* of fame. *Pope.*

9. [*Role*, Fr.] Part; office. Not in uſe.—In human ſociety, every man has his *roll* and ſtation aſſigned him. *L'Eſtrange.*

(2.) ROLL is alſo uſed for a liſt of the names of perſons of the ſame condition, or of thoſe who have entered into the ſame engagement. Thus a court roll of a manor, is that in which the names, rents, and ſervices of each tenant are copied and enrolled.

(3.) ROLL, in law, ſignifies a ſchedule of parchment which may be rolled up by the hand into the form of a pipe. In theſe ſchedules, all the pleadings, memorials, and acts of court, are entered and filed by the proper officer; which being done, they become records of the court. Of theſe there are in the exchequer ſeveral kinds, as the great wardrobe roll, the cofferer's roll, the ſubſidy roll, &c.

(4.) ROLL, in manufactories, ſomething wound and folded up in a cylindrical form. Few ſtuffs are made up in rolls, except ſatins, gauſes, a crapes; which are apt to break, and take pl not eaſy to be got out, if folded otherwiſe. I boos, laces, galloons, and paduas of all kinds, also thus rolled.

(5.) ROLL, or ROLLER, is alſo a piece of iron, braſs, &c. of a cylindrical form, uſed in conſtruction of ſeveral machines, and in ſ works and manufactures. Thus in the glaſ nufacture they have a running roll, which thick cylinder of caſt braſs, which ſerves to duct the melted glaſs to the end of the ta which large looking-glaſſes, &c. are caſt. ſmiths and founders alſo uſe a roll to wor ſand which they uſe in making their moul

(6.) ROLL, CALVES-HEAD, a roll in the temples, in which every bencher is taxed at 2 s. every barriſter at 1 s. 6 d. and every man under the bar at 1 s. to the cook an officers of the houſe, in conſideration of of calves-heads provided in Eaſter term.

(7.) ROLL, MUSTER, that in which are the ſoldiers of every troop, company, r &c. As ſoon as a ſoldier's name is writte on the roll, it is death for him to deſert.

(8.) *A* ROLL OF PARCHMENT, denoted quantity of 60 ſkins. The ancients made all books up in the form of rolls; and in C time the libraries conſiſted wholly of ſuch

(9.) *A* ROLL OF TOBACCO is tobacco leaf, twiſted on the mill, and wound twi twiſt about a ſtick or roller. A great deal bacco is ſold in America, in rolls of weights; and it is not till its arrival in Spain, France, and Holland, that it is cu

(10.) ROLL, RIDER, a ſchedule of par frequently ſewed or added to ſome part of

(11.) ROLLS, in baking; bread roiled in val form.

(12.) ROLLS, in ſlatting mills, &c. are t inſtruments of a cylindrical form, which draw or ſtretch out plates of gold, ſilver, ther metals.

(13.) ROLLS, in ſugar works, are two barrels which ſerve to bruiſe the cane expreſs the juice. Theſe are caſt ho their cavities are filled up with wood, th ders of which are properly the rollers.

(14.) ROLLS, MASTER OF THE. See Ma § 21.

(15.) ROLLS OFFICE, is an office in Ch lane, London, appointed for the cuſtody o rolls and records in chancery.

(16.) ROLLS OF PARLIAMENT, are the M giſters or rolls of the proceedings of our a parliaments, which before the invention of ing were all engroſſed on parchment, and claimed openly in every county. In theſe are alſo contained many deciſions of very di points of law, which were frequently in f times referred to the deciſion of that high co

(1.) * *To* ROLL. *v. a.* [*rouler*, Fr. *rollen*, Du from *rotula*, of *roto*, Lat.] 1. To move any by volutation, or ſucceſſive application of ſurface, to the ground.—Who ſhall *roll* us a the door of the ſepulchre? *Mark*, xvi. 3. 2. move any thing round upon its axis. 3. To in a circle.—

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To dress, and troll the tongue, and *roll* the eye. *Milton.*

4. To produce a periodical revolution.—
Heav'n shone and *roll'd* her motions. *Milt.*

5. To wrap round upon itself. 6. To enwrap; to involve in bandage.—By this *rolling*, parts are kept from joining together. *Wiseman.* 7. To form by rolling into round masses.—Grind red-lead, or any other colour with strong wort, and so *roll* them up into long rolls like pencils. *Peacham.* 8. To pour in a stream or waves.—
A small Euphrates through the piece is *roll'd*. *Pope.*

(L) * To ROLL. *v. n.* 1. To be moved by the successive application of all parts of the surface to a plane; as a cylinder.—
Fire must rend the sky,
And wheel on th' earth, devouring where it *rolls*. *Milton.*
Reports, like snow-balls, gather still the farther they *roll*. *Government of the Tongue.*—
To give it the first push, and see it *roll*
Along the vast abyss. *Dryden.*
To run on wheels.—
By slow degrees he gathers from the ground,
His legs, and to the *rolling* chair is bound. *Dryden.*
To perform a periodical revolution.—
Thus the year *rolls* within itself again. *Dryd.*
When thirty *rolling* years have run their race. *Dryden.*
To move with the surface variously directed.—
Thou, light,
Serv'st not these eyes, which *roll* in vain,
To find the piercing ray. *Milton.*
A boar is chaf'd, his nostrils flames expire,
And his red eye-balls *roll* with living fire. *Dryd.*
To float in rough water.—
Twice ten tempestuous nights I *roll'd*, resign'd. *Pope.*
To move as waves or volumes of water.—
Wave *rolling* after wave in torrent rapture. *Milton.*
Our nation is too great to be ruined by any but itself; and if the number and weight of it *roll* one way upon the greatest changes that can happen, England will be safe. *Temple.*—
Till the huge surge *roll'd* off, then backward sweep
The refluent tides, and plunge into the deep. *Pope.*
Storms beat, and *rolls* the main;
Oh beat those storms, and *roll* the seas in vain! *Pope.*
To fluctuate; to move tumultuously.—
What diff'rent sorrows did within thee *roll*. *Prior.*
The thoughts, which *roll* within my ravish'd breast,
To me, no seer, th' inspiring gods suggest. *Pope.*
In her sad breast the prince's fortunes *roll*. *Pope.*
To revolve on an axis.—
He fashion'd those harmonious orbs, that *roll*
In restless gyres about the Arctic pole. *Sandys.*
To be moved with violence.—
Down they fell
By thousands, angel on archangel *roll'd*. *Milt.*

ROLLE, Michael, an eminent French mathematician, born at Auvergne, 1652. His great mathematical skill procured him a place in the Academy of Sciences, and a pension. In 1690, he published a Treatise on Algebra; and died in 1719.

(1.) * ROLLER. *n. f.* [*rouleau*, Fr. from *roll*.] 1. Any thing turning on its own axis, as a heavy stone to level walks.—When a man tumbles a *roller* down a hill, the man is the violent enforcer of the first motion. *Hammond.*—The long slender worms, that breed between the skin and flesh in the isle of Ormuz and in India, are generally twisted out upon sticks or *rollers*. *Ray.*—They make the string of the pole horizontal towards the lathe, conveying and guiding the string from the pole to the work, by throwing it over a *roller*. *Moxon.*—
Lady Charlotte, like a stroller,
Sits mounted on the garden *roller*. *Swift.*
2. Bandage; fillet.—Fasten not your *roller* by tying a knot, lest you hurt your patient. *Wiseman.*—Surgeons always turn a *roller* with that view. *Sharp.*

(2.) ROLLER, in surgery, a long and broad bandage usually of linen cloth, rolled round any part of the body, to keep it in, or dispose it to a state of health.

(3.) ROLLERS for cylinders, &c. The presses called *calendars*, or *cylinders*, serving to calendar stuffs withal, consist, among other essential parts, of two rollers. It is also between the two rollers that the waves are given to silks, mohairs, and other stuffs proper to be tabbied. Impressions from copperplates are also taken by passing the plate and paper between two rollers. See PRINTING, § II.

ROLLI, Paul, was born at Rome in 1687. He was the son of an architect, and a pupil of the celebrated Gravina, who inspired him with a taste for learning and poetry. An intelligent English lord having brought him to London, introduced him to the royal family as a master of the Tuscan language. Rolli remained in England till the death of Q. Caroline his protector, and the patroness of literature in general. He returned to Italy in 1747, where he died in 1767, in the 80th year of his age, leaving behind him a very curious collection in natural history, &c. and a valuable and well chosen library. His principal works first appeared in London in 1735, in 8vo. They consist of odes in blank verse, elegies, songs, and other things, after the manner of Catullus. There is likewise a Collection of Epigrams, printed at Florence in 1776, in 8vo, and preceded with his life by the abbé Fondini. During his stay in London, he procured editions of several authors of his own country. There are likewise, by him, translations into Italian verse of *Milton's Paradise Lost*, Lond. fol. 1735; and of *Anacreon's* Odes, Lond. 1739, in 8vo.

ROLLIN, Charles, a justly celebrated French writer, was the son of a cutler at Paris, born there on the 30th of Jan. 1661. He studied at the college Du Plessis, in which he obtained a bursary

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burſary, through the intereſt of a Benedictine monk of the White Mantle, whom he had ſerved at table, and who diſcovered in him ſome marks of genius. Here he acquired the regard of M. Gobinet, principal of that college, who had a particular eſteem for him. After having ſtudied humanity, and philoſophy at this college, he applied to divinity three years at the Sorbonne; but he did not proſecute this ſtudy, and never roſe in the church higher than to the rank of a tonſured prieſt. He afterwards became profeſſor of rhetoric in the ſame college; and, in 1688, ſucceeded Horſan, his maſter, as profeſſor of eloquence, in the royal college. No man ever exerciſed the functions of it with greater eclat: he often made Latin orations, to celebrate the memorable events of the times; and frequently accompanied them with poems, which were univerſally read and eſteemed. In 1694, he was choſen rector; and continued in that office two years, which was then a great mark of diſtinction. By virtue of his office, he ſpoke the annual panegyric upon Lewis XIV. He made many very uſeful regulations in the univerſity; and particularly revived the ſtudy of the Greek language, which had been much neglected. He ſubſtituted academical exerciſes in the place of tragedies; and introduced the practice which had been formerly obſerved, of cauſing the ſtudents to get by heart paſſages of Scripture. He was a man of indefatigable attention; and trained innumerable perſons, who did honour to the church, the ſtate, and the army. Upon the expiration of the rectorſhip, cardinal Noailles engaged him to ſuperintend the ſtudies of his nephews, who were in the college of Laon; and in this office he was agreeably employed, when, in 1699, he was with great reluctance made coadjutor to the principal of the college of Beauvais. This college was then a kind of deſert, with very few ſtudents, and without any manner of diſcipline: but Rollin's great reputation and induſtry ſoon re-peopled it, and made it that flouriſhing ſociety it has ever ſince continued. In this ſituation he continued till 1712; when the war between the Jeſuits and the Janſeniſts drawing towards a criſis, he fell a ſacrifice to the prevalence of the former. Father le Tellier, the king's confeſſor, a furious agent of the Jeſuits, infuſed into his maſter prejudices againſt Rollin, whoſe connections with cardinal de Noailles would alone have ſufficed to have made him a Janſeniſt; and on this account he loſt his ſhare in the principality of Beauvais. His edition of *Quintilian* with his own notes appeared in 1715, in 2 vols 12mo, with an elegant preface, ſetting forth his method and views. In 1720, the univerſity of Paris, willing to have a head ſuitable to the importance of their intereſts in the then critical conjuncture of affairs, choſe Rollin again rector: but he was diſplaced in about two months by a lettre de cachet. The univerſity had preſented to the parliament a petition, in which it proteſted againſt taking any part in the adjuſtment of the late diſputes; and their being congratulated in a pubiic oration by Rollin on this ſtep, occaſioned the letter which ordered them to chooſe a rector of more moderation. Whatever the univerſity might ſuffer by the removal of Rollin, the public was a gainer; for he now compoſed his treatiſe upon the Manner of Studying and Teaching the Belles Letters, which was publiſhed, in 2 vols in 1726, and two more in 1728, 8vo. The work, however, was exceedingly ſucceſsful, and its ſucceſs encouraged its author to undertake another work of equal uſe and entertainment; his *Hiſtoire Ancienne*, &c. "Ancient Hiſtory of the Egyptians, Carthaginians, Aſſyrians, Babylonians, Medes and Perſians, Macedonians, and Greeks," which he finiſhed in 13 vols 8vo, and publiſhed between 1730 and 1738. Rollin was one of the moſt zealous adherents of deacon Paris; and before the incloſure of the cemetery of St Medard, this diſtinguiſhed character might have been often ſeen praying at the foot of his tomb. This he confeſſes in his Letters. He publiſhed alſo Leſſer Pieces; containing different Letters; Latin Harangues, Diſcourſes, Complimentary Addreſſes, &c. 1771, 2 vols 12mo. This excellent perſon died in 1741. The prince royal of Pruſſia, afterwards the great Frederick, and the D. of Cumberland were among his correſpondents.

(1.) ROLLING, *part. n. ſ.* the motion by which a ſhip rocks from ſide to ſide like a cradle, occaſioned by the agitation of the waves. Rolling therefore, is a ſort of revolution about an imaginary axis paſſing through the centre of gravity of a ſhip; ſo that the nearer the centre of gravity is to the keel, the more violent will be the rolling motion; becauſe the centre about which the vibrations are made is placed ſo low in the bottom that the reſiſtance made by the keel to the volume of water which it diſplaces in rolling, bears a little proportion to the force of the vibration above the centre of gravity, the radius of which extends as high as the maſt-heads. But if the centre of gravity is placed higher above the keel, the radius of vibration will not only be diminiſhed, but an additional force to oppoſe the motion of rolling will be communicated to that part of the ſhip's bottom which is below the centre of gravity. So far as relates to the effect of rolling when produced by the quality or ſtowage of the ballaſt, and to the manner by which it may be prevented, viz. a change of the quantity or poſition of the ballaſt, we ſhall endeavour to explain under the article TRIM. It may, however, be neceſſary to remark, that the conſtruction of the ſhip's bottom may alſo contribute to diminiſh this movement conſiderably. Many fatal diſaſters have happened to ſhips ariſing from a violent rolling. See PITCHING.

(2.) ROLLING FORK, a river of Kentucky, a principal Southern branch of Salt River.

(3.) * ROLLINGPIN. *n. ſ.* [*rolling* and *pin.*] A round piece of wood tapering at each end, with which paſte is moulded.—The pin ſhould be thick as a *rollingpin. Wiſeman.*

(4.) * ROLLING-PRESS. *n. ſ.* A cylinder rolling upon another cylinder, by which engravers print their plates upon paper.

(5.) ROLLING PRESS. See PRESS, § 9.

(6.) ROLLING TACKLE, a pulley or purchase faſtened to that part of a ſail-yard which is to the windward of the maſt, in order to confine the yard cloſe down to the leeward when the ſail is furled. It is uſed to prevent the yard from having a great friction

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dion againſt the maſt in a high ſea, which would equally pernicious to both.

OLLIUS, Reinhold Henry, a learned German hyſician, who, in 1779, publiſhed a very uſeful k, entitled, The Lives of the Philoſophers, ors, Poets, Hiſtorians, and Philologers.

OLLO, the conqueror of Normandy, was a regian duke, baniſhed from his country by old Harfager, who conquered Norway in 870, count of his piracies. He firſt retired with his among the iſlands of the Hebrides to the NW. land, whither the flower of the Norwegian y had fled for refuge, ever ſince Harold had e maſter of the kingdom. He was there re- d with open arms by thoſe warriors, who, for conqueſt and revenge, waited only for a to lead them on. Rollo, ſetting himſelf at head, ſailed towards England, which had been a field open to the violence of the northern n. But the great Alfred had ſome years be- eſtabliſhed ſuch order in his part of the iſland, Rollo, after ſeveral fruitleſs attempts, deſpair- of forming there ſuch a ſettlement as ſhould e him amends for the loſs of his own coun- He pretended, therefore, to have had a ſu- natural dream, which promiſed him a glorious e in France, and which ſerved at leaſt to t the ardour of his followers. The weakneſs government in that kingdom, and the con- n which it was involved, were ſtill more per- reaſons to enſure them of ſucceſs. Having e ſailed up the Seine to Rouen, he immedi- took that capital of the province, then called RTIA, and making it his magazine of arms, anced up to Paris, to which he laid ſiege n. This war at length ended in the entire n of Neuſtria, which Charles the Simple was d to give up to Rollo and his Normans, to e a peace. Rollo received it in perpetuity elf and his poſterity, as a feudal duchy de- nt on the crown of France. (See FRANCE, and NORMANDY.) The interview be- Charles and this new duke gives a curious e of theſe Normans; for Rollo would not e oath of fealty to his ſovereign lord any way than by placing his hands within thoſe thing; and abſolutely refuſed to kiſs his feet, him then required. It was with great diffi- he was prevailed on to let one of his war- perform this ceremony in his ſtead; but the r to whom Rollo deputed this ſervice, ſud- raiſed the king's foot ſo high, that he over- him on his back; a piece of rudeneſs which only laughed at; to ſuch a degree were the mans feared and Charles deſpiſed. Soon after was perſuaded to embrace Chriſtianity, and baptized by the Abp. of Rouen in the cathe- As ſoon as he was in full poſſeſſion of Nor- dy, he exhibited ſuch virtues as rendered the ce happy, and almoſt obliterated his former es. Religious, wiſe, and liberal, this cap- n of pirates became, after Alfred, the greateſt moſt humane prince of his time.

ROLLOCK, Robert, the firſt principal of the ge of Edinburgh, was the ſon of David Rol- of *Poo bogie*, or *Powis*, near Stirling. He was in 1555; and learned the rudiments of the tin tongue under Mr Thomas Buchanan, an e- minent grammarian. He was next ſent to St Andrews, and admitted a ſtudent in St Salvator's college. His progreſs in the ſciences was ſo rapid, that he had no ſooner taken his degree of M. A. than he was choſen a profeſſor of philoſophy, and read lectures in St Salvator's college. The magiſtrates of Edinburgh, on the erection of the univerſity in that city, in 1582, made choice of Mr Rollock to be principal and profeſſor of divinity. He ſoon became famous for his lectures in theology, and for the perſuaſive power of his preaching. In 1593, Principal Rollock and others were appointed, by the ſtates of parliament, to conter with the popiſh lords. In 1595 he was nominated one of the commiſſioners for the viſitation of colleges; to inquire into the doctrine and life of the maſters, the diſcipline uſed by them; the ſtate of their rents, &c. and to report to the next aſſembly. In 1597, he was choſen moderator of the General Aſſembly—the higheſt dignity in the Scottiſh church; and he had the influence to get ſome great abuſes redreſſed. Being one of 14 miniſters appointed to take care of the affairs of the church, he procured an act of the legiſlature, reſtoring to the prelates their ſeats in parliament. He had here to reconcile to this meaſure, not only ſuch miniſters as abhorred all kinds of ſubordination in the church, but likewiſe many of the lay lords, who were not fond of ſuch aſſociates in parliament. He was dreadly afflicted with the ſtone; the torments of which he long bore with Chriſtian reſignation. He died at Edinburgh on the 28th Feb. 1598, aged 43; having exhorted his brethren to carry themſelves dutifully to the king. His works are, 1. A Commentary on the Firſt Book of Beza's Queſtions. 2. Another on the Epiſtle to the Epheſians, 4to, Edin. 1598. 3. A 3d on Daniel, 4to, Edin. 1591. 4. Analyſis of St Paul's Epiſtle to the Romans, 8vo, Edin. 1594. 5. Queſtions and Anſwers concerning the Covenant of Grace and the Sacraments, 8vo Edin. 1599. 6. A Treatiſe of effectual Calling, 8vo, Edin. 1597. 7. A Commentary on the Epiſtles to the Theſſalonians and Philemon, 8vo, Geneva, 1597. 8. A Commentary on 15 Select Pſalms, 8vo, Geneva, 1598. 9. A Commentary on the Goſpel of St John, with a harmony of the Four Evangeliſts upon the Death, Reſurrection, and Aſcenſion of Jeſus Chriſt, 8vo, Geneva, 1590. 10. Sermons on Several Places of St Paul's Epiſtles, 8vo, Edin. 1598. 11. A Commentary upon the Epiſtle to the Coloſſians, 8vo, Geneva, 1602. 12. Analyſis of the Epiſtle to the Hebrews, 8vo, Edin. 1605. 13. Analyſis of the Epiſtle to the Galatians, 8vo, Lond. 1602. 14. A Commentary upon the Two Firſt Chapters of 1 Peter, 8vo, Lond. 1603. 15. and 16. A Treatiſe of Juſtification, and another of Excommunication, both in 8vo, Lond. 1604. All theſe works, except the ſermons, are in Latin.

ROLLRICH, or ROLLRICH STONES, an ancient monument in Oxfordſhire, in the pariſh of Chipping Norton, near Long Compton, ſuppoſed to be the remains of a Britiſh temple.

* ROLLYPOLLY. *n. ſ.* A ſort of game, in which, when a ball rolls into a certain place, it wins. A corruption of *roll ball into the pool*.—Let us begin ſome diverſion: what d'ye think of *rouly pouly* or a country dance? *Arbuthnot.*

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ROM,

ROM, or ROEM, an island of Denmark, on the E. coast of Jutland; 5 miles long, and 2½ broad; containing several villages.

ROMA. See ROME.

* ROMAGE. *n. s.* [*ramage*, Fr.] A tumult; a bustle; an active and tumultous search for any thing. It is commonly written RUMMAGE, which see.—

This is the main motive
Of this post haste, and *romage* in the land. *Shak.*

ROMAGNA, a ci-devant province of Italy, formerly in the pope's territories, but annexed to the Cisalpine Republic in 1797; and now included in the ITALIAN REPUBLIC, of which it constitutes the department of the Rubicon. (See RUBICON.) It was bounded on the N. by the Ferrarese, S. by Tuscany and the duchy of Urbino, E. by the Gulf of Venice, and W. by the Bolognese and a part of Tuscany. It is fertile in corn, wine, oil, fine fruits, and pastures. It has also mines, mineral waters, and salt-works, which make its principal revenue. RAVENNA was the capital; but Cesena is now the capital of the Rubicon.

(1.) ROMAINE, rev. Willam, a late popular English divine; born at Hartlepool, in Durham, in 1714; and educated first at Hertford College, Oxford, afterwards at Christ-church, where he made himself master of the Hebrew, and became a zealous Hutchinsonian. He was ordained in 1737, and in 1738, attacked Bp. Warburton's *Divine Legation of Moses*. In 1739, he preached a sermon before the University against the Bp's doctrine. In 1739, he was chosen lecturer of St Dunstan's W. and in 1740, preacher at St George's. He was now become so popular, that the churches were crowded; on which account he was dismissed from the latter. He was next appointed professor of astronomy at Gresham College, but soon resigned it. In 1764, he was elected rector of St Andrew, and St Anne, Blackfriars. He died in 1765, with the character of a powerful preacher, and a good writer. His works, consisting of sermons and practical tracts, were published in 8 vols. 8vo. 1766. He also published Calasio's Hebrew Concordance, in 4 vols. folio, 1749.

(2, 3.) ROMAINE MOTIER, a handsome town of the Helvetic republic, in the territory of Romand, and capital of a late bailiewic so named; with a castle, seated in a valley at the foot of a high mountain.

(1.) ROMAN, *adj.* Of or belonging to Rome. See ROME. Entitled to Roman privileges.

(2.) ROMAN, CAPE, a promontory of the United States, on the coast of S. Carolina. Lon. 79. 30. W. Lat. 35. 5. N.

(3.) ROMAN, CAPE, a cape on the coast of Florida, about 60 miles NW. by N. of Cape Sable; the SW. point of the peninsula of Florida.

(4.) ROMAN, CAPE, a cape of Terra Firma, on the N. coast; which is the N. point of the Peninsula, and the Eastern limit of the Gulf of Venezuela. It lies 26 miles S. of the island of Orua, or Aruba.

(5.) ROMAN CATHOLICS, a name generally given to the members of the Church of Rome. See CATHOLIC, § 2; PAPIST, § 1, 2; POPE, § 5—8; and POPERY.

(6.) ROMAN REPUBLIC, ANCIENT. The republican form of government continued among the ancient Romans 461 years, from the abolition of monarchy A. U. C. 245, to its restoration under the imperial form by Julius Cæsar. Some protract the existence of the republic till the battle of Actium, when Octavianus, by the defeat of Mark Antony, became sole monarch: but Julius Cæsar having obtained both the title and the power of emperor, ought certainly to be reckoned the first of that dynasty, though his reign was short. See ROME, § 36.

(7.) ROMAN REPUBLIC, MODERN. Of the erection and overthrow of this short-lived democracy, with the oppressions of the people, by the French, during its continuance, we have given a full account under the article REVOLUTION, VI. 32; and need only add here the names of the departments, into which it was divided on the occasion, with their chief cities. These were The *Tiber*; capital, Rome: 2. *Circeo*; Anagni: 3. *Cimino*; Viterbo: 4. *Clitunno*; Spoleto: 5. *Trasimeno*; Perugia: 6. *Tronto*; Fermo: 7. *Musone*; Macerata: 8. *Metauro*; Ancona.

(8.) ROMANS, *n. s.* the people of Rome.

(9.) ROMANS, KING OF THE, in modern history, is a prince elected to be successor to the reigning emperor of Germany.

ROMANA, or ROMANO, a village of Scotland in Tweed-dale, seated on the Lene; near the ruins of two ancient Roman *castella*, or forts.

(1.) * ROMANCE. *n. s.* [*roman*, Fr. *romanzo*, Italian.] 1. A military fable of the middle ages; a tale of wild adventures in war and love.—

What resounds
In fable or *romance* of Uther's son.

A brave *romance* who would exactly frame,
First brings his knight from some inchanted dame.

—Some *romances* entertain the genius. *Dryden.*

A lie; a fiction. In common speech.—

A staple of *romance* and lies,
False tears and real perjuries.

(2.) ROMANCE, in matters of literature, a fabulous relation of certain adventures designed for the entertainment and instruction of the reader, and differing from the *novel*, as it always exhibits actions great, dangerous, and generally exceeding gant. See NOVEL.

* *To* ROMANCE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To lie; to forge.—This is strange *romancing*, Pistol.

* ROMANCER. *n. s.* [from *romance*.] A liar; a forger of tales.—The allusion of the dawn tends to all impostors, vain pretenders, and *romancers*. *L'Estrange.*—

Shall we, cries one, permit
This lewd *romancer?*

ROMAND, a district of Switzerland.

(1.) ROMANELLI, John Francis, a historical painter born at Viterbo, in 1617. He was a disciple of Peter De Cortona, whose style he imitated happily. Lewis XIV. employed and honoured him. He died in 1662.

(2.) ROMANELLI, Urban, son of the above painted in the style and manner of his father, but not so well. He died in 1682, aged 44.

ROMANIA, a province of Turkey in Europe bounded on the N. by Bulgaria, E. by the Black Sea, S. by the Archipelago and the sea of Marmora

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ions, and W. by Macedonia and Bulgaria; being 200 miles long, and 150 broad. It was formerly called THRACE, and is the principal and richest of all the provinces the Turks poſſeſs in Europe. It is a fruitful country in corn and paſturage, and there are mines of ſilver, lead, and alum. It is divided into three great governments or ſangiacates; namely, Kirkel, of which Philippi is the capital; Galipoli, whoſe capital is of the ſame name; and Byzantium, or Ryzia, or Viſa, of which CONSTANTINOPLE is the capital. The Turks beſtow the name of ROMELIA on all the territories they poſſeſs in Europe.

ROMANINO, Jerolam, an hiſtorical painter of Rome, born in 1504. Many of his pictures are in the churches of Breſcia.

To ROMANIZE, *v. a.* [from *roman*, Fr.] To latiniſe; to fill with modes of the Roman tongue.—He did too much *romanize* our tongue.

ROMANO, Julius, a famous painter, who was the diſciple of Raphael, who left him one of his heirs, though he was much inferior to him. He was ſuperior to moſt painters, in his knowledge of antiquity. He was well ſkilled in architecture. He embelliſhed Mantua with many of his performances both in painting and architecture, and died in that city, in 1545, aged 54; much regretted by the marquis, who had an extraordinary friendſhip for him.

ROMANO, a ſtrong and populous town of Italian republic, in the department of the Serio, diſtrict and late province of Bergamo. It has a great trade in corn, and is ſeated on a rivulet that runs from the Oglio into the Serio. It is well built, and has an ancient caſtle ſurrounded with walls.

ROMANO, a ci-devant diſtrict of Italy, in the Bergamaſco, of which the above town was the capital. It contained 3000 citizens in 1797.

ROMANO. See ROMANA.

ROMANO, or } an iſland lying off the N.
ROMANO CAVO, } coaſt of the iſland of Candia, long and narrow.

ROMANS, an ancient town of France, in the department of the Drome, and ci-devant province of Dauphiny. It is ſeated on a fine plain, on the banks of the Iſere, and its ſituation and ſcenery are compared by Roſſin and other oriental travellers to thoſe of Jeruſalem. It is 22 miles SW. of Grenoble, and 30 S. of Vienne. Lon. 5. 12. E. Lat. 45. 2. N.

ROMANTICK. *adj.* [from *romance*.] 1. Reſembling the tales of romances; wild.—Philoſophers have maintained opinions, more abſurd than any of the moſt fabulous poets or *romantick* writers. *Kid.*—Zeal for the good of one's country a thing of men have repreſented, as chimerical and *romantick*. *Addiſon.* 2. Improbable; falſe. 3. Fanciful; full of wild ſcenery.—

The dun umbrage, o'er the falling ſtream,
Romantick hangs. *Thomſon.*

ROMANUS I. emperor of Conſtantinople, was born in Armenia. He was a ſoldier in the army of the emperor Baſil I. whoſe life he ſaved in a battle againſt the Saracens, which paved the way for his promotion. Conſtantine VIII. gave him his daughter in marriage, and made him his colleague, in 919. He obtained the ſole dominion on his death, and governed with great juſtice and humanity. He died in 948.

ROMANUS II. emperor of the Eaſt, was the ſon of Conſtantine VIII. whom he murdered, and ſucceeded, in 959. He baniſhed his mother Helena, and debauched his ſiſters. This monſter died by intemperance, in 963.

ROMANUS III. obtained the imperial throne by his marriage with the empreſs Zoe, and began to reign in 1028. He was a weak prince, and was poiſoned by his wife, in 1034.

ROMANUS IV. called alſo DIOGENES, was one of the braveſt officers and beſt men in the Eaſtern empire. He ſucceeded Conſtantine XII. in 1068, and married his widow, Eudocia. He expelled the Saracens, who had made great ravages in the empire. In 1071, however, he was taken captive by them, but was generouſly liberated by the Sultan Axan. See CONSTANTINOPLE, § 11. He died in 1071.

(1.) ROME, a very ancient and celebrated city of Italy, ſituated on the river Tiber; once the capital of the greateſt empire in the world; and famous in modern hiſtory for being the centre of an eccleſiaſtical tyranny, by which for many ages the greateſt part of the world was held in ſubjection. Rome is 410 miles SSE. of Vienna; 600 SE. of Paris; 730 E. by N. of Madrid; 960 W. of Conſtantinople; and 780 SE. of London. Lon. 12. 55. E. Lat. 41. 54. N.

(2.) ROME: ANCIENT HISTORY OF ITALY, FROM ÆNEAS'S ARRIVAL IN IT, TILL HIS DEATH. The ancient Romans derived their origin from ÆNEAS, the Trojan hero: and though ſome hiſtorians pretend to treat his voyage into Italy as a fable, yet as no ſufficient reaſons for rejecting this account have been offered, nor has any more probable hiſtory of the origin of the Roman name been given, we ſhall proceed to the hiſtory of Æneas and his ſucceſſors, as recorded by the Latin writers. When the Greeks, by treachery or other means, were become maſters of Troy, Æneas with the forces under his command retired into the fortreſs of the city, and defended it bravely for ſome time; but at length he conveyed away his gods, his father, wife, and children, with every thing valuable, and, followed by a crowd of Trojans, fled to Mount Ida. Hither all his countrymen, who were anxious to preſerve their liberty, flocked to him. His army thus augmented and advantageouſly poſted, he continued quiet, waiting for the departure of the Greeks, who were expected to return home as ſoon as they had pillaged the country. But theſe, after they had enriched themſelves with the ſpoils of Troy and the neighbouring towns, turned their arms againſt the fugitives, upon the mountain. Æneas, to avoid the hazard of being forced from his laſt refuge, had recourſe to negociation. Peace was granted, on condition that he with his followers ſhould quit the Trojan territories; and the Greeks, on their part, promiſed not to moleſt him in his retreat, but to let him ſafely paſs through any country within their territories. Upon this aſſurance, Æneas equipped a fleet, to ſeek a ſettle-

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ment in ſome foreign land. At his departure he left his eldeſt ſon Aſcanius with the Daſylites, a people of Bithynia, who deſired to have him for their king; but the young prince did not remain long with them; for when Scamandrius (or Aſtyanax) with the reſt of the ſons of Hector, whom Neoptolemus permitted to return home from Greece, repaired to him, he put himſelf at their head, and led them back to their native country. Æneas having croſſed the Helleſpont, arrived in the peninſula of Pallene, where he built a city, called *Æneia*, and left in it a part of thoſe who had followed him. Thence he ſailed to Delos, and to Cythera, where he erected a temple to Venus. He built another to her in Zacynthus, in which iſland he likewiſe inſtituted games, called the *races of Æneas and Venus*: the ſtatues of both, ſays Dionyſius, were ſtanding to his time. In Leucas, where the Trojans landed, was alſo to be ſeen, in his time, a temple erected to Venus, the mother of Æneas. Nor were Actium and Ambracia without ſimilar monuments of his arrival. At Dodona were found brazen vaſes, upon which the name of the Trojan hero, who had made an offering of them to Jupiter, was engraven in old characters. Near Buthrotos, in Epirus, a Trojan camp which had eſcaped the injuries of time, retained the name of *Troja*. All theſe antiquities, ſtill ſubſiſting in the reign of Auguſtus, were then looked upon as proofs of Æneas's voyage to Epirus: "and that he came into Italy (adds Dionyſius) we have the concurrent teſtimony of all the Romans." The firſt land of Italy which Æneas made, after croſſing the Ionian ſea, was cape Minerva, in Iapygia; and here he went on ſhore. Afterwards coaſting along the SE. of Italy and the E. and S. ſides of Sicily, he arrived with his fleet at the port of Drepanum in that iſland. Elymus and Ægeſtus, who had eſcaped from Troy a little before him, had brought a Trojan colony to this place. Æneas augmented it by a number of his followers, whom, pleaſed to have found a ſafe reſting place after many dangers and fatiguing voyages, he willingly left behind him at their requeſt. Æneas next ſteered his courſe for Italy acroſs the Tyrrhenian ſea. To the cape where he firſt landed, he gave the name PALINURUS, from one of his pilots who fell overboard. The little iſland of Leucaſia, whither he ſailed next, got its name from a daughter of Æneas's ſiſter, who died there. The port of Miſenum, the iſland of Prochyta, and the promontory of Cajeta, where he ſucceſſively arrived, were ſo called from being the burial places, the firſt of a noble Trojan his companion, the ſecond of his kinſwoman, and the third of his nurſe. At length the Trojan prince and his choſen band finiſhed their tedious and painful voyages, on the coaſt of the ſince famous Latium. This was a ſmall territory on the E. ſide of the Tiber, containing a part of the preſent *Campagna di Roma*: Latinus was the king of it; his capital, Laurentum; his ſubjects, a people who, till his time called *Aborigines*, had from him taken the name of *Latins*. Here, far removed from their implacable enemies the Greeks, Æneas and his followers undertook to raiſe a ſecond Troy: they fortified a camp near the mouth of the Tiber, gave it the name of *Troy*, and flattered themſelves with the hopes of a quiet ſettlement. When Æneas arrived in Italy, Latinus was engaged in a war with the Rutuli, a neighbouring people, in which he was attended with but very indifferent ſucceſs, when news was brought him that a foreign army had made a deſcent on his coaſts, pillaged his dominions, and were fortifying themſelves in a camp near the ſea. Hereupon he marched againſt them with all his forces; but finding them, as drew near, well armed, and regularly drawn, he thought it adviſable to forbear engaging them that appeared ſo well diſciplined; and to de a parley. In this conference Latinus undertaking who they were, and being at the ſame ſtruck with terror, and touched with compaſſ for thoſe brave but unfortunate men, entered to a treaty with them, and aſſigned them a of land for a ſettlement, on condition that ſhould employ their arms and exert their in defence of his dominions, and look upon Rutuli as a common enemy. This condition neas readily accepted; and complied with gagement ſo faithfully, that Latinus came length to repoſe an entire confidence in the jan; and in proof of it gave him Lavinia, his ly child, in marriage, thus ſecuring to him ſucceſſion to the throne. Æneas, to teſtify gratitude to Latinus, and affection for La gave her name to his camp, and called it *nium*. The Trojans followed the example their leader; and by making alliances with families, became, in a ſhort time, one and ſame people with the Latins. In the mean Turnus, the queen's nephew, who had brought up in the palace under the eye of nus, and entertained hopes of marrying La and ſucceeding to the throne, ſeeing the p beſtowed on a ſtranger, and all his views ed, went over to the Rutuli; and by them up, brought on a battle between the the Latins, in which both he and Latinus killed. Thus Æneas, by the death of his in-law, and by that of a troubleſome rival into the quiet poſſeſſion of the kingdom um, which he governed with great wiſdom tranſmitted to his poſterity. Æneas reig years, during which he eſtabliſhed the wor the gods, and to the religion of the Latins that of Troy. The two Palladiums, which been the protectors of that city, became the telary deities of Lavinium, and, in after ages the whole Roman empire. The worſhip of V was likewiſe introduced by Æneas; and virg from her called *Veſtals*, were appointed to kee fire continually burning in honour of that g deſs. Jupiter, Venus, and many other de who had been revered in Troy, became known the Latins by Æneas. Mean time the Rutuli, cient enemies of the Latin name, entering into alliance with Mezentius, king of the Tyrrheni took the field to drive out thoſe new comers. neas marched out againſt them at the head o Trojans and Latins. Hereupon a batt'e en which laſted till night; when Æneas being p ed to the banks of the Numicus, which ran by Lavinium, and forced into that river,

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were drowned. The Trojans concealed his body; and pretending that he had vaniſhed on a ſudden, made him paſs for a deity among his credulous ſubjects, who erected a temple to him under the title of *Jupiter Indiges*.

(5.) ROME: ANCIENT HISTORY OF ITALY, FROM ÆNEAS'S DEATH TILL THE BIRTH OF ROMULUS AND REMUS. Upon the death of Æneas, his ſon Ilioneon, called alſo *Aſcanius* and *Iulus*, ſucceeded; but as he did not think it adviſable to venture a battle in the beginning of his reign, with a formidable enemy, who promiſed himſelf great things from the death of Æneas, he tried whether he could, by treaty, put an end to ſo dangerous a war. But the haughty Mezentius demanded of the Latins, as one of the conditions of a peace, that they ſhould pay him yearly, by way of tribute, all the wine produced in the territory of Latium. Aſcanius rejected the propoſal with indignation; and having cauſed all the vines throughout his dominions to be conſecrated to Bacchus, and thus put it out of his power to comply with the enemy's requeſt, he reſolved to make a vigorous ſally, and try whether he could, by force of arms, bring the inſulting Tyrrhenian to more reaſonable terms. The main body of the enemy's army was encamped at ſome diſtance from Lavinium; but Lauſus, the ſon of Mezentius, with the flower of their youth under his command, lay entrenched at the gates of the city. The Trojans, marching out in the night, attacked the poſt where Lauſus commanded, forced his entrenchments, and obliged his troops to betake themſelves by flying to the main body of the army encamped on the plain; but the unexpected arrival and overthrow of their advance guard ſtruck them with ſuch terror, that, inſtead of ſtopping the flight of their companions, they fled before them, in great diſorder, to the neighbouring mountains. The Latins purſued them, and in the purſuit Lauſus was killed: whoſe death ſo enraged Mezentius, that he immediately ſued for peace; which was granted him, upon condition that for the future the Tiber ſhould be the boundary between the Latin and Etrurian territories. In the mean time Lavinia, who had been left with child by Æneas, entertaining a ſtrong jealouſy of the ambition of her ſon-in-law, retired into the woods, and was there delivered of a ſon, far from his father, and the place of his birth, from the name of *Æneas Sylvius*: but as the queen's abſence, who had diſappeared on a ſudden, raiſed ſuſpicions at Lavinium prejudicial to the reputation of Aſcanius, he cauſed ſearch to be made after Lavinia, calmed her fears, and prevailed upon her to return to the town with her ſon, whom he ever after treated as a brother. Lavinium grew every day more populous; but as it was in reality the patrimony of Lavinia, and the inheritance of her ſon Sylvius, Aſcanius reſolved to reſign it to them, and build elſewhere another city for himſelf. This he made the place of his reſidence, and the capital of his new kingdom, calling it *Alba Longa*; *Alba*, from a white ſow, which we are told Æneas had found in the place where it was built; and *Longa*, to diſtinguiſh it from another town of the ſame name in the country of the Marſi; or rather, becauſe it extended, without having much breadth, the whole length of a lake near which it was built. It was 30 years after the building of Lavinium, that Aſcanius fixed his abode at Alba; and there he died, after a reign of about 38 years, 12 of which he had reſided at his new ſettlement. He left a ſon called *Iulus*; ſo that between him and Sylvius lay the right of ſucceſſion to the Latin throne; the latter being the ſon, and the former the grandſon, of Æneas. The Latins not thinking it their intereſt to continue divided, as it were, into two ſtates, reſolved to unite Alba and Lavinium into one ſovereignty; and as Sylvius was born of Lavinia the daughter of Latinus, and had thereby an undoubted title to the kingdom of his grandfather, whereas the other was but the ſon of a ſtranger, the Latins beſtowed the crown on Sylvius; and, to make Iulus ſome amends, decreed to him the ſovereign power in affairs of religion; a power which thenceforth continued in his family. Sylvius was ſucceeded by 13 kings of the ſame race, who for near 400 years reigned at Alba; but we ſcarce know any thing of them beſides their names, and the years of their reſpective reigns. Æneas Sylvius died, after a reign of 29 years. His ſon, *Æneas Sylvius* II. governed Latium 31 years. *Latinus Sylvius*, who ſucceeded him, ſwayed the ſceptre 51 years.—Alba reigned 39; Capetus, by Livy named *Atys*, 26; Capys, 28; and Capetus II. 13. Tiberinus, who ſucceeded him, engaged in a war which proved fatal to him; for in a battle which was fought on the banks of the Albula, he was forced into that river and drowned. From him the river took the name of *Tiber*, which it has born ever ſince. Agrippa ſucceeded Tiberinus after a reign of eight years; and left the throne, which he had held 41 years, to Alladius; who reigned 19, and was ſucceeded by Aventinus, who left his name to the hill Aventinus, where he was interred. Procas, who ſucceeded him, and reigned 23 years, was the father of Numitor and Amulius; and at his death bequeathed the throne to his elder ſon Numitor. But Amulius, who ſurpaſſed his brother in courage, drove him from the throne; and to ſecure it to himſelf, murdered Ægeſtus, Numitor's only ſon, and conſecrated his daughter Rhea Sylvia to the worſhip of Veſta, by which ſhe was obliged to perpetual virginity. But this precaution proved ineffectual; for as the Veſtal was going to a neighbouring ſpring to fetch water for the performance of a ſacrifice to Mars, ſhe was met and raviſhed by a man in a military habit, like that in which the god Mars is repreſented. Some authors think that this counterfeit Mars was a lover come thither by her appointment; others charge Amulius himſelf with uſing this violence to his niece, not ſo much to gratify his luſt, as to have a pretence to deſtroy her.—For ever after he cauſed her to be carefully watched, till ſhe was delivered of two ſons; and then exaggerating her crime in an aſſembly of the people, he prevailed upon them to ſentence her to death, and to condemn the fruit of her criminal amour to be thrown into the Tiber. The ſentence againſt Rhea was, according to ſome authors,

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changed by Amulius, at the request of his daughter Antho, into perpetual confinement, but executed against the twins; who being laid in a wooden trough, and carried to the foot of mount Palatine, were there turned adrift on the Tiber, which at that time overflowed its banks. But the wind and stream proved both so favourable, that at the fall of the water the two infants were left safe on the strand, and were there found by Faustulus, the chief of the king's shepherds, and suckled by his wife Acca Laurentia, who for her disorderly life was called *Lupa*; and this gave rise to the fabulous miracle of their being nursed by a she wolf.

(4.) ROME: ANCIENT HISTORY OF ITALY, TILL THE BUILDING OF THE CITY. As Faustulus was probably well acquainted with the birth of the twins, he took more than ordinary care of their education, and sent them to Gabii to be instructed there in Greek literature. As they grew up, they appeared to have something great in their mien and air which commanded respect; and the ascendant which they assumed over the other shepherds made them dreaded in the forests, where they exercised a sort of empire. A quarrel happening between the herdsmen of Amulius and those of Numitor, the two brothers took the part of the former against the latter; and some blood being shed in the fray, the adverse party, to be revenged on the twins *Romulus* and *Remus*, on the festival of Lupercalia, surprised Remus, and carried him before Numitor, to be punished according to his deserts. But Numitor feeling himself touched in the prisoner's favour, asked him where he was born, and who were his parents. His answer immediately struck Numitor with a lively remembrance of his two grandsons; their age, which was about 18 years, agreed with the time when the two infants were exposed upon the Tiber; and there needed no more to change his anger into tenderness. In the mean time Romulus, eager to rescue his brother, and pursue those who carried him off, was preparing to be revenged on them; but Faustulus dissuaded him from it; and on that occasion, disclosing to him his birth, awakened in his breast sentiments worthy of his extraction. He resolved, to attempt the delivering of his mother and grandfather from oppression. With this view he assembled the country people, and engaged them to come to the city on an appointed day, and enter it by different gates, provided with arms, which they were to conceal. Meantime Numitor made the same discovery to Remus concerning his parents, and the oppressions they groaned under; which so fired him, that he was ready to embark in any enterprise. But Numitor only desired him to acquaint his brother with what he had heard, and to send him to his house. Romulus soon came, and was followed by Faustulus, who took with him the trough or skiff in which the twins had been exposed, to show it to Numitor: but, as the shepherd betrayed an air of concern and earnestness in his looks, he was stopped at the gates of the city, led before Amulius, and examined concerning his burden. It was easily known by its make and inscription, which was still legible; and therefore Faustulus owned what it was, and confessed that the twins were living; but, to gain time, pretended that they were feeding flocks in a remote desert. In the mean time, the usurper's death being resolved on, Remus undertook to raise the city, and Romulus to invest the king's palace. The country people came at the time appointed, and formed themselves into companies each consisting of 100 men. They had no other ensigns but bundles of hay hanging upon long poles, which the Latins at that time called *manipuli*; and hence came the name of *manipulares*, originally given to troops raised in the country. With this tumultuous army Romulus beset the avenues of the palace, forced the guard, and having killed the tyrant, after he had reigned 42 years, restored his grandfather Numitor to the throne. Affairs being thus settled at Alba, the two brothers, by the advice of Numitor, undertook the founding of a new colony. The king bestowed on them those lands near the Tiber where they had been brought up, supplied them with all manner of instruments for breaking up ground, with slaves, and beasts of burden, and granted full liberty to his subjects to join them. Hereupon most of the Trojans, of whom there still remained 50 families in Augustus's time, chose to follow the fortune of Romulus and Remus, as did also the inhabitants of Pallantium and Saturnia, two small towns. For the more speedy carrying on of the work, it was thought proper to divide those who were to be employed in the building of the city into two companies, one under the command of Romulus, the other of Remus; but this division, which was designed purely with a view to the public welfare, and that the two parties might work by way of emulation, gave birth to two factions, and introduced a jealousy between the two brothers, which broke out when they came to choose a place for the building of their new city; for Remus was for the Aventine, and Romulus for the Palatine mount. Upon which, the matter being referred to their grandfather, he advised the contending parties to have recourse to the gods, and to put an end to the dispute by augury, to which he was himself greatly addicted. The day appointed for the ceremony being come, the brothers posted themselves each upon his hill; and it was agreed, that whoever should see the first flight, or the greatest number, of vultures, should gain his cause. After the two rivals had waited some time for the appearance of a favourable omen, Romulus affirmed that he had seen 12, but Remus, having actually seen six, suspected deceit; and, being told that Romulus had not seen the 12 vultures till after he had seen six, he insisted on the time of his seeing them, and the other on the number of birds that had been seen. This widened the breach, and, the parties being divided, while each man espoused the cause of his leader, the dispute grew so warm that, from words they came at length to blows. The shepherd Faustulus, who was equally fond of both the brothers, endeavouring to part the combatants, was killed. Some writers tell us, that Remus likewise lost his life in the fray; but the greater number place his death later, and say that he was killed by one Fabius, for having, in derision, leaped over the wall of the new city: but Livy says, the more common report was, that Remus fell by the hand of his brother. Romulus being

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now head of the colony, by having got the of his brother's party, applied his thoughts to the building of the city. He chose Palatine for its situation, and performed ceremonies which the superstition of the times had introduced. He first offered sacrifices to the gods; ordered all the people to do the and decreed, that eagles should be the auspices of his new colony. After this, great fires kindled before their tents, and all the people leaped through the flames to purify themselves. next dug a trench round the spot where the bounds of the people were afterwards held, and into it the first-fruits of whatever they were used to make use of for food: every man of colony was ordered to cast into the same trench handful of earth, brought either from his own the neighbouring country. The trench they called *Mundus*, that is, *the world*, and made it the centre round which the city was to be built. Then Romulus, yoking a bull and a cow to a plough, the share whereof was brass, marked out, by a deep furrow, the whole compass of the city. The two animals, the symbols of marriage, by which cities are peopled, were afterwards slain upon the altar. All the people followed the plough, throwing inwards the clods of earth which the ploughshare sometimes turned outwards. Where-ever a gate was to be made, the plough was lifted up and carried; and hence came the Latin word *porta*, a gate, derived from the verb *portare*, *to carry*. As the mount Palatine stood by itself, the city was inclosed within the line made by the plough, which formed almost the figure of a square; whence, by Dionysius Halicarnassensis, it is called *Roma Quadrata*. As to the exact year of the foundation of Rome, Fabius Pictor, the most ancient of all the Roman writers, places it in the second year of the 7th Olympiad; that is, according to Varro, in the year of the world 3256, of the flood 1546, and 748 before the Christian æra. The Romans began to build, as Plutarch and others say, the 21st of April; which day was consecrated to Pales, goddess of the shepherds; whence the feast of Pales, and that of the foundation of the city, were afterwards jointly celebrated at Rome.

ROME, ANCIENT HISTORY OF, TILL THE REIGN OF THE SABINE WOMEN. When Rome had arrived the utmost perfection which its rude founder could give it, it consisted of about 1000 houses, or huts; and was properly speaking a mere rural village, whereof the principal inhabitants followed the plough, being obliged to cultivate with their own hands the ungrateful soil of a barren country, which they had shared among themselves. Even the walls of Romulus's palace were made of rushes and covered with thatch. As every one had chosen his ground to build upon, without any regard to the regularity and beauty of the whole, the streets were both crooked and narrow. In short, Rome, till it was rebuilt after the burning of it by the Gauls, was rather a disordered heap of huts, than a city. Romulus next assembled the people, and desired them to choose what kind of government they would obey. Monarchy was the unanimous voice of the Romans, and Romulus was elected king. After this he applied himself to the establishment of good order and subordination among his subjects. He put on a habit of distinction for himself, appointed 12 lictors to attend him as guards, divided his subjects, who at this time consisted only of 33,000 men, into CURIÆ, DECURIÆ, PATRICIANS, PLEBEIANS, PATRONS, CLIENTS, &c. (See these articles.) After this he formed a senate consisting of 100 persons, chosen from among the patricians; and a guard of 300 young men called *celeres*, who attended the king, and fought either on foot or on horseback, as occasion required. The king's office at home was to take care of religious affairs; to be the guardian of laws and customs; to decide the weightier causes between man and man, referring those of smaller moment to the senate; to call together the senators, and assemble the people; first delivering his own opinion concerning the affair he proposed, and then ratifying by his consent what was agreed on by the majority. Abroad, and in the time of war, he was to command the army with absolute authority, and to take care of the public money. The senate were to be judges in matters of small importance, and to debate and resolve upon such public affairs as the king proposed by a plurality of voices. The people were allowed to create magistrates, enact laws, and resolve upon any war which the king proposed: but in all these things the consent of the senate was necessary. Romulus next proceeded to settle the religious affairs of his people. Many of the Trojan and Phrygian deities were added to those whom the Aborigines already worshipped. He chose priests, instituted festivals, and laid the foundation of a regular system of religon; after which, as his colony was still thinly peopled, he opened an asylum for fugitive slaves, homicides, outlaws, and debtors. These, however, he did not at first receive within the walls, but appointed for their habitation the hill Saturnius, called afterwards *Capitolinus*, on which he erected a temple to a divinity of his own invention, whom he named the *Asylean god*, under whose protection all criminals were to live securely. But afterwards, when the city was enlarged, the asylum was inclosed within the walls, and those who dwelt in it included among the citizens of Rome. When Romulus had thus settled every thing, a supply of women was still wanting to perpetuate its population. The neighbouring nations refused to give their daughters in marriage to such a crew of vagabonds as had settled in Rome; wherefore Romulus, by the advice of his grandfather Numitor, and with the consent of the senate, proclaimed a solemn feast and public games in honour of the Equestrian Neptune, called *Consus*. This occasioned a great concourse of people, who flocked from the adjacent parts to behold these pompous shows, together with the new city. But, in the midst of the solemnity, the Romans, rushing in with their swords drawn, seized all the young women, to the number of 683, for whom Romulus chose husbands. Among all these who were thus seized, only one married woman, named *Hersilia*, was found; and Romulus kept her for himself.

(6.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF K. ROMULUS. This violence soon brought on a war with the neighbouring nations. Acron king of Cænina,

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Cænina, a city near Latium, having entered into a league with the inhabitants of Cruſtuminum and Antemnæ, invaded the Roman territories. Romulus marched againſt them without delay, defeated the confederate army, killed their king in ſingle combat, decreed himſelf a triumph, and conſecrated the ſpoils of Acron to Jupiter Feretrius, under the name of *Opima Spolia*. The city of Cænina was razed to the ground, and the inhabitants tranſplanted to Rome, where they were admitted to the privileges of citizens. The king then marched with one legion (conſiſting at this time of 3000 foot and 300 horſe) againſt the Cruſtumini and Antemnates, both of whom he defeated in battle, and tranſplanted the inhabitants to Rome; which being incapable of holding ſuch a number, Romulus took in the hill Saturnius, on the top of which he built a citadel, committing the care of it to a noble Roman named *Tarpeius*. The citadel was ſurrounded on all ſides with ramparts and towers, which equally commanded the city and country. From the foot of the hill Saturnius a wall was carried on quite to the Tiber, and a gate opened in it named *Carmentalis*, from Carmenta the mother of Evander, who either lived there, or had ſome chapel or altar erected to her. Romulus had now become ſo formidable to his neighbours, and had ſo well eſtabliſhed his reputation for clemency, that ſeveral cities of Etruria voluntarily ſubmitted to him. Cœlius, an Etrurian general, led his troops to Rome, and ſettled on a hill near the city, from him named *Mount Cœlius*. The Sabines, however, not diſmayed at this increaſe of the Roman forces, ſent a deputation to Romulus, demanding reſtitution of the young women who had been carried off; and, upon his refuſal, marched to Rome with an army of 25,000 foot and 1000 horſe, under their king Titus Tatius. Romulus, having received ſupplies from Numitor and from Etruria, likewiſe took the field, with 20,000 foot and 800 horſe, with whom he ſeized an advantageous poſt, and fortified himſelf ſo ſtrongly, that he could not be attacked. The Sabine monarch then began to be apprehenſive of the event; but was extricated out of his difficulties by the treachery of Tarpeia daughter to the governor of the citadel, who agreed to betray that fortreſs to him, on condition of being rewarded with what the Sabines wore on their left arms, meaning their bracelets. But when they became maſters of this important place, they cruſhed Tarpeia under their bucklers, pretending that thus they diſcharged their promiſes, as they wore their bucklers alſo on their left arms. The poſſeſſion of the citadel enabled the Sabines to carry on the war with more ſucceſs; but, at laſt, in a general engagement, they were driven back into the citadel, whether they were purſued by the Romans; but the enemy, rolling down great ſtones from the top of the hill, wounded Romulus on the head, ſo that he was carried inſenſible out of the field of battle, while, in the mean time, his troops were repulſed, and purſued to the very gates of Rome. However, the king, ſoon recovering, encouraged his routed troops, and drove the enemy back into the citadel. But while the two nations were thus fiercely contending, the women, for whoſe cauſe the war had been commenced, undertook the office of mediators; and having obtained leave from the ſenate, marched in a body to the camp of the Sabines, where they pleaded the cauſe of their huſbands ſo effectually, that a treaty of union between the two nations was ſoon concluded on the following terms. 1. That the two kings ſhould reſide and reign jointly at Rome. 2. That the city ſhould ſtill, from Romulus, be called *Rome*; but the inhabitants *Quirites*, a name from their peculiar to the Sabines. 3. That the two nations ſhould become one; and that the Sabines ſhould be made free in Rome, and enjoy all the privileges of Roman citizens. As Rome was chiefly indebted for this increaſe of her power and ſplendor to the Sabine women, honourable privileges and marks of diſtinction were allowed them. Every one was commanded to give way to them; in capital cauſes they were exempted from the juriſdiction of the ordinary judges; and their children were allowed to wear a golden bulla hanging from their necks, and a particular ſort of robe called *prætexta*, to diſtinguiſh them. The two kings reigned with great harmony five years; during which time the only military exploit they accompliſhed was the reduction of the city of Cameria, at a ſmall diſtance from Rome. Four thouſand of the Camerini were tranſplanted to Rome, and a Roman colony ſent to repeople Cameria; ſoon after which the Sabine king was murdered by the Lavinians on account of granting protection to ſome of his friends, who had ravaged their territories. The Lavinians, fearing the reſentment of Romulus, delivered the aſſaſſins into his hands; but he ſent them back unpuniſhed, which gave occaſion to ſuſpect that he was not diſpleaſed with the death of his colleague. Soon after the death of Tatius, Rome was afflicted with famine and peſtilence. This encouraged the Camerini to revolt; but Romulus marching againſt them ſuddenly, defeated them with the loſs of 6000 men. After which he attacked the Fidenates, whoſe city ſtood about five miles from Rome, took their capital, and made it a Roman province. This drew upon him the reſentment of the Veientes, a powerful nation in the neighbourhood, who claimed Fidenæ as being in their juriſdiction; but their forces being defeated in two engagements, and a great number of them taken priſoners, they were obliged to ſue for peace. Romulus granted them a truce for 100 years, on condition that they delivered to him 7 ſmall towns on the Tiber, together with ſome ſalt pits near the mouth of that river, and ſent 50 of their chief citizens as hoſtages to Rome. The priſoners taken in this war were all ſold for ſlaves. The remaining part of the reign of Romulus was ſpent in making laws for the good of his people; but towards the end of his reign, he began to behave in an arbitrary manner. He paid no longer any regard to the ſenate, but aſſembled them only for form's ſake to ratify his commands. The ſenate therefore conſpired to deſtroy him, and accompliſhed their purpoſe, while he was reviewing his troops. A violent ſtorm of hail and thunder diſperſed the army; and the ſenators taking this opportunity, when they were left alone

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the king, killed him, and conveyed his body of fight. Some ſay, that to conceal the murthey cut his body in pieces, each of them ing away a part under his robe; after which told the people, that their king was on a n ſurrounded by flame, and ſnatched up into . This did not ſatisfy the ſoldiery, and diſturbances were about to enſue, when Proculus, a ſenator of diſtinction, having bled the Curiæ, told them and ſwore to it, Romulus had appeared to him, and enjoined acquaint the people, that their king was d to the gods from whom he originally but that he would continue to be propitiby them under the name of *Quirinus*.

(7.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF NUMA POMPILIUS. Romulus reigned, according common computation, 37 years: but ſome make his reign only about 17; it being likely, that a prince of ſuch an active ſpirit perform nothing worthy of record during of 10 years. Be this as it will, however, h of Romulus was followed by an interduring which the ſenators, to prevent aand confuſion, took the government into own hands. Tatius had added another 100 body; and theſe 200 ſenators divided themſelves into decuries or tens. Theſe decuries drew which ſhould govern firſt; and the decury to it fell enjoyed the ſupreme authority for ; yet in ſuch a manner, that one perſon the governing decury had the enſigns of ity at a time. To theſe another decury ed, each of them ſitting on the throne in , &c. But the people ſoon growing weary frequent change of maſters, obliged the to reſolve on the election of a king. The referred the election to the people, and the to the ſenate, who at laſt undertook the ſome difficulties, however, occurred: the did not chooſe to be ſubject to a Sabine; Sabines, as they had been ſubject to Roafter the death of Tatius, inſiſted that the ld be choſen out of their nation. At laſt it ed, that the king ſhould be a Sabine, but Romans ſhould make the choice. In conof this determination, the Romans elecPompilius, an auſtere philoſopher, who ried Tatia, the daughter of Tatius the g. After the death of his wife, he gave entirely up to philoſophy and ſuperſtition, ing from ſolitude to ſolitude, in ſearch of woods and fountains, which gave the peogreat opinion of his ſanctity. The philoſoat firſt rejected the offer of the kingdom; but at laſt prevailed upon, he ſet out for Rome, he was received with loud acclamations, had his election unanimouſly confirmed by enate. The reign of Numa is not memorable battles or conqueſts. He was averſe to war; made it his ſtudy to ſoften the manners of the ans, rather than to exalt them to ſuperiority their neighbours. He diſmiſſed the celeres, uraged agriculture, and divided the citizens diſtinct bodies of tradeſmen. This laſt meahe took, on purpoſe to aboliſh the diſtinction ween Romans and Sabines, which had hitherto the city into two factions; and this effectually anſwered his end: for now all of each particular profeſſion, whether Romans or Sabines, were obliged to aſſociate together, and had each their reſpective courts and privileges. In this diviſion the muſicians held the firſt rank, becauſe they were employed in the offices of religion. The goldſmiths, carpenters, curriers, dyers, taylors, &c. formed alſo diſtinct communities; and were allowed to make bye-laws among themſelves, to have their own feſtivals, particular ſacrifices, &c.—Though Numa himſelf is ſaid by Plutarch to have had pretty juſt notions of the Supreme Being, he nevertheleſs added innumerable ſuperſtitions to thoſe he found in Rome. He divided the miniſters of religion into eight claſſes, appointing to each their office with the greateſt preciſion; he erected a temple to Janus, the ſymbol of prudence, which was to remain open in time of war, and to be ſhut in time of peace. Another temple was erected to *Bona Fides*; and he invented a new kind of deities called *Dii Termini*, or boundaries, which he cauſed to be placed on the borders of the Roman ſtate, and of each man's particular lands.—The laſt reformation which Numa undertook, was that of the kalendar. (See CHRONOLOGY, *Index* and KALENDAR, § 4.) Theſe are all the remarkable tranſactions of the reign of Numa, which is ſaid to have continued 43 years; though ſome think that its duration could not be above 25 or 26.

(8.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF TULLUS HOSTILIUS. Numa's death was followed by a ſhort interregnum; after which Tullus Hoſtilius, the ſon or grandſon of the famous Herſilia, was unanimouſly choſen king. Being of a bold and fiery temper, he did not long continue to imitate his peaceful predeceſſor. The Albans, indeed, ſoon gave him an opportunity of exerciſing his martial diſpoſition. Cœlius, or *Cluilius*, who was at the head of the Alban republic, jealous of the growing greatneſs of Rome, privately commiſſioned ſome of the moſt indigent of his ſubjects to waſte the Roman territory; in conſequence of which, a Roman army entered the territories of Alba, engaged the robbers, killed many, and took a great number priſoners. A war ſoon commenced, in conſequence of this, between the two nations; but when the armies came in ſight of each other, their ardour cooled, neither of them ſeeming inclined to come to an engagement. This inaction raiſed a great diſcontent in the Alban army againſt Cluilius; inſomuch that he came to a reſolution of giving battle to the Romans next morning, or of ſtorming their trenches if they ſhould decline it. Next morning, however, he was found dead in his bed; after which the Albans choſe in his ſtead one METIUS FUFFETIUS, a man remarkable for his hatred to the Roman name, as Cluilius had been before him. Fuffetius, however, continued in the ſame ſtate of inactivity as his predeceſſor, until he received certain intelligence, that the Veientes and Fidenates had reſolved to deſtroy both Romans and Albans when they ſhould be weakened by a battle. Fuffetius then reſolved to come to an accommodation with the Romans; and, having obtained a conference with Tullus, both ſeemed equally deſirous of avoiding the calamities of war. But, to eſtabliſh the peace on the beſt foundation, Tullus propoſed,

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-ſed, that the chief families in Alba ſhould remove to Rome; or, if they were unwilling to leave Alba, that one common council ſhould be eſtabliſhed to govern both cities, under the direction of one of the two ſovereigns. Fuffetius took aſide thoſe who attended him, to conſult with them about this propoſal; but they, though willing to come to an accommodation with Romè, abſolutely refuſed to leave Alba. The only difficulty remaining, then, was to ſettle which city ſhould have the ſuperiority; and, as this could not be determined by argument, Tullus propoſed to determine it by ſingle combat betwixt himſelf and Fuffetius. This propoſal, however, the Alban general declined; and it was at laſt agreed, that three champions ſhould be choſen out of each camp to decide the difference. This produced the famous combat between the Horatii and Curiatii, by which the ſovereignty was decided in favour of Rome. See HORATII. Tullus now reſolved to call the Fidenates to an account for their treacherous behaviour during the war with Alba, and therefore cited them to appear before the ſenate; but they refuſed to appear, and took up arms in conjunction with the Veientes. Fuffetius, in obedience to the orders of Tullus, joined him with the Alban troops; but the day before the battle, he acquainted the principal officers with his deſign, which was to ſtand neuter till fortune had declared for one ſide, and then to join with the conqueror. This deſign being approved, Fuffetius, during the engagement, retired with his forces to a neighbouring eminence. Tullus perceived his treachery; but diſſembling his uneaſineſs, told his men that Fuffetius had poſſeſſed himſelf of that hill by his order, and that he was from thence to ruſh down upon the enemy. The Veientes, in the mean time, were diſmayed, and the Romans obtained the victory. After the battle, Tullus returned privately to Romè in the night; and having conſulted with the ſenate about the treachery of Fuffetius, returned to the camp by break of day. He then detached Horatius, who had conquered the 3 Curiatii, with a choſen body of horſe and foot, to demoliſh Alba, as had been concerted at Romè. In the mean time, he commanded both the Roman and Alban troops to attend him unarmed, but gave private orders to the Romans to bring their ſwords concealed under their garments. When they were aſſembled, he laid open the treachery of Fuffetius, and ordered him to be torn in pieces by horſes. His accomplices were all put to the ſword; and the inhabitants of Alba carried to Rome, where they were admitted to the privileges of citizens, and ſome of them even admitted into the ſenate. Tullus now turned his arms againſt Fidenæ, which he again reduced under the Roman yoke; and took Medullia, a ſtrong city of the Latins; after which he waged a ſucceſsful war with the Sabines, whoſe union with the Romans ſeems to have ceaſed with the time of Numa. This was the laſt of his martial exploits; after which we hear no more of him, but that he became extremely ſuperſtitious in his advanced years, giving ear to many fooliſh ſtories, and for which he appointed 9 days expiatory ſacrifices. As to the manner of his death authors are not agreed. Some tell us that he was killed by lightning, together with his wife, children, and his whole family; while others ſay that he was murdered with his wife and children by Ancus Martius. He died after a reign of 33 years, leaving the city greatly increaſed, but the ſoldiery much the ſame as they had been in the time of Romulus.

(9.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF ANCUS MARTIUS. After a ſhort interregnum Ancus Martius, the grandſon of Numa by his daughter Pompilia, and Numa Martius, his ſucceſſion, was unanimouſly choſen by the people and ſenate. Though naturally inclined to war, he began his reign with attempting to reſtore the ceremonies of Numa, which had been neglected by Tullus Hoſtilius. He endeavoured alſo to turn the attention of his people to huſbandry and other peaceful arts; adviſing them to lay aſide all habits of violence, and to return to their former employments. This gained him the affections of his ſubjects, but brought upon him the contempt of the neighbouring nations. The Latins, preſuming that their treaty with Rome was expired, made inroads into the Roman territories. Ancus, uſing the ceremonies directed by Numa, took the field with an army conſiſting entirely of new levied troops, and reduced the cities of Politorium, Tellena, and Ficana, tranſplanting the inhabitants to Rome. A new colony of Latins repeopled Politorium; but Ancus retook the place next year, and entirely demoliſhed it. He then laid ſiege to Medulia; which, though it had been ruined by Tullus Hoſtilius, was now ſtronger than ever, and ſubmitted after a ſiege of four years, when Ancus found himſelf obliged to undertake a 2d expedition againſt Ficana, which he had before reduced; and it was not without the utmoſt difficulty that he reduced it a 2d time. After this he defeated the Latins in a pitched battle; vanquiſhed the Fidenates, Veientes, and Sabines; and having taken in the hill Janiculum to be included within the walls, and built the port of Oſtia, he died in the 24th year of his reign.

(10.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF LUCIUS TARQUINIUS I. Ancus Martius left two ſons, one an infant, and the other about 15 years of age. Both of theſe he put under the tuition of Tarquin, the ſon of Lucumo a merchant in Etruria, who fled from that city to ſecure his wealth from Cypſeius, tyrant of the place. He ſettled at Tarquinii, one of the principal cities in Etruria, but finding that he could not there attain to any of the principal poſts in the city, on account of his foreign extraction, he removed to Rome, where he had been gradually raiſed to the rank of a patrician and ſenator. The death of Ancus Martius gave him an opportunity of aſſuming the regal dignity and ſetting aſide his pupils; and at the beginning of his reign he took care to ſtrengthen his party in the ſenate by adding 100 more to that body. Theſe were called *ſenatores minorum gentium*, becauſe they were choſen out of the plebeians; however, they had the ſame authority in the ſenate as the others, and their children were called *patricians*. Tarquin was not inferior to any of his predeceſſors either in his inclination or ability to carry on a war. He recommenced hoſtilities with the Latins; from whom he took the cities of Apiolæ, Cruſtuminum, Nomentum, and Collatia.

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e inhabitants of Apiolæ were ſold for ſlaves; thoſe of Cruſtuminum and Nomentum, who ſubmitted after their revolt, were treated with clemency. The inhabitants of Collatia were ed, and obliged to pay a large ſum of mo- the ſovereignty of it being given to Egerius, of Arunx, Tarquin's brother; whence he the name of *Collatinus*, which he tranſmitted his poſterity. Corniculum, another city of m, was taken by ſtorm, and reduced to aſh- This progreſs having greatly alarmed the La- ſeveral of them joined their forces to oppoſe formidable enemy; but being defeated in dy battle near Fidenæ, they were obliged ter into an alliance with Rome; upon which Latins having held a national conference, en- into a league with the Etrurians, and again the field with a very numerous army. But n, having defeated the confederate armies very bloody battles, obliged the Latin ci- ſubmit to dependence on Rome; and, ha- tered the city in triumph, built the circus the ſpoils taken from the enemy. The war the Latins was ſcarce ended, when another enced with Etruria. This was accounted moſt powerful nation in Italy, and was then ded into 12 tribes or lucumonies. Theſe ap- d a national aſſembly, in which it was de- that the whole force of Etruria ſhould be yed againſt Tarquin; and if any city pre- only to ſtand neuter, it ſhould be for ever from the national alliance. Thus a great was raiſed, with which they ravaged the territory, and took Fidenæ by the treach- ſome of its inhabitants. Tarquin, not be- a condition to oppoſe them at firſt, was o- to ſubmit to their ravages for a whole year; which he took the field with all the forces ould raiſe. The Roman army was divided wo bodies, one under the king, the other his nephew Collatinus. The latter, having his forces to plunder the country, was de- ; but Tarquin, in two engagements, van- the army which oppoſed him. He then ed againſt Fidenæ, where he gained a 3d after which he took the city. The citi- ſuſpected of betraying it to the enemy were ed to death; the reſt were baniſhed, and lands divided by lot among the Roman ſol- . Tarquin now haſtened to oppoſe the new y of the Etrurians before their forces could properly collected; and having come up with at Eretum, about 10 miles from Rome, de- ed them with great ſlaughter, for which vic- he was decreed a triumph by the ſenate; e the enemy were glad to ſue for peace; ich Tarquin granted, upon the ſole condition of owning his ſuperiority. Accordingly the E- rians ſent him all the enſigns of royalty which re in uſe among them, viz. a crown of gold, a one of ivory, a ſceptre with an eagle on the p of it, a tunic embroidered with gold, and a- ed with figures of palm branches, together ith a purple robe enriched with flowers of ſeveral lours. Tarquin, however, would not wear theſe agnificent ornaments till the ſenate and people had conſented to it by an expreſs law. He then ap- plied the regalia to the decoration of his triumph, and never afterwards laid them aſide. In this tri- umph he appeared in a gilt chariot, drawn by 4 horſes, clothed in a purple robe, and a tunic em- broidered with gold, a crown on his head and a ſceptre in his hand, attended by 12 lictors with their axes and faſces. Tarquin, having now ob- tained ſome reſpite from war, began to ornament the city. He built the walls with hewn ſtone, and erected thoſe famous common ſewers which have deſervedly been ranked among the wonders of the world. Rome now contained 4 hills with- in its compaſs, viz. the Palatinus, Tarpeius, Qui- rinalis, and Cœlius. In the valleys between theſe hills, the rain water and ſprings uniting, formed great pools which laid under water the ſtreets and public places. The mud made the way impaſ- ſable, and rendered the city unhealthy. Tarquin freed the city from this nuiſance, by conveying off theſe waters by ſubterraneous channels into the Tiber. In doing this, it was neceſſary to cut through hills and rocks a channel large enough for a navigable ſtream, and covered with arches ſtrong enough to bear the weight of houſes, which were frequently built upon them. All theſe arch- es were made of hard ſtone, and neither trouble nor expence were ſpared to make the work dura- ble. Their height and breadth were ſo conſider- able, that a cart loaded with hay could eaſily paſs through them under ground. The expence of conſtructing theſe ſewers was never ſo thoroughly underſtood as when it became neceſſary to repair them; for then the cenſors gave no leſs than 1000 talents to the perſon appointed for this purpoſe. Beſides theſe great works, Tarquin adorned the forum, ſurrounding it with gallaries in which were ſhops for tradeſmen, and building temples in it for the youth of both ſexes, and halls for the ad- miniſtration of public juſtice. He next engaged in a war with the Sabines, on pretence that they had aſſiſted the Etrurians. Both armies took the field, and came to an engagement on the confines of Sabinia, without any conſiderable advantage on either ſide; neither was any thing of conſequence done during the whole campaign. Tarquin then, conſidering with himſelf that the Roman forces were very deficient in cavalry, reſolved to add ſome new bodies of knights to thoſe already inſti- tuted by Romulus. But this project met with great oppoſition from the ſuperſtitious augurs, as the original diviſion of horſe into three bodies had been determined by auguries; and Actius Nævius, the chief of the diviners at that time, violently oppoſed the king's will. On this occaſion, cre- dulous hiſtorians ſay, that Tarquin, at the word of Nævius, cut a flint with a razor. See NÆVIUS, N° 1. This adventure, whatever was the truth of it, cauſed Tarquin to abandon his deſign of in- creaſing the number of bodies of horſe, and con- tent himſelf with augmenting the number in each body. He then renewed the war with the Sa- bines, ravaged their country, defeated them in three pitched battles, obliging them at laſt to ſub- mit to him, and put him in poſſeſſion of their country. In the decline of life he employed him- ſelf in further decorating the city, building tem- ples, &c. He was aſſaſſinated in his palace, in the

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the 80th year of his age, by the ſons of Ancus Martius, whom he had originally deprived of the kingdom.

(II.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF SERVIUS TULLIUS. After the death of Tarquin I. his widow Tanaquil preſerved the kingdom to her ſon-in-law Servius Tullius, by artfully giving out that the king was only ſtunned, and would ſoon recover; upon which the ſons of Ancus went voluntarily into baniſhment. The ſecond day after his deceaſe, Servius Tullius heard cauſes from the throne in the royal robes and attended by the lictors; but as he pretended only to ſupply the king's place till he ſhould recover, and thought it incumbent on him to revenge the wicked attempt upon his life, he ſummoned the ſons of Ancus to appear before his tribunal; and on their non-appearance, cauſed them to be declared infamous, and their eſtates to be confiſcated. After he had thus managed matters for ſome time in ſuch a manner as to engage the affections of the people, the death of Tarquin was publiſhed as a thing that had newly happened, and Servius Tullius aſſumed the enſigns of royalty, having none to diſpute with him. The new king ſhowed himſelf every way worthy of the throne. No ſooner were the Etrurians informed of Tarquin's death, than they ſhook off the yoke; but Servius quickly reduced them to obedience, depriving them of their lands, which he ſhared among the poor Roman citizens who had none. For this he was decreed a triumph by the people, in ſpite of the oppoſition of the ſenate, who could never be brought to approve of his election to the kingdom, tho' he was ſoon after legally choſen by the tribes. After Servius had obtained the ſanction of the popular voice, he marched a 2d time againſt the revolted Etrurians; and having again vanquiſhed them, was decreed another triumph. He then applied himſelf to the enlarging and adorning the city. He alſo added to the city the hills Eſquilinus and Viminalis, fixing his own palace on the Eſquilinus, to draw inhabitants thither. He likewiſe added a 4th tribe, which he called *Tribus Eſquilina*, to thoſe inſtituted by Romulus. He divided alſo the whole Roman territory into diſtinct tribes, commanding that there ſhould be at leaſt one place of refuge in each tribe, ſituated on a riſing ground, and ſtrong enough to ſecure the effects of the peaſants in caſe of a ſudden alarm. Theſe ſtrong holds he called *pagi*, i. e. *villages*; and commanded that each of them ſhould have their peculiar temple, tutelary god, and magiſtrates. (See PAGANALIA.) In the mean time, his two wards, Lucius Tarquinius and Arunx, the grandchildren of Tarquin I. being grown up, to ſecure their fidelity, he married them to his two daughters. And though the elder of theſe daughters, who was of a mild and tractable diſpoſition, reſembled in character the younger of his pupils, as the elder of his pupils did the younger of his daughters, who was of a violent and vicious temper, yet he thought it adviſable to give his elder daughter to Tarquin, and the younger to Arunx; as thus he matched them according to their ages, and hoped that the elder Tullia's ſweet diſpoſition would temper Tarquin's impetuoſity, and the younger Tullia's vivacity rouſe the indolence of Arunx. During the public rejoicing for theſe marriages, the 12 lucumonies of Etruria, uniting their forces, attempted to ſhake off the Roman yoke; but were in ſeveral battles defeated by Servius, and obliged to ſubmit on the conditions granted by his predeceſſor. For this ſucceſs Servius was honoured with a third triumph. The king being thus diſengaged from a troubleſome war, put in execution that maſterpiece of policy which Rome made uſe of ever after, and which eſtabliſhed a perpetual order and regularity in all the members of the ſtate, with reſpect to wars, the public revenues, and the ſuffrages in the comitia. The public ſupplies had hitherto been raiſed upon the people at ſo much an head without any diſtinction of rich and poor; whence it likewiſe followed, that when levies were made for the war, the rich and poor were equally engaged to take the field, according to the quota of their tribe; and as they all ſerved at their own expence, the poorer ſort could hardly bear the charges of a campaign. Beſides, as the more indigent of the people ſaw themſelves burdened with the ſame taxes as the rich, they pretended to an equal authority in the comitia: ſo that the election of kings and magiſtrates, the making peace or war, and the judging of criminals, were given up into the hands of a populace who were eaſily corrupted, and had nothing to loſe. Servius formed a project to remedy theſe evils, and put it in execution, by enacting a law, enjoining all the Roman citizens to bring in an account in writing of their own names and eſtates, and of thoſe of their fathers, wives, and children. All heads of families were alſo commanded to deliver in upon oath a juſt eſtimate of their effects, and to add to it the places of their abode, whether in town or country. Whoever did not bring in an account of his effects, was to be deprived of his eſtate, to be beat with rods, and publicly ſold for a ſlave. Servius, from theſe accounts, which he took to eaſe the poor by burdening the rich, and to pleaſe the latter by increaſing their power, to this end he divided the Roman people into five claſſes: the firſt claſs conſiſted of thoſe whoſe eſtates and effects amounted to the value of 100 drachmæ, or 100,000 aſes of braſs; the firſt method of computing being uſed by the Greeks, and the latter by the Latins. This claſs was ſubdivided into eighty centuries, or companies of men. To theſe Servius joined eighteen centuries of Roman knights, who fought on horſeback; and appointed this body of horſemen to be at the head of the firſt claſs, becauſe the eſtates of the knights exceeded the ſum neceſſary to be admitted into it. However, the public ſupplied them with horſes; for which a tax was laid upon the widows, who were exempt from all other tributes. This firſt claſs, including infantry and cavalry, conſiſted of 98 centuries. The 2d claſs comprehended thoſe whoſe eſtates were valued at 75 drachmæ, or 75,000 aſes of braſs. It was ſubdivided into 20 centuries, all foot. To theſe were added two centuries of carpenters, ſmiths, and other artificers. In the 3d claſs were thoſe whoſe were eſteemed worth 5000 drachmæ, or 50,000 aſes. This claſs was ſubdivided into 20 centuries. The 4th claſs was thoſe whoſe effects were rated

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value of 2500 drachmæ, or 25,000 aſes, and divided into 20 centuries; to which were added other centuries of trumpets and blowers of horn, who ſupplied the whole army with military muſic. The fifth claſs included thoſe whoſe ſubſtance did not amount to more than 11,000 drachmæ, or 12,500 aſes; and this claſs was divided into 30 centuries. The ſixth claſs comprehended all thoſe who were not worth ſo much as thoſe of the fifth claſs: they exceeded all the number any other claſs, but nevertheleſs were reckoned but as one century. The king exempted from theſe regulations all the advantages he expected. Levies for the army were no longer raiſed by tribes, nor were taxes laid on at ſo much a head, but all was levied by centuries. When an army of 20,000 men, or a large ſupply of money, was wanted for the war, each century furniſhed its quota both of men and money; ſo that the firſt claſs, which contained more centuries though fewer men, than all the others together, furniſhed more men and more money for the public ſervice than the whole Roman ſtate beſides. And by theſe means the Roman armies conſiſted for the moſt part of the rich citizens of Rome, who, as they had lands and effects to defend, fought with more reſolution, while their eſtates enabled them to bear the expence of a campaign. As it was but juſt the king ſhould make the firſt claſs amends for the weight laid on it, he gave almoſt the whole authority in public affairs, changing the comitia by curiæ, in which every man gave his vote, into comitia by centuries, in which the majority was not reckoned by ſingle perſons, but by centuries, how few ſoever there might be in a century. Hence the firſt claſs, which contained more centuries than the other five taken together, had every thing at its diſpoſal. The votes of this claſs were firſt taken; and if the 98 centuries happened to agree, or only 97 of them, the affair was determined, becauſe theſe made the majority of the 193 centuries which compoſed the ſix claſſes. If they differed, then the ſecond, the third, and the other claſſes in their order, were called to vote, but there was very ſeldom any occaſion to go lower than the 4th claſs for a majority of votes: ſo that by this good order Servius brought the affairs of the ſtate to be determined by the judgment of the moſt conſiderable citizens, who underſtood the public intereſt much better than the rude multitude, liable to be impoſed upon, and eaſily corrupted. And now the people being diſtributed into ſeveral orders, according to the cenſus or eſtimation of their eſtates, Servius reſolved to authorize this prudent regulation by ſome public act of religion, that it might be the more reſpected and the more laſting. Accordingly, all the citizens were commanded to appear, on a day appointed, in the Campus Martius, a large plain lying between the city and the Tiber, formerly conſecrated by Romulus to the god Mars. Here the centuries being drawn up in battalia, a ſolemn luſtration or expiatory ſacrifice was performed in the name of all the people. The ſacrifice conſiſted of a ſow, a ſheep, and a bull, whence it took the name of SUOVETAURILIA. The whole ceremony was called *luſtrum, a luendo*; that is, from praying, expiating, clearing, or perhaps from the goddeſs Lua, who preſided over expiations, and to whom Servius had dedicated a temple. This wiſe king conſidering, that in the ſpace of five years there might be ſuch alterations in the fortunes of private perſons as to entitle ſome to be raiſed to an higher claſs, and reduce others to a lower, enjoined that the cenſus ſhould be renewed every five years. As the cenſus was uſually cloſed by the luſtrum, the Romans henceforth began to compute time by luſtrums, each luſtrum containing the ſpace of five years. However, the luſtrums were not always regularly obſerved, but often put off, though the cenſus had been made in the fifth year. Some writers ſay, that Servius at this time coined the firſt money that had appeared at Rome. The government of the city being thus eſtabliſhed, Servius, touched with compaſſion for thoſe whom an unſucceſsful war had reduced to ſlavery, thought that ſuch of them as had by long and faithful ſervices deſerved and obtained their freedom, were much more worthy of being made Roman citizens, than foreigners who were admitted without diſtinction. He therefore gave the freed men their choice, either to return to their own country, or continue at Rome. Thoſe who choſe to continue, he divided into 4 tribes, and ſettled them within the city; and though they were diſtinguiſhed from the plebeians by their old name of *liberti*, or *freed men*, yet they enjoyed all the privileges of free citizens. The ſenate took offence at the regard which the king ſhowed to ſuch mean people, who had but lately ſhaken off their fetters; but Servius, by a moſt humane and judicious diſcourſe, entirely appeaſed the fathers, who paſſed his inſtitution into a law, which ſubſiſted ever after. This wiſe king, having thus eſtabliſhed order among the people, undertook at laſt to reform the royal power itſelf; his equity, which was the main ſpring of all his reſolutions, leading him to act contrary to his own intereſt, and to ſacrifice one half of the royal authority to the public good. His predeceſſors reſerved to themſelves the cognizance of all cauſes public and private; but Servius finding the duties of his office too much for one man to diſcharge well, committed the cognizance of ordinary ſuits to the ſenate, and reſerved that only of ſtate crimes to himſelf. All things being now regulated both in the city and country, Servius formed a ſcheme for attaching the Sabines and Latins to the Romans, by ſocial ties, ſtrengthened by religion. He ſummoned the Latin and Sabine cities to ſend their deputies to Rome, to conſult about an affair of great importance. When they were come, he propoſed to them the building of a temple in honour of Diana, where the Latins and Sabines ſhould meet once a-year, and join with the Romans in offering ſacrifices to that goddeſs, that this feſtival ſhould be followed by a council, in which all diſputes between the cities ſhould be amicably determined; that there proper meaſures ſhould be taken to purſue their common intereſt; and, laſtly, in order to draw the common people thither, a fair ſhould be kept, at which every one might furniſh himſelf with what he wanted. The king's deſign met with no oppoſition: the deputies only added to it, that the

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temple ſhould be an inviolable aſylum for the united nations; and that all the cities ſhould contribute toward the expence of building it. It being left to the king to chooſe a proper place for it, he pitched upon the Aventine hill, where the temple was built, and aſſemblies annually held in it. The laws which were to be obſerved in theſe general meetings were engraved on a pillar of braſs, and were to be ſeen in Auguſtus's time, in the Latin tongue, but in Greek characters. But now Servius was grown old; and the ambition of Tarquin his ſon-in-law increaſed in proportion as the king advanced in years. His wife uſed her utmoſt endeavours to check the raſhneſs and fury of her huſband, and to divert him from all criminal enterpriſes; while her younger ſiſter was ever inſtigating Arunx, who placed all his happineſs in a private life, to the moſt villanous attempts. She was continually lamenting her fate in being tied to ſuch an indolent huſband, and wiſhing ſhe had either continued unmarried, or were a widow. Similitude of temper and manners, formed, by degrees, a great intimacy between her and Tarquin. At length ſhe propoſed nothing leſs to him than the murdering of her father, ſiſter, and huſband, that they two might meet and aſcend the throne together. Soon after, they paved their way to an inceſtuous marriage, he, by poiſoning his wife, and ſhe her huſband; and then had the aſſurance to aſk the king's and queen's conſent to their marriage. Servius and Tarquinia, though they did not give it, were ſilent, through too much indulgence to a daughter in whom now was their only hope of poſterity. But theſe criminal nuptials were only the firſt ſtep towards a yet greater iniquity. The wicked ambition of the new married couple firſt ſhowed itſelf againſt the king: for they publicly declared, that the crown belonged to them; that Servius was an uſurper, who, being appointed tutor to Tarquin's grandchildren, had deprived his pupils of their inheritance; that it was high time for an old man, who was but little able to ſupport the weight of public affairs, to give place to a prince who was of a mature age, &c. The patricians, whom Servius had humbled during the whole of his reign, were eaſily gained over to Tarquin's party; and, by the help of money, many of the poorer citizens were alſo brought over. The king, being informed of their treaſonable practices, endeavoured to diſſuade his daughter and ſon-in-law from ſuch proceedings, which might end in their ruin; and exhorted them to wait for the kingdom till his death. But they, deſpiſing his counſels and paternal admonitions, reſolved to lay their claim before the ſenate; which Servius was obliged to ſummon. Tarquin reproached his father-in-law with having aſcended the throne without a previous interregnum; and with having bought the votes of the people, and deſpiſed the ſuffrages of the ſenate. He then urged his own right of inheritance to the crown, and injuſtice of Servius, who, being only his guardian, had kept poſſeſſion of it, when he himſelf was of an age to govern. Servius anſwered, that he had been lawfully elected by the people; and that, if there could be an hereditary right to the kingdom, the ſons of Angus had a much better one than the grandſons of the late king, who muſt himſelf have been an uſurper. He then referred the whole to an aſſe of the people; which being immediately proc ed all over the city, the forum was ſoon fi and Servius harangued the multitude in ſ manner as gained all their affections. The cried out with one voice, *Let Servius reig him continue to make the Romans happy.* h their confuſed clamours, theſe words were wiſe heard; *Let Tarquin periſh; let him d us kill him.* This language frightened him ſo he retired to his houſe in great haſte; whi king was conducted back to his palace wit acclamations of the people. The ill ſucceſs attempt cooled Tarquin's ardent deſire of ing; but his ambition made him act a new He undertook to regain the favour of his in-law by careſſes, ſubmiſſions, and proteſ of a ſingere regard and affection for him; in that the king was ſincerely reconciled to hi tranquillity re-eſtabliſhed in the royal family it was not long ere Tarquin, rouſed by th tinual reproaches of his wife, began to ren intrigues among the ſenators; of whom he ſooner gained a conſiderable party, than he ed himſelf in the royal robes, and cauſin faſces to be carried before him by ſome of h meſtics, croſſed the Roman forum, entere temple where the ſenate uſed to meet, and himſelf on the throne. Such of the ſena were in the faction he found already in the ces (for he had given them private notice there early); and the reſt, being ſummon aſſemble in Tarquin's name, made what ha could to the appointed place, thinking th vius was dead, ſince Tarquin aſſumed th and functions of king. When they were ſembled, Tarquin made a long ſpeech, re his father-in-law, and repeating the invect gainſt him, which he had ſo often uttered, him a ſlave, an uſurper, a favourer of the lace, and an enemy to the ſenate and pa When he was yet ſpeaking, Servius arriv raſhly giving way to the motions of his without conſidering his ſtrength, drew throne, to pull Tarquin down from it raiſed a great noiſe in the aſſembly, which the people into the temple; but nobody to part the two rivals. Tarquin therefore, more ſtrong and vigorous, ſeized the old m the waiſt, and, hurrying him through the te threw him down from the top of the ſte the forum. The king, who was grievouſly w ed, raiſed himſelf up with ſome difficulty: h his friends had abandoned him; only two or of the people, touched with compaſſion, k their arms to conduct him to his palace. A were leading him on ſo ſlowly, the cruel appeared in the forum, whither ſhe had ha in her chariot on the firſt report of what had paſſed in the ſenate. She found her huſband on top of the ſteps of the temple; and was the who ſaluted him king. The example was im diately followed by the ſenators of Tarquin's ty. Nor was this enough for the unnatural da ter: ſhe took aſide her huſband, and ſuggeſte him, that he would never be ſafe ſo long as uſurper of his crown was alive. Hereupon T qu

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...diately dispatched some of his domestics to ...away the remains of the unfortunate king's ... The orders for the wicked parricide were ...ner given, than Tullia mounted her chariot ...ains an air of triumph, to return home. ...ay to her house was through a narrow ...called *vicus cyprius*, or the *good street*. There ...ullius had left the king's body, which was ...ming. At this sight, the charioteer, struck ...rror, checked his horses, and made a stop: ...Tullia forced him to go on; and the blood ...r father is said to have dyed the wheels of ...riot, and even the clothes of the inhuman ...r, whence the street was called ever after ...*sceleratus*.

...) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE EXILE OF ...RQUIN II; AND THE ABOLITION OF ROYAL ... The new king proved a most despotic and ...rant; and was surnamed the *proud*, on ac... of his haughty behaviour. All controver... whatever were decided by himself and his ...; and he banished, fined, and even execu... whom he pleased. The census and lustrum, ...mber of citizens into classes and centuries, ...abolished; and all kinds of assemblies, even ...r amusement and recreation, were prohi... both in town and country. Nay, to such ...h did Tarquin carry his insolence and ty... that the most virtuous of the senators went ...untary banishment; while many of those ...remained were cut off on various pretences, ...e king might enjoy their estates. Tarquin, ...e of the danger in which he stood by thus ...he affections of his people, provided a suf... number of soldiers, by way of guard, to ...t attempts upon his person; and gave his ...ter to Octavius Mamilius, one of the most ...rable men among the Latins, to strengthen ...self by this foreign alliance, in case of a re...llion of his subjects. Mamilius accordingly ...ed many friends to his father-in-law, but ...e like to have lost them again by his haughty ...ner. He had desired the Latins to call a ...council at Ferentinum, where he would ...eem on a day appointed by himself. The ...accordingly met; but after waiting for se...ours, Tarquin did not appear. On this, ...rius Herdonius, an enterprising and elo... man, who hated Tarquin, and was jealous ...Mamilius, made a speech, in which he inveigh...against the haughty behaviour of Tarquin, set ...in the contempt which he had put upon the ...ians, and concluded with desiring the council ...break up and return home without taking any ...ther notice of him. Mamilius, however, pre...ded upon them to return the day following; ...hen Tarquin made his appearance, and told the ...embly that his design in calling them together ...as to claim his right of commanding the Latin ...mies, which he said was derived from his grand...father, but which he desired to be confirmed to ...im by them. These words were scarce out of ...is mouth, when Herdonius rising up, entered ...into a detail of Tarquin's tyranny and arbitrary ...behaviour at Rome, which, he said, the Latins ...would soon feel in an equal degree, if they com...plied with Tarquin's demand. To this speech the king made no reply at that time, but promised to answer him next day. In the mean time, however, he bribed the domestics of Herdonius to admit among his baggage a large quantity of arms; and then, telling the Latins that Herdonius's opposition proceeded only from Tarquin's having refused him his daughter in marriage, accused him of having laid a plot to cut off all the deputies there present, and to usurp a jurisdiction over the Latin cities; as a proof of which he appealed to the arms hid among the baggage of Herdonius. The accused, conscious of his innocence, desired that his baggage might be searched; which being accordingly done, and the arms found, he was hurried away without being allowed to make any defence, and thrown into a bason at the head of the spring of Ferentinum, where he was drowned. In consequence of this monstrous treachery, Tarquin was looked upon by the Latins as their deliverer, and declared general of the Latin armies; soon after which, the Hernici and two tribes of the Volsci entered into an alliance with him on the same terms. To keep these confederates together, Tarquin, with their consent, erected a temple to Jupiter Latialis on an hill near the ruins of Alba, where he appointed certain feasts called *Feriæ Latinæ* to be held on the 27th of April, where the several nations were to sacrifice together, and on no account to commit any hostilities against each other during their continuance. The king then proceeded to make war on the rest of the Volsci who had refused to enter into an alliance with him. Some depredations which they had committed in the territories of the Latins served for a pretence to begin the war; but as Tarquin had no confidence in the Romans, his army was composed only of a small body of them who were incorporated among the Latin auxiliaries. However, he defeated the enemy, took one of their cities by storm, and gave the booty to his soldiers. He next turned his arms against the Sabines, whom he entirely defeated in two engagements, and made the whole nation tributary; for which exploits he decreed himself two triumphs, and on his return to Rome he employed the populace in finishing the sewers and circus which had been begun by his grandfather Tarquin I. In the mean time, Tarquin's persecutions of his own subjects daily drove some of the most considerable into banishment. A great number of patricians took refuge in Gabii, a city of Latium about 13 miles from Rome; where the inhabitants, touched with compassion for their misfortunes, not only received them with kindness, but began a war with Tarquin on their account. The Gabini seem to have been the most formidable enemies whom the Romans had hitherto met with; since Tarquin was obliged to raise a prodigious bulwark to cover the city on the side of Gabii. The war lasted 7 years; during which time, by the devastations committed by the two armies, a great scarcity of provisions took place in Rome. The people grew clamorous; and Tarquin being unable either to quiet them, or to reduce the Gabini, fell upon the following dishonourable and treacherous expedient. His son Sextus pretended to be on very bad terms with his father, and openly inveighed against

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againſt him as a tyrant; on which he was proclaimed a rebel, and publicly beaten in the forum. This being reported at Gabii, by perſons ſent thither on purpoſe, the inhabitants became very deſirous of having Sextus among them; and accordingly he ſoon went thither, having previouſly obtained a ſolemn promiſe from the inhabitants never to deliver him up to his father. Here he made frequent inroads into the Roman territories, and always came back laden with ſpoil, his father ſending againſt him only ſuch weak parties as muſt infallibly be worſted. By this means he ſoon came to have ſuch a high degree of credit among the Gabini, that he was choſen general of their army, and was as much maſter at Gabii as Tarquin was of Rome. Finding his authority ſufficiently eſtabliſhed, he diſpatched a ſlave to his father for inſtructions; but Tarquin unwilling to return an explicit anſwer, took the meſſenger into the garden, where he ſtruck off the heads of the talleſt poppies. Sextus underſtood that by this hint the king deſired him to put to death the leading men in the city of Gabii, which he immediately did; and while the city was in confuſion on account of this maſſacre, he opened the gates to his father, who took poſſeſſion of it with all the pride of a conqueror.—The inhabitants dreaded every barbarity from the haughty tyranny of the Roman monarch: however, on this occaſion he conſulted his policy rather than his revenge; granted them their life, liberty, and eſtates, and even entered into a treaty of alliance with them. The articles were written on the hide of an ox, which was extant in the time of Auguſtus, in the temple of Jupiter Fidius. After this, however, he made his ſon Sextus king of Gabii; ſending off his two other ſons, Titus and Arunx, the one to build a city at Signia, the other at Circæum, a promontory of the Tyrrhene ſea, to keep the Volſci in awe. For ſome time Tarquin enjoyed a profound peace; the Romans, being accuſtomed to oppreſſion and the yoke of an imperious maſter, making no oppoſition to his will. During this interval Tarquin met with the celebrated adventure of the Sibyl, (See SIBYL.) whoſe books were ever afterwards held in high eſtimation at Rome, and Tarquin appointed two perſons of diſtinction to take care of them. Theſe were called *Duumviri:* but their number was afterwards increaſed to 10, when they were called *Decemviri;* and then to 15, when they were termed *Quindecemviri.* At this time alſo the written civil law had its origin among the Romans; all the ſtatutes enacted by the kings being collected into one body; which, from Papirius the name of the collector, was called the *Papirian* law. The temple of the Capitol was alſo finiſhed; for which purpoſe the moſt ſkilful architects and workmen were brought from Etruria, the populace being obliged to ſerve them in the moſt laborious parts. We now come to the important revolution which put an end to the regal power at Rome, and introduced a republican form of government, to which this city is allowed to owe the greateſt part of her grandeur. Tarquin had left himſelf no friends among the rich citizens, by reaſon of his oppreſſions; and the populace were equally diſaffected on account of their being obliged to labour in his public works. Among the many perſons of diſtinction who h been ſacrificed to the avarice or ſuſpicions of T quin, was M. Junius, who had married the da ter of Tarquin I. This nobleman had a ſon ed *L. Junius*, who eſcaped the cruelty of th rant by pretending to be an idiot, (and hen the agnomen of BRUTUS,) which part h ever ſince continued to act. Soon after the ing of the works abovementioned, a violent happening to break out at Rome, Tarqu his ſons Titus and Arunx to conſult the or Delphi; and the princes took Brutus alon them, to divert themſelves with his ſuppoſ by the way. Brutus choſe for his offering Delphic Apollo a ſtick of elder; which occ ed much laughter. However, he had the p tion to incloſe a rod of gold within the ſti to this probably it was owing, that the p gave the princes the following riddle, that ſhould firſt kiſs his mother ſhould ſucceed T in the government of Rome. This anſw been given to their inquiries concerning th ceſſion; upon which the two brothers drew lots which of them ſhould kiſs their at their return, or agreed to do it at once both might reign jointly: but Brutus, ima the oracle had another meaning fell down kiſſed the earth, the common mother of all This, the prieſteſs had probably meant; an given the anſwer on purpoſe to have another of Brutus's ingenuity, which had already vered itſelf, by his offering the elder ſtick the return of the princes to Rome, they their father engaged in a war with the The treaſury being exhauſted by the ſumptu Tarquin had expended in his public work had marched to Ardea, the capital of that which lay about 20 miles from Rome, in of taking it without oppoſition. Contrary expectation, however, he was obliged to it in form; and this conſtrained him to lay vy tax upon his ſubjects, which increa number of malcontents, and diſpoſed every for a revolt. As the ſiege was carried ſlowly, the general officers frequently mad tainments for one another in their quarters day, when Sextus Tarquinius was entert his brothers, the converſation happened upon their wives: every one extolled the qualities of his own; but Collatinus beha ſuch extravagant praiſes on his Lucretia, that diſpute ended in a kind of quarrel. It was reſolved that they ſhould mount their horſes ſurpriſe their wives by their unexpected ret The king's daughters-in-law were employed feaſting and diverſion, and ſeemed much diſ certed by the appearance of their huſbands; Lucretia, though the night was far advanced, found, with her maids about her, ſpinning working in wool. She was not at all diſcon ſed by the company whom her huſband brou with him, and they were all pleaſed with the reception ſhe gave them. As Lucretia was beautiful, Sextus Tarquinius conceived a paſſi for her, which reſolving to ſatisfy at all events, ſoon returned to Collatia in the abſence of Lucre tia's huſband, and was entertained by her wi great civility and reſpect. In the night-time h entered

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ed Lucretia's apartment, and threatened her immediate death if she did not yield to his . But finding her not to be intimidated this menace, he told her, that if she still per- in her refusal, he would kill one of her male , and lay him naked by her when she was , and then declare to all the world that he ly revenged the injury of Collatinus. On e virtuous Lucretia (who, it seems, dread- ubstitution less than *infamy*) submitted to the of Sextus; but resolved not to outlive the e which had been offered her. She dressed in mourning, and took a poniard under her having previously wrote to her husband to her at her father Lucretius's house, where sed to discover the cause of her grief, ex- in a full assembly of her friends and relations. ddressing herself to her husband Collatinus, quainted them with the whole affair; ex- them to revenge the injury; and protested would not outlive the loss of her honour. ne present gave her a solemn promise that uld revenge her quarrel; but while they ured to comfort her, she suddenly stabbed to the heart, with the dagger which she had aled under her robe. This action inflamed measure the minds of all present. Bru- ing aside his pretended folly, drew the dagger out of Lucretia's body; and show- to the assembly, swore by the blood upon he would pursue Tarquin and his family fire and sword: nor would he ever suffer any other family to reign in Rome. The th was taken by all the company; who so much surprised at the apparent transition tus from folly to wisdom, that they did ver he desired them.—By his advice the of the city were shut, that nobody might of it to inform Tarquin of what was going ; which, as Lucretius had been left go- of the city by Tarquin, was put in exe- without difficulty. The corpse of Lucre- then exposed to public view; and Brutus made a speech to the people, in which he ed the mystery of his conduct in counter- folly for many years past, proceeded to that the patricians were come to a re- of deposing the tyrant, and exhorted to concur in the same design. The people their approbation, and called out for ; but Brutus did not think proper to trust with arms till he had first obtained a decree e senate in favour of the design. This was procured: the senate enacted that Tarquin forfeited all the prerogatives belonging to the authority, condemned him and all his pos- y to perpetual banishment, and devoted to gods of hell every Roman who should here- e, by word or deed, endeavour his restoration; this decree was unanimously confirmed by curse.

[5.] ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE EXECU- ON OF BRUTUS'S SONS. Tarquin being thus posed, the form of government became the n object. Lucretius was declared *Interrex*; Brutus being again consulted, declared, that ugh it was by no means proper for the state be without supreme magistrates, yet it was equally necessary that the power should not be centered in one man, and that it should not be perpetual. For this reason he proposed, that two magistrates, called CONSULS, should be elected annually; that the state should thenceforth have the name of *republic*; that the ensigns of royalty should be abolished: and that the only ensigns of consular dignity should be an ivory chair, a white robe, and 12 lictors for their attendants. He also proposed that the title of *rex*, or *king* should be given to him who superintended religious matters, who should thenceforth be called *rex sacrorum*, or *king of sacred things*. This scheme being approved of, Brutus and Collatinus were proposed by Lucretius as the two first consuls, and and unanimously accepted by the people, who thought it impossible to find more implacable enemies to the Tarquins. They entered on their office A. A. C. 508, and the monster Tullia, perceiving that now all was lost, left the city, and retired to her husband at Ardea. She was suffered to depart, though the populace hooted at her, and cursed her as she went along. Tarquin, in the mean time, being informed by some who had got out of Rome before the gates were shut, that Brutus was raising commotions to his prejudice, returned in haste to the city, attended only by his sons and a few friends; but, finding the gates shut, and the people in arms on the walls, he returned again to the camp: but here again, to his surprise, he found that the consuls had taken the opportunity of gaining over the army to their interest; so that, being refused admittance into the camp also, he was forced to fly for refuge, at the age of 76, with his wife and three sons to Gabii, where Sextus had been made king. Here he continued for some time: but not finding the Latins forward to revenge his cause, he retired into Etruria; where, being the country of his mother's family, he hoped to find more friends, and a readier assistance for attempting the recovery of his throne. The Romans now congratulated themselves on their happy deliverance from tyranny. However, as Tarquin had by his policy procured himself many friends abroad, these now became enemies to the Roman name; and by the defection of their allies, the Roman dominions were left in much the same state as they had been in the time of Romulus. Though almost constantly victorious in war for 243 years, they had not yet gained land enough to supply their city with provisions. The main strength of the state lay in the number of the citizens of Rome; which by transplanting the inhabitants of the conquered cities thither had so prodigiously increased, that it put the Romans in a condition of usurping the authority over other nations, the most inconsiderable of which had an extent of territory far exceeding theirs. By frequent depredations they so harassed the states of Latium and Etruria, that many of them were constrained to enter into treaties with Rome, by which they obliged themselves to furnish her with auxiliaries whenever she should invade and pillage the lands of her other neighbours. Submissions of this kind the Romans called *making alliances* with them, and these useful alliances supplied the want of a larger territory; but now, upon the change of her government,

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ment, all the allies of Rome forſook her at once, and either ſtood neuter, or eſpouſed the cauſe of the baniſhed king. The new conſuls in the mean time took the moſt effectual methods for ſecuring the liberties of the republic. The army employed in the ſiege of Ardea marched home under Herminius and Horatius, who concluded a truce with the Ardeates for 15 years. The conſuls then again aſſembled the people by centuries, and had the decree of Tarquin's baniſhment confirmed; and many of the laws of Servius Tullius were revived to the great joy of the people. Tarquin, however, having made Tarquinii the ſeat of his reſidence, engaged the inhabitants to ſend an embaſſy to Rome, with a ſubmiſſive letter from himſelf, directed to the Roman people. The ambaſſadors repreſented in ſuch ſtrong terms to the ſenate, how reaſonable it was to let the king be heard before he was condemned, that the conſuls inclined to bring theſe agents before the people, and to leave the deciſion to the curiæ; but Valerius, who had been very active in the revolution, ſtrenuouſly oppoſed this, and by his influence in the ſenate got it prevented. Mean time, Tarquin prevailed on the inhabitants of Tarquinii to ſend a ſecond embaſſy to Rome, demanding the eſtates of the exiles, but with private inſtructions to get the conſuls aſſaſſinated. The reſtoration of the eſtates of the exiles was oppoſed by Brutus, but Collatinus was for complying with it; whereupon Brutus accuſed his colleague of treachery, and of a deſign to bring back the tyrant. The matter was referred to the people, where it was carried by one vote in favour of the Tarquins. But whilſt the people were employed in loading carriages with the effects of the exiles, and in ſelling what could not be carried off, the ambaſſadors drew ſome of the neareſt relations of the conſuls into a plot with them. Theſe were 3 young noblemen of the Aquilian family, (the ſons of Collatinus's ſiſter,) two of the Vitellii (whoſe ſiſter Brutus had married); and Titus and Tiberius, the two ſons of Brutus. They all bound themſelves by ſolemn oaths, with the dreadful ceremony of drinking the blood of a murdered man and touching his entrails. They met at the houſe of the Aquilii, where they wrote letters to Tarquin and gave them to the ambaſſadors. But their proceedings were overheard by one Vindicius a ſlave, who immediately communicated the whole to Valerius; upon which all the criminals were apprehended. Brutus ſtood judge over his own ſons; and, notwithſtanding the interceſſion of the whole aſſembly, and the tears of his children, commanded them to be beheaded; nor would he depart till he ſaw the execution of the ſentence. Having performed this piece of heroic barbarity, he quitted the tribunal, and left Collatinus to perform the reſt.

(14.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE EXILE OF COLLATINUS, AND TO THE PEACE WITH PORSENA. Collatinus being inclined to ſpare his nephews, allowed them a day to clear themſelves; and cauſed Vindicius, the only witneſs againſt them, to be delivered up to his maſters. This rouſed the indignation of the people, eſpecially of Valerius, who had promiſed to protect the witneſs, and therefore he refuſed to deliver him up to the lictors. The multitude called for B tus to return; which when he had done, he t them that he had executed his two ſons in co quence of his own paternal authority, but th belonged to the people to determine the fa the reſt. Accordingly, by a decree of the c all the delinquents ſuffered as traitors, excep ambaſſadors. Vindicius had his liberty gr him; and was preſented with 25,000 aſes of t in value about 80 l. 14 s. 7 d. of our money. decree for reſtoring the eſtates of the exiled quins was annulled, their palaces were deſtr and their lands divided among the people. public only retained a piece of ground, nea Campus Martius, which the king had uſu and which they conſecrated to Mars. The rity of Brutus towards his two ſons ſtruck terror into the Romans, that ſcarce any durſt oppoſe him; and therefore he open cuſed Collatinus before the people, and i ceremony depoſed him from the conſulſhi niſhing him at the ſame time from Rome. multitude refuſed to hear Collatinus in h defence; ſo that the conſul was on the po being driven out with ignominy and diſ when Lucretius interpoſed, and prevailed Brutus to allow his colleague to reſign the and retire. Brutus then, to remove all ſuſp of perſonal enmity, procured him a pre 20 talents out of the public treaſury, to wh added five of his own. Collatinus then reti Lavinium, where he lived in peace, and d old age. Valerius was choſen in his room the two conſuls lived in great harmony. Tarquin firſt engaged the Volſci and Tarq ſes to join their forces to ſupport his rights tus commanded the horſe and Valerius the The two armies having met, Brutus ad with his cavalry, at the ſame time that Aru coming forward with the enemy's horſe, p following with the legions. Arunx no ſoon covered Brutus, than he made towards h all the fury of rage. Brutus advanced t him with no leſs ſpeed; and as both were ed only by motives of hatred, without t of ſelf-preſervation, both were pierced with their lances. The battle continued the utmoſt fury till night, when it could known which ſide had got the victory, or had loſt the greateſt number of men. The ſci returned home, and Valerius, having o the dead to be numbered, found that the loſt 11,300 men, and the Romans only one of that number. Valerius being left wit colleague in the conſulſhip, and having d to chooſe one, began to be ſuſpected of a at the ſovereignty; and theſe ſuſpicions countenanced by his building a fine houſe o ſteep part of the hill Palatinus. But of thi lerius was no ſooner informed, than he or this houſe to be pulled down, and immedi called an aſſembly of the people for the ele of a conſul, in which he left them entirely They choſe Lucretius; and complimented lerius with a large ground plot, where they him a houſe. The new conſul died a few after his promotion, ſo that Valerius was once m left ſole governor. In this interval, Valerius

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people so many striking proofs of his attachment to their interest, that they bestowed upon him the surname of POPLICOLA, or *popular*. Poplicola's consulship expired, the Romans elected him a second time, and joined with him Lucretius, the brother of Lucretia. They began with restoring the census and lustrum; and the number of Roman citizens, above puberty, to be 130,000. A haughty embassy was sent from Porsena king of Clusium in Etruria, commanding them either to take back the Tarquins to Rome, or to restore them to their throne. To both these demands the consuls returned an absolute refusal. The imminent danger of the city, procured Valerius a third consulship; and with him was joined Horatius Pulvillus. While the Romans were making the most vigorous preparations, Porsena, attended by his Tuscans and the exiles, marched towards the city at the head of a formidable army, which was soon joined by a body of Latins under Mamilius, son-in-law of Tarquin. The consuls and senate took all imaginable care to supply the common people with provisions; and they ordered the country people to lodge their effects within Janiculum, the only fortified place possessed by the Romans on that side the Tiber. Porsena, however, soon drove the Romans out of it; upon which the consuls made all their troops pass the river, to defend the bridge, while he advanced to engage them. The victory was long doubtful; but at last the Romans fled. Horatius Cocles, nephew to the consul, with Sp. Lartius and T. Herminius, who had commanded the right wing, posted themselves at the end of the bridge, and for a long time valiantly defended it: but at last their defensive armour being broken, they retired; and then Horatius desiring them to advise the consuls to cut down the bridge, at the other end, he for a while sustained the attack of the enemy alone. At last, wounded, and the signal given that the bridge was almost broken down, he leaped into the river, and swam across it through a shower of darts. The Romans, for this eminent service, erected a statue to him in the temple of Vulcan; and gave him as much land as he, with one yoke of oxen, could plough in one day; and each of the inhabitants, to the number of 300,000, gave him the value of as much food as each consumed in a day. The city was not yet fully invested; and it was very difficult to find provisions for such a multitude. Porsena hearing of their difficulties, told them that he would supply them with provisions if they would take back their old master: but to this they replied, that *hunger* was a less evil than *slavery*. But the constancy of the Romans was on the point of failing, when a young nobleman, named *Mutius Cordus*, with the consent of the senate and consuls, undertook to assassinate Porsena. He got access to the Etrurian camp, and made his way to the king's tent. It happened to be the day on which the troops were paid, and Porsena's secretary, magnificently dressed, was sitting on the same tribunal with the king. Mutius, mistaking him for Porsena, immediately leaped upon the tribunal and killed him. He then attempted to escape, but being seized and brought back, he owned his design; and with a countenance expressive of desperate rage and disappointment, thrust his hand which had missed the blow into a fire, and there held it for a considerable time. On this Porsena, changing his resentment into admiration, granted him his life and liberty; and even restored him his dagger. Mutius took it with his left hand, having burnt the other; and from this time had the name of *Scævola*, or *left-handed*. He then, to induce Porsena to break up the siege, told him that 300 young Romans, as resolute as himself, had sworn to take away his life or perish. This had the desired effect: Porsena sent deputies to Rome, whose only demands were, that the Romans should restore the estates of the Tarquins, or give them an equivalent, and the 11 small towns formerly taken from the Veientes. The latter of these demands was cheerfully complied with: and a truce being agreed on, deputies were sent to the Etrurian camp to plead the Roman cause against the Tarquins, and with them ten young men, and ten virgins, as hostages for performing the other article. The reception which Porsena gave the deputies raised the jealousy of the Tarquins; who refused to admit Porsena for a judge between them and the Romans. But the king without any regard to their opposition, resolved to satisfy himself, whether the protection he had given the Tarquins was just. Mean time, news were brought that the young women whom the Romans had sent as hostages had swimmed across the Tiber, and were returned to Rome. They had gone to bathe in the river, and Cloelia turning her eyes towards Rome, ventured to swim across the river; and encouraged her companions to follow her. The return of the hostages gave Poplicola great uneasiness, lest it should be imputed to want of fidelity in the Romans. To remove all suspicions, he sent a deputation to the Etrurian camp, assuring the king that Rome had no share in the foolish attempt of the young women; and promising to send them immediately back to the camp from whence they had fled. Porsena was easily appeased; but the news of the speedy return of the hostages being known in the camp, the Tarquins, without any regard to the truce, or respect to the king their protector, lay in ambush on the road to surprise them. Poplicola having put himself at the head of the Roman troops who escorted them, sustained the attack of the Tarquins, though sudden and unexpected, till his daughter Valeria rode full speed to the Etrurian camp, and gave notice of the danger her father and companions were in; when Arunx, the king's son, flying with a body of cavalry to their relief, put the aggressors to the rout. This treachery in the Tarquins gave Porsena a bad idea of their cause. He therefore assembled the chief commanders of the Etrurians; and having heard in their presence the complaints of the Romans against the Tarquins, he was so struck with horror at the recital of the crimes of the Tarquins, that he immediately ordered them to leave his camp; and renounced his alliance with them. He then ordered the ten young virgins to be brought

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before him, and inquired who was the firſt author of the enterpriſe. Cloelia, with an air of intrepidity, confeſſed, that ſhe alone was guilty. Upon this the king, extolling her reſolution above the bravery of Horatius and Mutius, made her a preſent of a fine horſe with ſumptuous furniture. After this he concluded a peace with the Romans, and reſtored to them all their hoſtages; declaring, that their bare word was to him a ſufficient ſecurity for the performance of the articles.

(15.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE FIRST CREATION OF A DICTATOR. Porſena being about to return to Cluſium, gave, before his departure, a further teſtimony of his friendſhip for the Romans. Knowing that Rome was greatly diſtreſſed for want of proviſions, he ordered his ſoldiers to leave behind them their tents and proviſions, and to carry nothing with them but their arms. As his camp abounded with all ſorts of proviſions, Rome was hereby much relieved. The ſenate erected a ſtatue of Porſena near the comitium, and ſent an embaſſy to him with a preſent of a throne of ivory, a ſceptre, a crown of gold, and a triumphal robe. Thus the Romans eſcaped the greateſt danger they had hitherto been in. However, the Sabines revolted, and continued the war for ſome time with great obſtinacy: but being defeated in ſeveral engagements, they were at laſt obliged to ſubmit; and ſcarce was this war ended, when another began with the Latins, who now declared for Tarquin. Before they began this war, however, an embaſſy was ſent to Rome, the purport of which was, that the Romans ſhould raiſe the ſiege of Fidenæ which had revolted, and receive the Tarquins; who, on their part, ſhould grant a general amneſty. The ambaſſadors were to allow the Romans a whole year to conſider on theſe overtures; and to threaten them with a war in caſe they refuſed to comply with them. The chief view of Tarquin and his partiſans in promoting this embaſſy was, to lay hold of that opportunity to raiſe a ſedition in the city. To the ambaſſadors, therefore, of the Latins, he joined ſome of his own emiſſaries, who, on their arrival in the city, found two ſorts of people diſpoſed to enter into their meaſures; to wit, the ſlaves, and the meaner citizens. The ſlaves were to murder their maſters, and the lower citizens to maſſacre the Patricians. The conſpiracy was ripe for execution, when Tarquin's agents and relations, Publius and Marcus Tarquins, being terrified with frightful dreams, had not courage to proceed in their deſign till they had conſulted a diviner, and aſked him what ſucceſs they might expect in a project they had formed? The ſoothſayer anſwered. *Your project will end in your ruin; diſburden yourſelves of ſo heavy a load.* Hereupon, fearing leſt ſome of the other conſpirators ſhould be beforehand with them in informing, they went immediately to S. Sulpitius, the conſul, and diſcovered the whole matter to him. The conſul greatly commended them, aſſembled the ſenate, and gave the Latin ambaſſadors their audience of leave, with an anſwer to their propoſals; which was, that the Romans would neither receive the Tarquins, nor raiſe the ſiege of Fidenæ, being all ready to ſacrifice their lives in defence of their liberties, and willing to undergo any dangers rather than ſubmit to the government of a tyrant. The ambaſſadors being diſmiſſed with this anſwer, Sulpitius laid open to the fathers the dreadful conſpiracy. It ſtruck them with horror; but they were all at a loſs how they ſhould apprehend and convict the guilty; ſince, by the law of Poplicola, there was an appeal to the people, in all capital caſes; and the two witneſſes, who were ſtrangers, could not be excepted againſt by Roman citizens. In this perplexity they left the whole conduct of this critical affair to Sulpitius; who took a method which he thought would equally ſerve to prove the fact and puniſh the guilty. He engaged the informers to aſſemble the conſpirators, and to appoint a rendezvous at midnight in the forum, if they deſigned to take the laſt meaſures for the execution of the enterpriſe. In the mean time he uſed all proper means to ſecure the city, and ordered the Roman knights to hold themſelves ready, in the houſes adjoining to the forum, to execute the orders they ſhould receive. The conſpirators met at the time and place appointed by the two Tarquins; and the knights, upon a ſignal agreed on beforehand, inveſted the forum, and blocked up all the avenues to it ſo cloſely, that it was impoſſible for any of the conſpirators to eſcape. As ſoon as it was light, the two conſuls appeared with a ſtrong guard on the tribunal. The people were convened by curiæ, and informed of the conſpiracy. The accuſed were allowed to make their defence, if they had any thing to alledge againſt the evidence: but not one of them attempting the fact, the conſuls repaired to the comitium, where ſentence of death was pronounced, and on the conſpirators. This decree of the ſenate was read and approved by the aſſembly, the criminals were delivered up to the ſoldiers, who put them all to the ſword. The peace of Rome was thought ſufficiently ſecured by this ſtroke of ſeverity; and therefore, though all the conſpirators were not puniſhed with death, it was judged proper not to make any further inquiries. The informers were rewarded with all the privileges of Roman citizens, 100,000 aſes, and 20 acres of land. Three feſtival-days were appointed for ſupplications, ſacrifices, and public games, &c. As the people were conducting Manius Tarquin conſul from the circus, he fell from his chariot and died in 3 days. The city of Fidenæ held out during the following conſulſhip of T. Lartius and P. Veturius; but was taken the next year by T. Lartius, who, with Q. Cloelius, was raiſed to the conſular dignity. The Latins, enraged at the loſs of this town, began to conſult of their leading men; which opportunity Tarquin and Mamilius improved ſo far, as to make all the Latin cities, 24 in number, enter into an alliance againſt Rome, and to bind themſelves by oath never to violate their engagements. The Latins made vaſt preparations, as did likewiſe the Romans; but the latter could procure no aſſiſtance from their neighbours. To add to their diſtreſs, the poorer ſort of people, and the debtors, refuſed to ſerve; alleging their poverty, and the frequent hazards they ran in defending a city, where they were oppreſſed and enſlaved by their creditors. This ſpirit of mutiny ſpread among the inferior claſſes, moſt of them refuſing to liſt, unleſs their debts were all remitted by a decree of the ſe-

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ſenate aſſembled to deliberate on theſe domeſ-
ſubjects. Some were for a free remiſſion of all
as the ſafeſt expedient; others urged the
ous conſequences of ſuch a condeſcenſion,
them to liſt ſuch only as were willing to
At length it was decreed, that all actions
ſhould be ſuſpended till the end of the
But this the indigent debtors thought only
ſion of their miſery, and therefore it had
intended effect. The ſenate might indeed
ſecuted the ringleaders, but Poplicola's
led the *Valerian law*, which allowed ap-
the people, was a protection for the ſedi-
who were ſure of being acquitted. The ſe-
therefore, to elude the effect of a privilege
ſuch a reſtraint upon their power, reſol-
create one ſupreme magiſtrate, who, with
of *dictator*, ſhould have an abſolute power
ne: but as this could not be done without
at the Valerian law, and transferring the
of the people in criminal caſes to a magi-
erior to all laws, it was neceſſary to uſe
o obtain the conſent of the curiæ. They
repreſented to them, that, in ſuch a cri-
they had domeſtic quarrels to decide,
owerful enemy to repulſe, it was expedient
the commonwealth under a ſingle governor,
erior to the conſuls themſelves, ſhould
otter of the laws; that his power ſhould
limits: but, leſt he ſhould abuſe it, they
to truſt him with it above ſix months.
agreed, not foreſeeing the conſequen-
the great difficulty was to find a man
for ſo great a truſt. T. LARTIUS, one
onſuls, ſeemed to be of all men the moſt
ſionable; but the ſenate, fearing to offend
gue, gave the conſuls the power of choo-
ator, but obliged them to name one of
, not doubting but Clœlius would yield
erior talents of his colleague. But Lar-
the ſame readineſs, named Clœlius;
ly conteſt was, which of the two ſhould
other to the ſupreme authority. Each
obſtinately in remitting the dignity to
e, till Clœlius ſuddenly abdicated the
and, as an interrex, proclaimed Titus
ator; who thereupon was obliged to
him the government of the republic.

ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE FINAL SUB-
OF THE LATINS. Lartius now took as
ſtate upon him, as he had ſhown modeſty
it. He began by creating a general of
horſe; an office which laſted only du-
dictatorſhip. Sp. Caſſius, formerly con-
honoured with a triumph, was the perſon
ed to this 2d dignity. Lartius, having thus
the Roman knights, reſolved, in the next
to make the people reſpect and fear him.
this view he never appeared in public, with-
attended by 24 lictors, to whoſe faſces
added the axes which Poplicola had ta-
rom them. This was alone ſufficient to awe
ſeditious, and, without executions, to ſpread
ternation throughout Rome. He then order-
cenſus to be taken. Every one brought in
name, age, eſtate, &c. and there were found
150,700 men paſt puberty. Out of theſe the
ator formed four armies: the firſt he com-
manded himſelf; the ſecond he gave to Clœlius
his late colleague; the third to Sp. Caſſius his ge-
neral of the horſe; and the 4th he left in Rome,
under his brother Sp. Lartius, to guard the city.
The Latins not being forward in their prepara-
tions, all their hoſtilities this campaign amounted
only to ſending a detachment into the Roman ter-
ritory to lay it waſte. The dictator gained ſome
advantage over that party; and the great huma-
nity with which he treated the priſoners and
wounded, diſpoſed the Latins to liſten to his over-
tures for a ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities. A truce was
agreed on for a year; and Lartius, ſeeing the re-
public reſtored to tranquillity, reſigned the dicta-
torſhip, though the time appointed for its duration
was not expired. The next conſulſhip of Sem-
pronius Atratinus and Minutius Augurinus, pro-
duced nothing memorable. But the following
year the truce expired, when Aulus Poſthumius
and T. Virginius took poſſeſſion of the conſulſhip.
Both Romans and Latins were buſied in prepa-
ring for war. The nobility of Latium, who were
moſtly in the intereſt of the Tarquins, having ex-
cluded the citizens from the Latin diets, carried
all before them in theſe aſſemblies: whereupon
many of them removed with their families to
Rome, where they were well received. The La-
tins being bent upon war, the ſenate impowered the
two conſuls to name one of themſelves Dictator;
whereupon Virginius readily yielded it to Poſthu-
mius, as the more able commander. The new
dictator, having created Æbutius Elva his general
of the horſe, and divided his army into four bo-
dies, left one of them, under the command of Sem-
pronius, to guard the city; and with the other
three, commanded by himſelf, Virginius, and Æ-
butius, marched out againſt the Latins, who, with
an army of 40,000 foot and 3000 horſe, under the
command of Sextus and T. Tarquinius, and Ma-
milius, had already taken Corbio, a ſtrong-hold
belonging to Rome, and put the garriſon to the
ſword. Poſthumius encamped in the night on a
ſteep hill near the lake Regillus, and Virginius on
another hill over-againſt him. Æbutius was or-
dered to march ſilently in the night, with the ca-
valry and light-armed infantry, to take poſſeſſion of
a third hill upon the road, to intercept proviſions
brought to the Latins. Before Æbutius had for-
tified his camp, he was vigorouſly attacked by L.
Tarquinius, whom he repulſed three times with
great loſs, the dictator having ſent him a timely
reinforcement. After this, Æbutius intercepted
two couriers ſent by the Volſci to the Latin gene-
rals, and, by their letters, diſcovered, that a great
army of the Volſci and Hernici were to join the La-
tin forces in 3 days. Upon this, Poſthumius drew
his three bodies of troops together, which amount-
ed in all to only 24,000 foot and 1000 horſe, with
a deſign to engage the enemy before the arrival of
the ſuccours. The Latins, who were much ſupe-
rior in numbers, did not decline the engagement,
T. Tarquinius, at the head of the Roman exiles
and deſerters, was in the centre, Mamilius in the
right wing, and Sextus Tarquinius in the left. In
the Roman army the dictator commanded in the
centre, Æbutius in the left wing, and Virginius in
the right. The dictator's body firſt advanced; and,
as ſoon as it began to march, T. Tarquinius, ſing-

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ing out the dictator, ran full speed against him. The dictator wounded him with a Javelin in the right side. Upon this, the first line of the Latins advanced to cover their general; but he being carried out of the field, they made but a faint resistance, and began to retire, when S. Tarquinius, brought them back to the charge, and renewed the fight with such vigour, that the victory in the centre was still doubtful. Both parties, encouraged by their leaders, fought with incredible bravery. After a long and bloody contest, the two generals agreed to determine the doubtful victory by a single combat. Accordingly Æbutius with his lance wounded Mamilius in the breast; and Mamilius with his sword Æbutius in the right arm. Neither of the wounds were mortal; but, both generals falling from their horses, put an end to the combat. Marcus Valerius, the brother of Poplicola, endeavoured, at the head of the Roman horse, to break the enemy's battalions; but was repulsed by the cavalry of the Roman royalists. Mamilius appeared again in the van, with a considerable body of horse and light-armed infantry. Valerius, with his two nephews, the sons of Poplicola, and a chosen troop of volunteers, attempted to break through the Latin battalions, to engage Mamilius; but receiving a mortal wound in his side, fell from his horse, and died. His body was carried off by Poplicola's sons, and delivered to Valerius's servants, who conveyed it to the Roman camp; but the young heroes being afterwards overpowered by numbers, were both killed on the spot. Upon their death, the left wing of the Romans began to give ground, but Posthumius, with a body of Roman knights, flying to their assistance, charged the royalists with such fury, that they were, after an obstinate resistance, obliged to retire in confusion. Mean time Titus Herminius, having rallied those who had fled, fell upon some close battalions of the enemy's right wing, which still kept their ground under Mamilius, killed him with his own hand, and put that body to flight; but received himself a wound, of which he died soon after. Sextus Tarquinius in the mean time maintained the fight with great bravery, at the head of the left wing, against Virginius; and had even broke through the right wing of the Roman army, when the dictator attacked him with his victorious squadrons. Then Sextus threw himself in despair, into the midst of the Roman knights, and there sunk under a multitude of wounds, after he had distinguished himself in a most eminent manner. The death of the three generals was followed by the entire defeat of the Latin army. Their camp was taken and plundered, and most of their troops cut in pieces; for, of the 43,000 men who came into the field, scarce 10,000 returned home. The next morning the Volsci and Hernici came, according to their agreement, to assist the Latins; but finding, upon their arrival, how matters had gone, sent ambassadors to the dictator, to congratulate him on his victory, and assure him that they had come to assist Rome. Posthumius, producing their couriers and letters, showed that he was apprised of their treacherous proceedings. But out of regard to the law of nations, he sent them back unhurt, with a challenge to their generals to fight the next day; but the Volsci, and their confederates, not caring engage a victorious army, decamped in the night and returned to their respective countries before break of day. The Latins having now no alternative but an entire submission, sent ambassadors Rome, yielding themselves to the judgment of the senate. As the Romans had long made it a maxim to spare the nations that submitted, the motion T. Larcius prevailed; and the ancient treaties the Latins were renewed, on condition, that they should restore the prisoners, deliver up the deserters, and drive the Roman exiles out of Latium. Thus ended the last war which the Romans were on account of their banished king; who, being now abandoned by the Latins, Etrurians, and Sabines, retired into Campania, to Aristodemus, tyrant of Cumæ, and there died, in his 50th and 14th of his exile.

(17.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE INSTITUTION OF TRIBUNES, &c. The Romans were sooner freed from these dangerous wars, than they began to oppress one another; and those domestic feuds took place which continued more or less during the republic. The first disturbances were occasioned by the oppression of the plebeians, who were debtors to the patricians. The senate, who were at the head of the patricians, chose into the consulate one Appius Claudius, who violently espoused the pretensions of the plebeians; but joined him for his colleague one P. Servilius, who was of a quite contrary disposition. The consequence was, that the consuls disagreed; the senate could not determine, and the people were ready to revolt. In the midst of these disturbances, an army of the Volsci advanced; the people refused to serve; and had not Servilius procured some men, who served out of personal affection, the city would have been in great danger. The Æqui next engaged in alliance with the Hernici and Sabines. Mean time, the disputes at Rome continued with such violence, that the plebeians absolutely refused to march against the Volsci. On their march. In this extremity Servilius promised, that when the enemy were repulsed, the senate would remit all the debts of the people. This having engaged them to serve, the consul marched out at their head, defeated the enemy, and took their capital, giving it up entirely to be plundered by his soldiers. This step of Servilius, however, furnished Appius with a pretence for refusing him a triumph, as a man of a seditious disposition, who aimed at popularity by excessive indulgence and profuseness to his soldiers. Servilius, incensed at this injustice, and encouraged by the people, decreed himself a triumph in spite of Appius. After this he marched against the Hernici, who had entered Latium; and, in conjunction with Posthumius Regillens, he totally defeated them, and obliged them to retire. Appius, neither the services of the general nor his colleague could mollify the senate and patricians. Appius even imprisoned all those who had been set at liberty during the war. The prisoners cried for relief to Servilius; but he could not obtain the accomplishment of those promises, which the senate never meant to perform. Perceiving therefore that he had thus lost all his interest with the plebeians, he joined the patricians against

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the plebeians rushing tumultuously into the house, made such a noise, that no sentence pronounced by the judges could be heard, and the most confusion prevailed through the city. Several proposals were made to accommodate matters; but through the obstinacy of Appius, they came to nothing. In the mean time, it was easy to raise an army against the Sabines, who had invaded the republic; but the people refused to serve. Manius Valerius, brother to Poplicola, at last prevailed upon them to march out against the common enemy; having previously obtained assurances from the senate that their grievances should be redressed. But no sooner had they declared in favour of the Romans, than the senate, apprehending that the soldiers at their return would challenge Valerius, who had been nominated dictator, for the performance of their promises, desired him and the two consuls to detain them still in the field, under pretence that the war was not quite finished. The consuls obeyed; but the dictator, whose authority did not depend on the senate, disbanded his army, and declared his soldiers free from the oath which they had taken; and as a further proof of his attachment to the plebeians, he invested 460 of them with the dignity of knights. After this he pressed the accomplishment of the promises made by the senate: but instead of performing them, he had the mortification to hear himself loaded with reproaches; on which he resigned his office of dictator, and acquainted the people with his ability to fulfil his engagements. No sooner were these transactions known in the army, than the soldiers, to a man, deserted the consuls and their officers, and retired to a hill called afterwards *Mons Sacer*, 3 miles from Rome, where they continued to observe an exact discipline, offering no sort of violence whatever. The senate sent a deputation to the malecontents; but it was answered with contempt. In short, all things tended to a civil war, when at last matters were compromised by the institution of tribunes of the people, who had power to prevent the passing of any law that might be prejudicial to the people, and whose persons were declared sacred, insomuch that whoever offered the least violence to a tribune was declared accursed, his effects were to be consecrated to Ceres, and he himself might be killed with impunity; and all the Romans were to engage themselves, and their posterity, never to repeal this law. The people, after these regulations, erected an altar to Jupiter the Terrible, on the top of the hill where their camp had stood; and when they had offered sacrifices to the god, and consecrated the place of their retreat, they returned to Rome, led by their new magistrates and the deputies of the senate. Thus the Roman constitution, which had been monarchic, and thence had passed into an aristocracy, began now to verge towards a democracy. The tribunes obtained permission from the senate to elect two persons as their assistants, who should ease them in the great multiplicity of their affairs. These were called *plebeian ædiles*; and afterwards simply *ædiles*. See ÆDILE.

(18.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE INVASION OF ROME BY CORIOLANUS. The consul Cominius next led an army against the Volsci; defeated them, and took Longula and Polusca; after which he besieged Corioli, a city strongly fortified, and which was their capital. He carried this place, and gained a victory over the Antiates, the same day; but Caius Marcius, an eminent patrician, had all the glory of both actions. The troops detached by the consul to scale the walls of Corioli being repulsed in their first assault, Marcius rallied the runaways, led them on afresh to the charge, drove back the enemy within their walls, and, entering the city with them, made himself master of it. He then put himself in the foremost ranks of the consul's main army, that was just going to engage with the Antiates, who were come to the relief of the place; and there he behaved with equal bravery and success. The next day the consul, having erected his tribunal before his tent, called the soldiers together. His whole speech to them was a panegyric upon Marcius. He put a crown upon his head; assigned him a tenth part of all the spoil; and, in the name of the republic, made him a present of a fine horse with stately furniture, giving him leave at the same time to choose out any ten of the prisoners for himself; and lastly, he allotted him as much money as he could carry away. Of all these offers Marcius accepted only the horse, and one captive of the ten, an old friend of his family, that he might give him his liberty. To add to the glory of the brave warrior, the consul bestowed on him the surname of CORIOLANUS, transferring thereby from himself to Marcius all the honour of the conquest. Cominius, at his return to Rome, disbanded his army; and war was succeeded by works of religion, public games, and treaties of peace. A census and a lustrum closed the events of this memorable consulship. There appeared to be in Rome at this time only 110,000 men fit to bear arms; a number by many thousands less than at the last enrollment. Doubtless great numbers had run away to avoid being slaves to their creditors. Under the consulship of T. Geganius and P. Minucius, Rome was terribly afflicted by a famine, occasioned chiefly by the neglect of ploughing and sowing during the late troubles; for the sedition had happened after the autumnal equinox, about sowing time, and the accommodation was not made till just before the winter solstice. The senate dispatched agents into Etruria, Campania, the country of the Volsci, and even into Sicily, to buy corn. Those who embarked for Sicily met with a tempest which retarded their arrival at Syracuse; where they were constrained to pass the winter. At Cumæ, the tyrant Aristodemus seized the money brought by the commissaries; and they themselves with difficulty saved their lives by flight. The Volsci, far from being disposed to assist the Romans, would have marched against them, if a sudden and destructive pestilence had not defeated their purpose. In Etruria alone the Roman commissaries met with success. They sent a considerable quantity of grain to Rome in barks: but this was soon consumed, and the misery became excessive: the people were reduced to eat any thing they could get; and nature in such extremity loathed nothing. During this distress

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diſtreſs a deputation came from Velitræ, a Volſcian city, where the Romans had formerly planted a colony, repreſenting that nine parts in ten of its inhabitants had been ſwept away by a plague, and praying the Romans to ſend a new colony to re-people it. The ſenate granted the requeſt, preſſed the departure of the colony, and named three leaders to conduct it. The people at firſt were very well pleaſed with the propoſal, as it gave them a proſpect of relief in their hunger: but when they reflected on the terrible havoc the plague had made among the old inhabitants of Velitræ, they began to fear that the place might be ſtill infected; and this apprehenſion became ſo univerſal, that not one of them would conſent to go thither. Nevertheleſs the ſenate at length publiſhed a decree that all the citizens ſhould draw lots; and that thoſe to whoſe lot it fell to be of the colony ſhould inſtantly march for Velitræ, or ſuffer the ſevereſt puniſhments for their diſobedience: fear and hunger made the people comply; and the ſenate, a few days after, ſent a ad colony to Norba, a city of Latium. But the patricians were diſappointed as to the benefit they expected from theſe meaſures. The plebeians who remained in Rome being more and more preſſed by hunger and want, grew daily more angry with the ſenate. At firſt they aſſembled in ſmall companies to vent their wrath in abuſive complaints; and at length, in one great body, ruſhed all together into the forum, calling out upon their tribunes for help. The tribunes heightened the general diſcontent. Spurius Icilius, chief of them, inveighed bitterly againſt the ſenate: and exhorted others to ſpeak freely their thoughts; particularly, and by name, calling upon Brutus and Sicinius, the ringleaders of the former ſedition, and now ædiles. Theſe men added freſh fuel to the fire: And the more to inflame the ſpirits of the multitude, they enumerated all the paſt inſults which the people had ſuffered from the nobles. Brutus concluded his harangue with loudly threatening, that if the plebeians would follow his advice, he would ſoon oblige thoſe men who had cauſed the preſent calamity to find a remedy for it; after which the aſſembly was diſmiſſed. The next day, the conſuls, greatly alarmed at this commotion, and apprehending from the menaces of Brutus ſome very miſchievous event, thought it adviſable to convene the ſenators, that they might conſider of the beſt means to avert the impending evil. Some were for employing ſoft words and fair promiſes. But Appius's advice prevailed, that the conſuls ſhould call the people together, aſſure them that the patricians had not brought upon them the miſeries they ſuffered, and promiſe, on the part of the ſenate, all poſſible care to provide for their neceſſities; but ſhould reprove the diſturbers of the public peace, and threaten them with the ſevereſt puniſhments if they did not amend their behaviour. When the conſuls, having aſſembled the people, would have ſignified to them the intention of the ſenate, they were interrupted by the tribunes. A diſpute enſued, in which no order or decency was obſerved on either ſide. Several ſpeaking at the ſame time, and with great vociferation, no one could be well underſtood by the audience. The conſuls judged, that being the ſuperior magiſtrates, their authority extended to all aſſemblies of the citizens. On the other ſide, it was urged, that the aſſemblies of the people were the province of the tribunes, as their name was that of the conſuls. The diſpute grew warm, and both parties were ready to come to blows; when Brutus having put ſome queſtion to the conſuls, ended it for that time. Next day he propoſed a law which was carried, that no perſon ſhould interrupt a tribune when ſpeaking in an aſſembly of the people; by which means the power of the popular party was increaſed, and the tribunes became formidable oppoſers to the conſuls and patricians. An opportunity ſoon offered for both parties to try their ſtrength. A great fleet of ſhips laden with corn from Sicily, a great part of which was a preſent from Gelon, to the Romans, and the reſt purchaſed by the ſenate with the public money, raiſed their ſpirits once more. But Coriolanus incurred their reſentment, by inſiſting that it ſhould not be diſtributed till the grievances of the ſenate were removed. For this, the tribunes ſummoned him to a trial before the people, under pretence that he aſpired at the ſovereignty. On the day appointed, all perſons were anxious for the iſſue, and a vaſt concourſe from the adjacent country aſſembled and filled up the forum. Coriolanus preſented himſelf before the people with a high degree of intrepidity. His graceful perſon, his perſuaſive eloquence, the cries of thoſe whom he had ſaved from the enemy, inclined the aſſembly to relent. But being confounded with a new charge which he did not expect, of having embezzled the plunder of Antium, the tribunes immediately took the votes, and Coriolanus was condemned to perpetual exile. This ſentence againſt their braveſt defender ſtruck the whole body of the ſenate with ſorrow, conſternation, and regret. Coriolanus alone, in the midſt of the tumult, ſeemed unconcerned. He returned home, followed by the lamentations of the moſt reſpectable ſenators and citizens, to take leave of his wife, children, and mother. Thus recommending his children to their care, he left the city without followers or fortune, to take refuge with Tullus Attius, a man of great power among the Volſcians, who took him under his protection, and eſpouſed his quarrel. The firſt thing they done, was to induce the Volſci to break the league which had been made with Rome. For this purpoſe Tullus ſent many of his citizens thither, to ſee ſome games then celebrating; but at the ſame time gave the ſenate private information that the ſtrangers had dangerous intentions of burning the city. This had the deſired effect: the ſenate iſſued an order that all ſtrangers, whatever they were, ſhould depart from Rome before ſun-ſet. This order Tullus repreſented to his countrymen as an infraction of the treaty, and procured an embaſſy to Rome, complaining of the breach, and demanding back all the territories belonging to the Volſcians, of which they had been violently diſpoſſeſſed; declaring war in caſe of a refuſal: but this meſſage was treated by the ſenate with contempt. War being declared on both ſides, Coriolanus and Tullus were made generals

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als of the Volscians; and invaded the Ro- territories, laying waste all such lands as be- to the plebeians, but leaving those of the rs untouched. Mean time, the levies went y slowly at Rome; the two consuls, who re-elected by the people, seemed but little in war, and even feared to encounter a ge- whom they knew to be their superior in the The allies also showed their fears, and y brought in their succours; so that Corio- continued to take their towns one after r. Fortune followed him in every expedi- ; and he became so famous for his victories, the Volsci left their towns defenceless to fol- him into the field. The very soldiers of his gue's army came over to him, and would owledge no other general. Thus finding f unopposed in the field, and at the head numerous army, he at length invested the ci- Rome itself, fully resolved to besiege it. It en that the senate and the people unani- y agreed to send deputies to him, with pro- of restoration, in case he should draw off my. Coriolanus received their proposals at ead of his principal officers, and, with the ch of a general that was to give the law, d their offers. Another embassy was now forth, conjuring him not to exact from his city aught but what became Romans to Coriolanus still persisted in his former de- , and granted them but three days to deli- . All that was left was another deputation olemn than either of the former, composed pontiffs, the priests, and the augurs. These, ed in their sacred habits, and with a grave mournful deportment issued from the city, entered the camp of the conqueror: but all , they found him severe and inflexible as . When the people saw them return ineff- ly, they gave up the commonwealth as lost. temples were filled with old men, women children, who, prostrate at their altars, put ir ardent prayers for the preservation of country. Nothing was to be heard but an- ed lamentation, nothing to be seen but af- and distress. At length it was suggested, what could not be effected by the interces- of the senate or the adjuration of the priests, t be brought about by the tears of his wife, e commands of his mother. This measure refused by all; and the senate itself gave it r sanction. Veturia, the mother of Coriola- , at last undertook the embassy, and set for- d from the city, accompanied by the princi- matrons of Rome, with Volumnia his wife, d his two children. Coriolanus, who at a dis- ce discovered this mournful train of females, resolved to give them a denial; but, when d that his mother and his wife were among the mber, he instantly came down to meet and mbrace them. At first, the women's tears and mbraces took away the power of words; and e rough soldier could not refrain from sharing their distress. Coriolanus now seemed much gitated by contending passions; while his mo- er, who saw him moved, seconded her words the most persuasive eloquence, her tears: his fe and children hung round him, intreating for protection and pity; while the fair train, her companions, added their lamentations, and de- plored their own and their country's distress. Co- riolanus for a moment was silent, feeling the strong conflict between honour and inclination: at length, as if rouzed from his dream, he flew to take up his mother, who had fallen at his feet, crying out, "O my mother, thou hast saved Rome, but lost thy son." He gave orders to draw off the army, pretending to the officers that the city was too strong to be taken. Tullus, who envied his glory, was not remiss in aggravating the lenity of his conduct to his countrymen. Up- on their return, Coriolanus was slain in an insur- rection of the people, and afterwards honourably buried, with ineffectual repentance.

(19.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE OVER- THROW OF THE ÆQUI AND VOLSCI, BY CINCI- NATUS. The year following, the two consuls of the former year, Manlius and Fabius, were cited by the tribunes to appear before the people. The Agrarian law, which had been proposed some time before, for equally dividing the lands of the commonwealth among the people, was the object invariably pursued, and they were accused of ha- ving put it off unjustifiably. The Agrarian law was a grant the senate could not think of giving up to the people. The consuls, therefore, made many delays and excuses, till at length they were once more obliged to have recourse to a dictator; and they fixed upon T. Quinctius Cincinnatus, a man who had for some time given up all views of ambition, and retired to his little farm, where the deputies of the senate found him holding the plough, and dressed in the attire of a labouring husbandman. He appeared but little elevated with the addresses of ceremony and the pompous habits they brought him; and, upon declaring to him the senate's pleasure, he testified rather a con- cern that his aid should be wanted. However, he departed for the city, where both parties were strongly enflamed against each other: but he was resolved to side with neither; only, by a strict attention to the interests of his country, to obtain the esteem of all. By threats and well timed sub- mission, he prevailed upon the tribunes to put off their law for a time, and carried himself so as to be a terror to the multitude when they refused to enlist; and their greatest encourager when their submission deserved it. Thus, having restored that tranquillity to the people which he so much loved himself, he again gave up the splendor of ambition, to enjoy it with a greater relish in his little farm. Cincinnatus was not long retired, when a fresh exigence of the state once more re- quired his assistance. The Æqui and the Volsci, who, though worsted, still were for renewing the war, made new inroads into the territories of Rome. Minutius, one of the consuls who suc- ceeded Cincinnatus, was sent to oppose them; but his army was driven into a defile between two mountains, from which, except through the ene- my, there was no egress. This, however, the Æqui had the precaution to fortify; by which the Roman army was so hemmed in on every side, that nothing remained but submission to the enemy, famine, or immediate death. Some knights, who found means of getting away pri- vately

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vately through the enemy's camp, were the firſt that brought the account of this diſaſter to Rome. Nothing could exceed the conſternation of all ranks, when informed of it. The ſenate at firſt thought of the other conſul; but not having ſufficient experience of his abilities, they unanimouſly turned their eyes upon Cincinnatus, and reſolved to make him dictator. Cincinnatus was found, as before, by the meſſengers, labouring in his little field. Being called upon to nominate his maſter of the horſe, he choſe a poor man named *Tarquitius*, one who, like himſelf, deſpiſed riches when they led to diſhonour. Upon entering the city, the dictator put on a ſerene look, and intreated all thoſe who were able to bear arms to repair before ſun-ſet to the Campus Martius, (the place where the levies were made) with neceſſary arms, and proviſions for five days. He put himſelf at the head of theſe; and, marching all night with great expedition, he arrived before day within ſight of the enemy. Upon his approach, he ordered his ſoldiers to raiſe a loud ſhout, to apprize the conſul's army of the relief that was at hand. The Æqui were not a little amazed when they ſaw themſelves between two enemies; but ſtill more when they perceived Cincinnatus making the ſtrongeſt entrenchments beyond them, to prevent their eſcape, and incloſing them as they had incloſed the conſul. To prevent this, a furious combat enſued; but the Æqui, being attacked on both ſides, and unable to reſiſt or fly, begged a ceſſation of arms. They offered the dictator his own terms: he gave them their lives; but obliged them, in token of ſervitude, to paſs under the yoke. (See JUGUM.) Their captains and generals he made priſoners of war, to adorn his triumph. The plunder of the enemy's camp, he gave entirely up to his own ſoldiers, without reſerving any part for himſelf, or permitting thoſe of the reſcued army to have a ſhare. Thus, having reſcued a Roman army from inevitable deſtruction, having defeated a powerful enemy, having taken and fortified their city, and, ſtill more, having refuſed any part of the ſpoil, he reſigned his dictatorſhip, after having enjoyed it but 14 days. The ſenate would have enriched him; but he declined their offers, chooſing to retire once more to his farm and his cottage, content with temperance and fame.

(20.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE OVERTHROW AND EXILE OF THE DECEMVIRI. But this repoſe from foreign invaſions did not leſſen the tumults of the city within. The clamours for the Agrarian law ſtill continued, and ſtill more fiercely, when Sicinius Dentatus, came forward, to enumerate his hardſhips and his merits. (See DENTATUS.) Notwithſtanding Dentatus's ſpeech had great effect on the people it was all overturned, and the Agrarian law poſtponed by a number of young patricians who made a riot and broke the balloting urns, for which they were fined. The republic of Rome had now near 60 years been fluctuating between the contending orders that compoſed it, till at length, each ſide, as if weary, were willing to reſpire a while from the mutual exertions of their claims. The citizens, now, therefore, of every rank, began to complain of the arbitrary deciſions of their magiſtrates, and wiſhed to be guided by a written body of la which being known might prevent wrongs as as puniſh them. In this both the ſenate and people concurred, as hoping that ſuch laws wo put an end to the commotions that ſo long haraſſed the ſtate. It was thereupon agreed, ambaſſadors ſhould be ſent to the Greek citi Italy, and to Athens, to bring home ſuch from thence as by experience had been fo moſt equitable and uſeful. For this pur three ſenators, Poſthumius, Sulpicius, and lius, were fixed upon, and galleys aſſigne convoy them, agreeable to the majeſty of the man people. While they were upon this miſſion abroad, a dreadful plague depopu the city at home. In about a year the p ceaſed, and the ambaſſadors returned, br home a body of laws, collected from the m villized ſtates of Greece and Italy, which afterwards formed into ten tables. and tw being added, made that celebrated code, cal *Laws of the Twelve Tables*, many fragme which are ſtill extant. The tribunes now r ed that a body of men ſhould be choſen to their new laws into proper form, and to weight to the execution of them. After lon bates, whether this choice ſhould not be p made from the people as well as the patrici was at laſt agreed that 10 of the principal ſen ſhould be elected, whoſe power, continuin a year, ſhould be equal to that of kings and ſuls, and that without any appeal. The pe choſen were Appius and Genutius, who had elected conſuls for the enſuing year; Poſthu Sulpicius, and Manlius, the three ambaſſa Sextus and Romulus, former conſuls; with Veturius, and Horatius, ſenators of the firſt deration. The decemviri being now inveſted abſolute power, agreed to take the reins of gov ment by turns, and that each ſhould diſpenſe for a day. Theſe magiſtrates, for the firſt wrought with extreme application: and work being finiſhed, it was expected th would be contented to give up their offic having known the charms of power, they now unwilling to reſign it, they therefore tended that ſome laws were yet wanting to plete their deſign, and intreated the ſenate continuance of their offices; to which that aſſented. But they ſoon threw off the ma moderation; and, regardleſs either of the ap bation of the ſenate or the people, reſolve continue themſelves, againſt all order, in the cemvirate. A conduct ſo notorious produ diſcontents; and theſe produced freſh acts of ranny. The city was become almoſt a de with reſpect to all who had any thing to loſe; the decemvirs rapacity was then only diſcont ed, when they wanted freſh objects to exerci upon. In this ſtate of ſlavery, proſcription, mutual diſtruſt, not one citizen was found ſtrike for his country's freedom; theſe tyra continued to rule without controul, being co ſtantly guarded, not with their lictors alo but a numerous crowd of dependents, clien and even patricians, whom their vices had co federated round them. In this gloomy ſituati of the ſtate, the Æqui and Volſci, thoſe conſta enemi

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ce of the Romans, undertook their incur-
resolved to profit by the inteſtine diviſions
people, and advanced within 10 miles of
But the decemviri, being in poſſeſſion of
itary as well as of the civil power, divid-
army into three parts; whereof one con-
with Appius in the city, to keep it in awe;
er two were commanded by his colleagues,
re ed, one againſt the Æqui, and the o-
ainſt the Sabines. The Roman ſoldiers had
t into a method of puniſhing the generals
they diſliked, by ſuffering themſelves to be
ed in the field. They put it in practice
this occaſion, and ſhamefully abandoned
amp upon the approach of the enemy.
was the news of a victory more joyfully re-
at Rome than the tidings of this defeat: the
s, as is always the caſe, were blamed for
achery of their men: ſome demanded that
ould be depoſed; others cried out for a
r to lead the troops to conqueſt: but a-
e reſt, old Sicinius Dentatus the tribune
ſentiments with his uſual openneſs; and
the generals with contempt, ſhowed all
ts of their diſcipline in the camp, and of
conduct in the field. Appius in the mean
was not remiſs in obſerving the diſpoſition
people. Dentatus, in particular, was
oſt for vengeance, and, under pretence
him particular honour, he was appoint-
, and put at the head of the ſupplies
were ſent from Rome to reinforce the ar-
The office of legate was held ſacred among
ans, as in it were united the authority of
, with the reverence due to the prieſt-
Dentatus went to the camp with alacrity,
he was received with all the external marks
ect. But the generals ſoon found means
ge. He was appointed at the head of 100
go and examine a more commodious place
mpment, as he had very candidly aſſured
manders that their preſent ſituation was
The ſoldiers, however, who were given
attendants, were aſſaſſins; wretches who
been miniſters of the vengeance of the
, and who now engaged to murder him,
ith all thoſe apprehenſions which his re-
as he was called the *Roman Achilles*,
he ſuppoſed to inſpire. With theſe de-
they led him from the way into the hol-
om of a retired mountain, where they be-
ſet upon him from behind. Dentatus,
o late, perceived the treachery of the de-
, and was reſolved to ſell his life as dear-
he could; he therefore put his back to a
and defended himſelf againſt thoſe who preſ-
moſt cloſely. Though now grown old, he
ll the remains of his former valour, and
was leſs than 15 of the aſſailants, and wound-
The aſſaſſins now therefore, terrified at his
ng bravery, ſhowered in their javelins upon
at a diſtance; all which he received in his
d with undaunted reſolution. The combat,
h ſo unequal in numbers, was managed for
time with doubtful ſucceſs, till at length
ſailants bethought themſelves of aſcending
ock againſt which he ſtood, and thus pour-
own ſtones upon him from above. This ſuc-
ceeded; the old ſoldier fell beneath their united efforts, after having ſhown by his death that he owed it to his fortitude, and not his fortune, that he had gained ſo many victories. The decemviri pretended to join in the general ſorrow for ſo brave a man, and decreed him a funeral, with the military honours: but the greatneſs of their apparent diſtreſs, compared with their known hatred, only rendered them ſtill more deteſtable to the people. But a tranſaction ſtill more atrocious, inſpired the citizens with a reſolution to break all meaſures of obedience, and at laſt to reſtore freedom. Appius, who ſtill remained at Rome, ſitting one day on his tribunal to diſpenſe juſtice, ſaw a maiden of exquiſite beauty, and aged about 15, paſſing to one of the public ſchools, attended by a matron her nurſe. Conceiving a violent paſſion for her, he reſolved to obtain the gratification of his deſire, whatever ſhould be the conſequence, and found means to inform himſelf of her name and family. Her name was *Virginia*, the daughter of Virginius a centurion, then with the army in the field; and ſhe had been contracted to Icilius, formerly a tribune of the people, who had agreed to marry her at the end of the campaign. Appius, at firſt, reſolved to break this match, and to eſpouſe her himſelf: but the laws of the Twelve Tables had forbidden the patricians to intermarry with the plebeians; and he could not infringe theſe, as he was the enactor of them. Nothing therefore remained but a criminal enjoyment; which, as he was long uſed to the indulgence of his paſſions, he reſolved to obtain. After having vainly tried to corrupt the fidelity of her nurſe, he had recourſe to another expedient, ſtill more guilty: He pitched upon one Claudius, who had long been the miniſter of his pleaſures, to aſſert that the beautiful maid was his ſlave, and to refer the cauſe to his tribunal for deciſion. Claudius behaved exactly according to his inſtructions; for entering into the ſchool, where Virginia was playing among her female companions, he ſeized upon her as his property, and was going to drag her away by force, but was prevented by the people drawn together by her cries. At length, after the firſt heat of oppoſition was over, he led the weeping virgin to the tribunal of Appius, and there plauſibly expoſed his pretenſions. He aſſerted, that ſhe was born in his houſe, of a female ſlave, who ſold her to the wife of Virginius, who had been barren. That he had ſeveral credible evidences to prove the truth of what he ſaid; but that, until they could come together, it was but reaſonable the ſlave ſhould be delivered into his cuſtody, being her proper maſter. Appius ſeemed to be ſtruck with the juſtice of his claims. He obſerved, that if the reputed father himſelf were preſent, he might indeed be willing to delay the delivery of the maiden for ſome time; but that it was not lawful for him, in the preſent caſe, to detain her from her maſter. He therefore adjudged her to Claudius, as his ſlave, to be kept by him till Virginius ſhould be able to prove his paternity. This ſentence was received with loud clamours and reproaches by the multitude: the women, in particular, came round Virginia, as if willing to protect her from the judge's fury; while Icilius,

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her lover, boldly oppoſed the decree, and obliged Claudius to take refuge under the tribunal of the decemviri. All things now threatened an open inſurrection; when Appius, fearing the event, thought proper to ſuſpend his judgment till the arrival of Virginius, who was then about 11 miles from Rome, with the army. The day following was fixed for the trial; and, in the mean time, Appius ſent letters to the generals to confine Virginius, as his arrival in town might only ſerve to kindle ſedition among the people. Theſe letters, however, were intercepted by the centurion's friends, who ſent him down a full relation of the deſign laid againſt the liberty and the honour of his only daughter. Virginius, upon this, pretending the death of a near relation, got permiſſion to leave the camp, and flew to Rome, inſpired with indignation and revenge. Accordingly, the next day he appeared before the tribunal, to the aſtoniſhment of Appius, leading his weeping daughter by the hand, both habited in the deepeſt mourning. Claudius, the accuſer, was alſo there, and began by making his demand. Virginius next ſpoke in turn: he repreſented that his wife had many children; that ſhe had been ſeen pregnant by numbers; that, if he had intentions of adopting a ſuppoſitious child, he would have fixed upon a boy rather than a girl; that it was notorious to all, that his wife had herſelf ſuckled her own child; and that it was ſurpriſing ſuch a claim ſhould be now made, after 15 years had elapſed, without any. While the father ſpoke this with a ſtern air, Virginia ſtood trembling by, and, with looks of perſuaſive innocence, added weight to all his remonſtrances. The people ſeemed entirely ſatisfied of the hardſhip of his caſe, till Appius, fearing what he ſaid might have dangerous effects upon the multitude, interrupted him, under a pretence of being ſufficiently inſtructed in the merits of the cauſe, and finally adjudged her to Claudius, ordering the lictors to carry her off. The lictors, in obedience to his command, ſoon drove off the throng that preſſed round the tribunal; and now they ſeized upon Virginia, and were delivering her up into the hands of Claudius, when Virginius, who found that all was over, ſeemed to acquieſce in the ſentence. He therefore mildly intreated Appius to be permitted to take a laſt farewel of one whom he had long confidered as his child; and ſo ſatisfied, he would return to his duty with freſh alacrity. With this the decemvir complied, but upon condition that their endearments ſhould paſs in his preſence. Virginius, with the moſt poignant anguiſh, took his almoſt expiring daughter in his arms, for a while ſupported her head upon his breaſt, and wiped away the tears that rolled down her lovely viſage; and happening to be near the ſhops that ſurrounded the forum, he ſnatched up a knife that lay on the ſhambles, and buried the weapon in her breaſt; then holding it up, reeking with the blood of his daughter, "Appius (he cried) by this blood of innocence, I devote thy head to the infernal gods." Thus ſaying, with the bloody knife in his hand, and threatening deſtruction to whomſoever ſhould oppoſe him, he ran through the city, wildly calling upon the people to ſtrike for freedom, and from thence went to the camp, to ſpread a like flame through the army. He no ſooner arrived the camp, followed by a number of his friends but he informed the army of all that was ſtill holding the bloody knife in his hand. Fled their pardon, and the pardon of the gods having committed ſo raſh an action, but aſcribed it all to the dreadful neceſſity of the times. army, already prediſpoſed, inſtantly with echoed their approbation; and decamping their generals behind, to take their ſtation more upon mount Aventine, whither they had tired about 40 years before. The other which had been to oppoſe the Sabines, feeling a like reſentment, and came over in large ties to join them. Appius, in the mean time all he could to quell the diſturbances in the but finding the tumult incapable of control perceiving that his mortal enemies, Valerius Horatius, were the moſt active in oppoſition firſt attempted to find ſafety by flight; neleſs, being encouraged by Oppius, who was of his colleagues, he ventured to aſſemble nate, and urged the puniſhment of all deThe ſenate, however, were far from giving the relief he ſought for; they foreſaw the and miſeries that threatened the ſtate, in oppoſing the incenſed army; they therefore patched meſſengers to them, offering to their former mode of government. To this poſal all the people joyfully aſſented, and the gladly obeyed. Appius, and Oppius one colleagues, both died by their own hands ſon. The other eight decemvirs went into tary exile; and Claudius, the pretended maVirginia, was driven out after them.

(21.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE OVERTHROW OF VEII, BY CAMILLUS, AND SUBMISSION OF THE FALISCI. The tribunes now grew more bulent: they propoſed two laws; one to plebeians to intermarry with patricians; another to permit them to be admitted to the conſulſhip alſo. The ſenators received theſe poſals with indignation, and ſeemed reſolved dergo the utmoſt extremities rather than them. However, finding their reſiſtance creaſe the commotions of the ſtate, they conſented to paſs the law concerning intermages, hoping that this conceſſion would ſatisfy people. But they were appeaſed only for a time: for, returning to their old cuſtom of fing to enliſt upon the approach of an enemy conſuls were forced to hold a private conference with the chief of the ſenate; where, after debates, Claudius propoſed, to create 6 governors in the room of conſuls, whereof one at leaſt ſhould be patricians. This project eagerly embraced by the people; yet though of the plebeians ſtood, the choice wholly fell the patrician candidates. Theſe new magiſtrates were called *military tribunes*; they were at but 3, afterwards they were increaſed to 4, at length to 6. They had the power and of conſuls; yet that power being divided among number, each ſingly was of leſs authority. firſt that were choſen only continued in office bout 3 months, the augurs having found ſome thing amiſs in the ceremonies of their election. The military tribunes being depoſed, the con-

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more came into office; and, to lighten the
t of buſineſs which they were obliged to ſuſ-
, a new office was erected, namely, that of
rs, to be choſen every fifth year. Their bu-
was to take an eſtimate of the number and
s of the people, and to diſtribute them into
proper claſſes; to inſpect into the lives and
ers of their fellow-citizens; to degrade ſena-
for miſconduct; to diſmount knights; and to
down plebeians from their tribes into inferior
in caſe of miſdemeanour. The two firſt
rs were Papirius and Sempronius, both pa-
s; and from this order they continued to
ected for near 200 years. This new creation
d to reſtore peace for ſome time among the
s; and the triumph gained over the Volſci-
by Geganius the conſul, added to the univer-
tisfaction. But ſome time after, a famine
g hard upon the poor, the uſual complaints
t the rich were renewed; and theſe, as be-
growing ineffectual, produced new ſeditions.
conſuls were accuſed of neglect in not having
de proper quantities of corn: they, however,
garded the murmurs of the populace, content
exerting all their care in attempts to ſupply
preſſing neceſſities. But though they did all
could be expected from active magiſtrates, in
ding and diſtributing proviſions to the poor;
Spurius Mælius, a rich knight, who had
t up all the corn of Tuſcany, by far out-
ſhem in liberality. This demagogue, hoping
come powerful by the contentions in the
, diſtributed corn in great quantities among
poorer ſort each day, till his houſe became the
m of all ſuch as wiſhed to exchange a life of
r for one of lazy dependence. When he had
gained a ſufficient number of partizans, he
ured large quantities of arms to be brought
is houſe by night, and formed a conſpiracy,
hich he was to obtain the command, while
of the tribunes, whom he had corrupted,
to act under him, in ſeizing upon the liber-
of his country. Minucius diſcovered the plot,
rming the ſenate, they reſolved to create
ator, who ſhould quell the conſpiracy, with-
ppealing to the people. Cincinnatus, who
now 80 years old, was choſen once more to
e his country from impending danger. He
n by ſummoning Mælius to appear; who re-
d to obey. He next ſent Ahala, the maſter of
horſe, to force him; who, meeting him in the
m, and preſſing Mælius to follow him to the
ator's tribunal, upon his refuſal Ahala killed
upon the ſpot. The dictator applauded his
per, and commanded the conſpirator's goods
be ſold, and his houſe to be demoliſhed, diſtri-
ng his ſtores among the people. The tribunes
e much enraged at the death of Mælius; and,
puniſh the ſenate, at the next election, inſtead
conſuls, inſiſted upon reſtoring their military
ounes. With this the ſenate were obliged to
mply. The next year, however, the govern-
ent returned to its ancient channel, and conſuls
ere choſen. The Veientes had long been the
als of Rome; they had ever taken the opportu-
y of its internal diſtreſſes to ravage its territo-
s, and had even threatened its ambaſſadors,
nt to complain of theſe injuries, with outrage.
In war they had been extremely formidable, and had cut off almoſt all the Fabian family; who, to the number of 306 perſons, had voluntarily undertaken to defend the frontiers againſt their incurſions. It was therefore determined, that the city of Veii was to fall; and the Romans ſat regularly down before it, prepared for a long and painful reſiſtance. The ſtrength of the place may be inferred from the continuance of the ſiege, which laſted 10 years. Various was the ſucceſs, and many were the commanders: the beſiegers works were often deſtroyed, and many of their men cut off by ſallies. A ſiege ſo bloody ſeemed to threaten depopulation to Rome itſelf, by draining its forces continually away; ſo that a law was made for all the bachelors to marry the widows of the ſoldiers who were ſlain. To carry it on with greater vigour, Furius Camillus was created dictator, and to him was intruſted the ſole power of managing the long protracted war. CAMILLUS, who, without intrigue or any ſolicitation, had raiſed himſelf to the firſt eminence in the ſtate, had been made one of the cenſors ſome time before, and was conſidered as the head of that office; he was afterwards made a military tribune, and had in this poſt gained ſeveral advantages over the enemy. It was his great courage and abilities in the above offices, that made him thought moſt worthy to ſerve his country on this preſſing occaſion. Upon his appointment, numbers of the people flocked to his ſtandard, confident of ſucceſs under ſo experienced a commander. Conſcious, however, that he was unable to take the city by ſtorm, he ſecretly wrought a mine into it with vaſt labour, which opened into the midſt of the citadel. Certain thus of ſucceſs, and finding the city incapable of relief, he ſent to the ſenate, deſiring that all who choſe to ſhare in the plunder of Veii ſhould immediately repair to the army. Then giving his men directions how to enter at the breach, the city was inſtantly filled with his legions, to the amazement and conſternation of the beſieged, who, but a moment before, had reſted in perfect ſecurity. Thus, like a ſecond Troy, was the city of Veii taken, after a 10 years ſiege, and with its ſpoils enriched the conquerors; while Camillus himſelf, tranſported with the honour of having ſubdued the rival of his native city, triumphed after the manner of the kings of Rome, having his chariot drawn by 4 milk-white horſes; a diſtinction which did not fail to diſguſt the majority of the ſpectators, as they conſidered thoſe as ſacred, and more proper for doing honour to their gods than their generals. His uſual good fortune attended Camillus in another expedition againſt the Faliſci; he routed their army, and beſieged their capital city Falerii, which threatened a long and vigorous reſiſtance. Here a ſchool-maſter, who had the care of the children belonging to the principal men of the city, having decoyed them into the Roman camp, offered to put them into the hands of Camillus, as the ſureſt means of inducing the citizens to a ſpeedy ſurrender. The general was ſtruck with the treachery of a wretch, whoſe duty it was to protect innocence, and not to betray it; and immediately ordered him to be ſtripped, his hands tied behind him, and in that ignominious manner to be whip-

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ped into the town by his own ſcholars. This generous behaviour in Camillus effected more than his arms could do: the magiſtrates of the town immediately ſubmitted to the ſenate, leaving to Camillus the conditions of their ſurrender; who only fined them in a ſum of money to ſatisfy his army, and received them under the protection and into the alliance of Rome.

(22.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE SIEGE OF THE CAPITOL BY THE GAULS, AND THEIR REPULSE BY CAMILLUS. Notwithſtanding the veneration which the virtues of Camillus had excited abroad, they ſeemed but little adapted to bring over the reſpect of the tribunes at home, as they raiſed ſome freſh accuſation againſt him every day. To their other charges they added that of his having concealed a part of the plunder of Veii, particularly two brazen gates, for his own uſe; and appointed him a day on which to appear before the people. Camillus, finding the multitude exaſperated againſt him, deteſting their ingratitude, reſolved not to wait the ignominy of a trial; but, embracing his wife and children, prepared to depart from Rome. He had paſſed one of the gates, when turning his face to the capitol, and lifting up his hands to heaven, he intreated all the gods that his countrymen might one day be ſenſible of their injuſtice and ingratitude. He then paſſed forward to Ardea, where he afterwards learned that he had been fined 1500 aſes by the tribunes. The Romans indeed ſoon had reaſon to repent their uſage of Camillus; for now a more formidable enemy than ever they had met with threatened the republic; an inundation of Gauls, leaving their native woods, under BRENNUS, waſted every thing with fire and ſword. One Cœditius pretended to have heard a miraculous voice, which pronounced theſe words; "Go to the magiſtrates, and tell them that the Gauls draw near." His warning was deſpiſed; but when the event ſhowed the truth of his prediction, Camillus erected a temple to the unknown Deity, and the Romans invented for him the name of AIUS LOCUTIUS. Meſſengers arrived repeatedly with the news of the deva-ſtations of the Gauls; but the Romans behaved as if an invaſion had been impoſſible. At laſt envoys arrived at Rome, imploring aſſiſtance againſt an army of Gauls, which had made an irruption into Italy, and now beſieged their city. The occaſion of the irruption and ſiege was this: Arunx, one of the chief men of Cluſium in Etruria, had been guardian to a young lucumo, or lord of a lucumony, and had educated him in his houſe from his infancy. The lucumo, as ſoon as he was of an age to feel the force of paſſion, fell in love with his guardian's wife; and, upon the firſt diſcovery of their intrigue, conveyed her away. Arunx endeavoured to obtain reparation for the injury; but the lucumo, by his intereſt and money, gained over the magiſtrates: ſo that the injured guardian, finding no juſtice in Etruria, reſolved to apply to the Gauls. The people to whom he applied were the Galli Senones; and, to engage them in his quarrel, he acquainted them with the great plenty of Italy. Upon this the Senones reſolved to follow him; and a numerous army was immediately formed, which paſſing the Alps, under the conduct of their Etrurian guide, and leaving the Celtæ in Italy unmoleſted, fell upon Umbria, and poſſeſſed themſelves of all the country from Ravenna to Picenum. They were about ſix years in ſettling themſelves in their new acquiſitions, while the Romans were carrying on the ſiege of Veii. At length Arunx brought the Senones before Cluſium, to beſiege that place, his wife and her lover having ſhut themſelves up there. The ſenate, being unwilling to engage in an open war with a nation which had never offended them, ſent an embaſſy of three young patricians, all brothers, and of the Fabian family, to bring about an accommodation between the two nations. But the Roman ambaſſadors acted improperly, and enraged the high-ſpirited Brennus; and, what was worſe, went to Cluſium; and forgetting their character, placed themſelves at the head of the beſieged in a ſally, in which Q. Fabius, the chief of the ambaſſy, ſlew with his own hand one of the principal officers of the Gauls. Hereupon Brennus, calling the gods to witneſs the perfidiouſneſs of the Romans, and their violating the law of nations, immediately broke up the ſiege of Cluſium, and marched leiſurely to Rome, having ſent an herald before him to demand that thoſe ambaſſadors who had ſo manifeſtly violated the law of nations ſhould be delivered up to him. The Roman ſenate was greatly perplexed between their reſpect for the law of nations, and their affection for the Fabii. The wiſeſt of the ſenate thought the demand of the Gauls to be but juſt and reaſonable; however, as it concerned perſons of great conſequence and credit, the conſcript fathers referred the affair to the people aſſembled by curiæ. As the Fabian family was very popular, the commons were ſo far from condemning the three brothers, that, at the next election of military tribunes, they were choſen the firſt. Brennus, looking upon the promotion of the Fabii as an high affront on his nation, haſtened his march to Rome. As his army was very numerous, the inhabitants of the towns and villages through which he paſſed left their habitations at his approach; but he ſtopped no where, declaring that his deſign was only to be revenged on the Romans. The ſix military tribunes, to wit, Q. Fabius, Cæſo Fabius, Numa Fabius, Q. Sulpitius, Q. Servilius, and Sextus Cornelius, marched out of Rome at the head of 40,000 men, without either ſacrificing to the gods or conſulting the auſpices; eſſential ceremonies among a people that drew their courage and confidence from the propitious ſigns which the augurs declared to them. As moſt of the military tribunes were young, and men of more valour than experience, they advanced boldly againſt the Gauls, whoſe army was 70,000 ſtrong. The two armies met near the river Allia, about 60 furlongs from Rome. The Romans that they might not be ſurrounded by the enemy, extended their wings ſo far as to make their centre very thin. Their right troops, to the number of 24,000 men, they poſted between the river and the adjoining hills; the reſt they placed on the hills. The Gauls firſt attacked the latter, who being ſoon put into confuſion, the forces in the plain were ſtruck with ſuch terror that they fled without drawing their ſwords. In this general diſorder, moſt of the ſoldiers, inſtead of returning to Rome fled to Veii; ſome

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e drowned as they endeavoured to swim across Tiber; many fell in the pursuit by the sword e conquerors: and some got to Rome, which filled with terror and consternation, it being ed there that all the rest were cut off. The after the battle, Brennus marched his troops the neighbourhood of Rome, and encamped the banks of the Anio. Thither his scouts ght him word, that the gates of the city lay , and that not one Roman was to be seen on mparts. This made him apprehensive of ambuscade, it being unreasonable to suppose the Romans would abandon their city to be dered and sacked without making any resist-. On this consideration he advanced slowly, h gave the Romans an opportunity to throw the Capitol all the men who were fit to bear . They carried into it all the provisions they get; and that they might last the longer, ted none but such as were capable of defend-. As for the city, they had not sufficient to defend it: and therefore the old men, n, and children, seeing themselves abandon-ed to the neighbouring towns. At length ns, having spent three day in useless precau-, entered the city the 4th day after the battle. nd the gates open, the walls without de-, and the houses without inhabitants. Rome ared to him like a mere desart; and this so- increased his anxiety. He could not be- either that all the Romans were lodged in apitol, or that so numerous a people should the place of their nativity. On the other , he could no where see any armed men but e walls of the citadel. However, having first ed all the avenues to the Capitol with strong s of guards, he gave the rest of his soldiers to disperse themselves all over the city and er it. Brennus himself advanced into the with the troops under his command, in ; and there he was struck with admiration unexpected sight of the venerable old men had devoted themselves to death, according e Roman superstition for the salvation of ountry. Their magnificent habits, the ma- of their countenances, the silence they kept, r modesty and constancy at the approach of troops, made him take them for so many dei- for they continued as motionless as statues, saw the enemy advance without showing the concern. The Gauls kept a great while at rful distance from them, being afraid to come them. But at length one soldier bolder than rest, having out of curiosity touched the beard . Papirius, the venerable old man, not being to such familiarity, gave him a blow on the with his ivory staff. The soldier in revenge ediately killed him; and the rest of the Gauls owing his example, slaughtered all those vene- le old men without mercy. After this the e- y set no bounds to their rage and fury. They ndered all places, dragging such of the Romans had shut themselves up in their houses into the reets, and there putting them to the sword with- distinction of age or sex. Brennus then invest- the Capitol; but being repulsed with great loss, be revenged of the Romans for their resistance, resolved to lay the city in ashes. Accordingly, by his command, the soldiers set fire to the houses, demolished the temples and public edifices, and raised the walls to the ground. Thus was Rome entirely destroyed; nothing was to be seen in the place where it stood but a few little hills covered with ruins, and a wide waste, in which the Gauls who invested the Capitol were encamped. Brennus, finding he should never be able to take a place which nature had so well fortified otherwise than by famine, turned the siege into a blockade. Mean time, his army being distressed for want of provisions, he sent out parties to pillage the fields, and raise contributions in the neighbouring cities. One of these parties appeared before Ardea, where the great Camillus had now spent two years in a private life. Notwithstanding the affront he had received at Rome, the love he bore his country was not diminished. The senate of Ardea being met to deliberate on the measures to be taken with relation to the Gauls, Camillus desired to be admitted into the council, where, with his eloquence, he prevailed upon the Ardeates to arm their youth in their own defence, and refuse the Gauls admittance into their city. Hereupon the Gauls encamped before the city; and as they despised the Ardeates after they had made themselves masters of Rome, they preserved neither order nor discipline in the camp, but spent whole days in drinking. Hereupon Camillus, having easily persuaded the youth of the city to follow him, marched out of Ardea in a very dark night, surprised the Gauls drowned in wine, and made a dreadful slaughter of them. Those who escaped under the shelter of the night fell next into the hands of the peasants, by whom they were massacred without mercy. This defeat revived the courage of the Romans scattered about the country, especially of those who had retired to Veii after the unfortunate battle of Allia. There was not one of them who did not condemn the exile of Camillus, and looking upon that great man as their last resource, they resolved to choose him for their leader. Accordingly, they sent ambassadors to him, beseeching him to take into his protection the fugitive Romans, and the wrecks of the defeat at Allia. But Camillus would not accept of the command of the troops till the people assembled by curiæ had legally conferred it upon him. To do this was very difficult, the capitol being invested on all sides by the enemy. Pontius Cominius, a man of mean birth, but bold, and very ambitious of glory, undertook it. He put on a light habit, and, providing himself with cork to keep the longer above water, threw himself into the Tiber above Rome in the beginning of the night, and suffered himself to be carried down with the stream. At length he came to the foot of the capitol, and landed at a steep place where the Gauls had not posted any centinels. There he mounted with great difficulty to the rampart of the citadel; and having made himself known to the guards, he was admitted into the place, and conducted to the magistrates. The senate being immediately assembled, Pontius gave them an account of Camillus's victory; and in the name of all the Romans at Veii demanded that great captain for their general. The curiæ being called together, the act of condemnation passed on

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on Camillus was abrogated, and he named dictator with one voice. Pontius was immediately diſpatched with the decree; and the ſame good fortune which had attended him to the capitol accompanied him in his return. Thus was Camillus, from baniſhment, raiſed at once to be ſovereign magiſtrate of his country. His promotion to the command was no ſooner known, but ſoldiers flocked from all parts to his camp; inſomuch that he ſoon ſaw himſelf at the head of above 40,000 men, partly Romans and partly allies, who all thought themſelves invincible under ſo great a general. While he was taking proper meaſures to raiſe the blockade of the citadel, ſome Gauls rambling round the place, perceived on the ſide of the hill the print of Pontius's hands and feet. They obſerved likewiſe, that the moſs on the rocks was in ſeveral places torn up. From theſe marks they concluded, that ſomebody had lately gone up to and returned from the capitol. Theſe Gauls directly made their report to Brennus of what they had obſerved; and that experienced commander laid a deſign, which he imparted to nobody, of ſurpriſing the place by the ſame way that the Roman had aſcended. With this view he choſe out of the army ſuch ſoldiers as had dwelt in mountainous countries, and been accuſtomed from their youth to climb precipices. Theſe he ordered, after he had well examined the nature of the place, to aſcend in the night the ſame way that was marked out for them; climbing two abreaſt, that one might ſupport the other in getting up the ſteep parts of the precipice. By theſe means they advanced with much difficulty from rock to rock, till they arrived at the foot of the wall. They proceeded with ſuch ſilence, that they were not diſcovered or heard, either by the centinels who were upon guard in the citadel, or even by the dogs, that are uſually awaked and alarmed at the leaſt noiſe. But though they eluded the ſagacity of the dogs, they could not eſcape the vigilance of the geeſe. A flock of theſe birds was kept in a court of the capitol in honour of Juno, and near her temple. Notwithſtanding the want of proviſions in the garriſon, they had been ſpared out of religion; and as theſe creatures are quick of hearing, they were alarmed at the firſt approach of the Gauls; ſo that running up and down, with their cackling and beating of their wings, they awaked Manlius, a gallant ſoldier, who ſome years before had been conſul. He ſounded an alarm, and was the firſt man who mounted the rampart, where he found two Gauls already upon the wall. One of theſe offered to diſcharge a blow at him with his battle-ax; but Manlius cut off his right hand at one blow, and gave the other ſuch a puſh with his buckler, that he threw him headlong from the top of the rock to the bottom. He, in his fall, drew many others with him; and, in the mean time, the Romans crowding to the place, preſſed upon the Gauls, and tumbled them one over another. As the nature of the ground would not ſuffer them to make a regular retreat, or even to fly, moſt of them, to avoid the ſwords of the enemy, threw themſelves down the precipice, ſo that very few got ſafe back. Manlius was rewarded, and the captain of the guard thrown down the precipice.

The Romans extended their puniſhments afterwards even to the brutes. Geeſe were ever after had in honour at Rome, and a flock of them always kept at the expence of the public. A gold image of a gooſe was erected in memory of the fact, and a gooſe every year carried in triumph upon a ſoft litter finely adorned; whilſt dogs were held in abhorrence by the Romans, who every year impaled one of them on a branch of elder. The blockade of the Capitol had already laſted ſeveral months; ſo that the famine was very ſenſible both by the beſieged and beſiegers. Camillus ſince his nomination to the dictatorſhip, being maſter of the country, had poſted ſtrong guards on all the roads; ſo that the Gauls dared not go out for fear of being cut to pieces. Thus Brennus, who beſieged the Capitol, was beſieged himſelf, and ſuffered the ſame inconveniences which he made the Romans undergo. Beſides, a plague raged in his camp, which was placed in the midſt of the ruins of the demoliſhed city, his men burying confuſedly among the dead carcaſes of the Romans, whom they had ſlain, and not burying a great a number of them died in one quarter of the city, that it was afterwards called *Buſta Gallica*, or the place where the dead bodies of the Gauls were burnt. But in the mean time, the Romans in the Capitol were reduced to the laſt extremity, and ignorant both of the lamentable condition to which the enemy's army was brought, and of the ſteps Camillus was taking to relieve them. The great general only waited for a favourable opportunity to fall upon the enemy; but, in the mean time, ſuffered them to pine away in their intrenched camp, not knowing the extreme want the Romans endured in the Capitol. Matters being brought to this paſs on both ſides, the centinels of the Capitol, and thoſe of the enemy's army, began to talk to one another of an accommodation. Their diſcourſes came at length to the ears of their officers, who were not averſe to the deſign. The latter, inclined, not knowing what was become of Camillus, and hard pinched by hunger, reſolved to hearken upon a negotiation, and empowered Sulpitius, one of the military tribunes, to treat with the Gauls, who made no great difficulty in coming to terms, they being no leſs deſirous than the Romans to put an end to the war. In a conference, thereupon between Brennus and Sulpitius, an agreement was made and ſworn to. The Romans were to pay to the Gauls 1000 pounds weight of gold, that is 45,0col. Sterling, and the latter were to raiſe the ſiege of the Capitol, and quit all the Roman territories. On the day appointed, Sulpitius brought the ſum agreed on, and Brennus the ſcales and weights. We are told, that the weights of the Gauls were falſe, and their ſcales untrue; which Sulpitius complaining of, Brennus, inſtead of redreſſing the injuſtice, threw his ſword and belt into the ſcale where the weights were; and when the tribune aſked him the meaning of ſo extraordinary a behaviour, the only anſwer he gave was *Væ Victis!* "Wo to the conquered!" Sulpitius was ſo ſtung with this haughty anſwer, that he was for carrying the gold back into the Capitol, and ſuſtaining the ſiege to the laſt extremity; but others thought it adviſable to put up the affront. During theſe diſputes of the Roman deputies

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themſelves and with the Gauls, Camillus ced with his army to the very gates of the and being there informed of what was do- commanded the main body to follow him , with the choiceſt of his men, haſtened lace of the parley. The Romans, over- his unexpected arrival, opened to make him as the ſupreme magiſtrate of the re- gave him an account of the treaty they had with the Gauls, and complained of the Brennus did them in the execution of it. ad ſcarce done ſpeaking, when Camillus , "Carry back this gold into the Capi- you, Gauls, retire with your ſcales and Rome muſt not be redeemed with gold, ſteel. Brennus replied, That he con- a treaty which was concluded and con- with mutual oaths. "Be it ſo (anſwered); yet it is of no force, having been made nferior magiſtrate, without the privity or of the dictator. I, who am inveſted with reme authority over the Romans, declare act void." At theſe words Brennus flew ge; and both ſides drawing their ſwords, ad ſcuffle enſued among the ruins of the and in the narrow lanes. The Gauls, af- conſiderable loſs, retired within their which they abandoned in the night, not to engage Camillus's whole army, and, marched eight miles, encamped on the way. Camillus purſued them as ſoon day, and, coming up with them, gave total overthrow. The Gauls, according made but a faint reſiſtance, being diſheart- the loſs they had ſuſtained the day before. ot, ſays that author, ſo much a battle as ter. Many of the Gauls were ſlain in the more in the purſuit; but the greater num- e cut off, as they wandered up and down fields, by the inhabitants of the neighbour- s. In ſhort, there was not one ſingle to carry to his countrymen the news of l cataſtrophe. The camp of the barbari- plundered; and Camillus, loaded with returned in triumph to the city, the ſoldi- r ſongs ſtyling him, *Romulus, Father of ry*, and *Second founder of Rome*.

ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE RESTO- OF THE CITY. As the houſes of Rome all demoliſhed, and the walls razed, the s of the people renewed, with more warmth ver, an old project which had occaſioned diſputes. They had formerly propoſed a for dividing the ſenate and government be- the cities of Veii and Rome. Now this law revived; nay, moſt of the tribunes were for ly abandoning their old ruined city, and Veii the ſole ſeat of the empire. But the took the part of Camillus, and, being de- to ſee Rome rebuilt, continued him, con- to cuſtom, a full year in the office of dic- r; during which time he made it his whole s to ſuppreſs the ſtrong inclination of the le to remove to Veii. Having aſſembled the , he expoſtulated with them upon the mat- r; and, by arguments drawn from prudence, ion, and glory, prevailed upon them to lay all thoughts of leaving Rome. As it was neceſſary to have the reſolution of the people con- firmed by the ſenate, the dictator reported it to them, leaving every one at full liberty to vote as he pleaſed. While L. Lucretius, who was to give his opinion the firſt, was beginning to ſpeak, it happened that a centurion, who with his compa- ny had been upon guard, and was then marching by the ſenate-houſe, cried out aloud, "Plant your colours, enſign; this is the beſt place to ſtay in." Theſe words were conſidered as dictated by the gods; and Lucretius, taking occaſion from them to urge the neceſſity of ſtaying at Rome, "An happy omen, (cried he); I adore the gods who gave it." The whole ſenate applauded his words; and a decree was paſſed without oppoſition for rebuilding the city. Though the tribunes were defeated by Camillus in this point, they reſolved to exerciſe their authority againſt another patri- cian, who had indeed deſerved puniſhment. This was Q. Fabius, who had violated the law of na- tions, and thereby provoked the Gauls, and oc- caſioned the burning of Rome. His crime being notorious, he killed himſelf to avoid puniſhment. On the other hand, the republic gave an houſe ſi- tuated on the Capitol to M. Manlius, as a monu- ment of his valour, and of the gratitude of his fel- low-citizens. Camillus cloſed this year by laying down his dictatorſhip: whereupon an interregnum enſued, during which he governed the ſtate alter- nately with P. Cornelius Scipio; and it fell to his lot to preſide at the election of new magiſtrates, when L. Valerius Poplicola, L. Virginius Tricoſ- tus, P. Cornelius Coſſus, A. Manlius Capitolinus, L. Æmilius Mamercinus, and L. Poſthumius Al- binus, were choſen. The firſt care of theſe new magiſtrates was to collect all the ancient monu- ments of the religion and civil laws of Rome which could be found among the ruins of the de- moliſhed city. The laws of the twelve tables, and ſome of the laws of the kings, had been written on braſs, and fixed up in the forum; and the treaties made with ſeveral nations had been engraved on pillars erected in the temples. Pains were therefore taken to gather up the ruins of theſe precious monuments; and what could not be found was ſupplied by memory. The ponti- fices, on their part took care to re-eſtabliſh the religious ceremonies, and made alſo a liſt of lucky and unlucky days. And now the governors of the republic applied themſelves wholly to rebuild the city. Rome was ſcarce reſtored, when her ci- tizens were alarmed by the news that all her neigh- bours were combining to her deſtruction. The Æqui, the Volſci, the Etrurians, and even her old friends the Latins and the Hernici, entered in- to an alliance againſt her, in hopes of oppreſſing her before ſhe had recovered her ſtrength. The republic, under this terror, nominated Camillus dictator a third time. This great commander, having appointed Servilius his general of horſe, ſummoned the citizens to arms. He divided the new levies into three bodies. The firſt, under the command of A. Manlius, he ordered to en- camp under the walls of Rome; the ſecond he ſent into the neighbourhood of Veii; and marched himſelf at the head of the third, to relieve the tri- bunes, who were cloſely beſieged in their camp by the united forces of the Volſci and Latins. Find- ing

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ing the enemy encamped near Lanuvium, on the declivity of the hill Marcius, he posted himself behind it, and, by lighting fires, gave the distressed Romans notice of his arrival. The Volsci and Latins, when they understood that Camillus was at the head of an army newly arrived, were so terrified, that they shut themselves up in their camp, which they fortified with great trees cut down in haste. The dictator, observing that this barrier was of green wood, and that every morning there arose a great wind, which blew full upon the enemy's camp, formed the design of taking it by fire. With this view he ordered one part of his army to go by break of day with firebrands to the windward side of the camp, and the other to make a brisk attack on the opposite side. By these means the enemy were entirely defeated, and their camp taken. Camillus then commanded his men to extinguish the flames, to save the booty, with which he rewarded his army. He then left his son in the camp to guard the prisoners; and, entering the country of the Æqui, made himself master of their capital city Bola. From thence he marched against the Volsci; whom he entirely reduced, after they had waged war with the Romans for the space of 107 years. He next penetrated into Etruria, to relieve Sutrium, a town in alliance with Rome, and besieged by a numerous army of Etrurians. But notwithstanding all the expedition Camillus could use, he did not reach the place before it had capitulated. The Sutrini, being greatly distressed for want of provisions, and exhausted with labour, had surrendered to the Etrurians, who had granted them nothing but their lives, and the clothes on their backs. In this destitute condition they had left their own country, and were going in search of new habitations, when they met Camillus leading an army to their relief. The unfortunate multitude no sooner saw the Romans, but they threw themselves at the dictator's feet, who desired them to take a little rest, and refresh themselves, adding, that he would soon dry up their tears, and transfer their sorrows to their enemies. The Etrurians did not dream that the dictator could come so speedily from such a distance to surprise them; and therefore were wholly employed in plundering the houses, or feasting on the provisions they found in them. Many of them were put to the sword, and an incredible number made prisoners; and the city was restored to its ancient inhabitants. And now, after these glorious exploits, which were finished in so short a time, the great Camillus entered Rome in triumph a third time. Camillus having resigned his dictatorship, the republic chose six new military tribunes, Q. Quinctius, Q. Servius, L. Julius, L. Aquilius, L. Lucretius, and Ser. Sulpitius. During their administration the country of the Æqui was laid waste, in order to put it out of their power to revolt anew; and the two cities of Cortuosa and Contenebra, in the lucumony of the Tarquinienses, were taken from the Etrurians, and entirely demolished. At this time it was thought proper to repair the Capitol, and add new works to that part of the hill where the Gauls had endeavoured to scale the citadel. These works were esteemed very beautiful, as Livy informs us, even in the time of Augustus, after the city was beautified with most magnificent decorations. Rome being reinstated in her former flourishing condition, the tribunes who had been some time quiet, began to renew their seditious harangues, and revive the old quarrel about the division of the conquered lands. As for the military tribunes, they owned that their election had been defective; and, voluntarily laid down their office. So that, after a short interregnum, during which M. Manlius, Ser. Sulpitius, and L. Virginius Potitus, governed the republic, six new military tribunes L. Papirius, C. Sergius, L. Æmilius, L. Menenius, L. Valerius, and C. Cornelius, were chosen for the ensuing year, which was spent in works of peace. A temple, which had been vowed to Mars during the war was built, and consecrated by T. Quinctius. As there had hitherto been but few Roman tribes beyond the Tiber, which had a right of suffrage in the comitia, four new ones were added, under the name of the *Stellatina*, *Tramontina*, *Sabatina*, and *Arnensis*; so that the tribes were now in all 25, which enjoyed the same rights and privileges.

(24.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE WAR AGAINST THE SAMNITES AND LATINS. The expectation of an approaching war induced the centuries to choose Camillus one of the military tribunes for the next year. His colleagues were Cornelius, Q. Servilius, L. Quinctius, L. Horatius, and P. Valerius. As all these were men of moderation, they agreed to invest Camillus with the management of affairs in time of war; and the senate transferred all their power into his hands, so that he became in effect dictator. It had already determined in the senate to turn the war of the republic against the Etrurians; but, upon advice that the Antiates had entered the Roman territory, and obliged the Romans who had taken possession of it to retire, it was thought necessary to humble them before the republic engaged in any other enterprise. The Antiates had joined the Latins and Hernici near Satricum; so that the Romans, being terrified at their prodigious numbers, shewed themselves very backward to engage, which Camillus perceiving, he instantly mounted his horse, and riding through all the ranks of the army, encouraged them by a proper speech; after which he dismounted, took the next standard-bearer by the hand, led him towards the enemy, and cried out, *Soldiers, advance.* The soldiery having made a great shout, fell upon the enemy with incredible fury. Camillus, to increase their courage, caused a standard to be thrown into the middle of the enemy's battalions; which made the soldiers, who were fighting in the first rank exert all the resolution they could to recover it. The Antiates gave way, and were entirely defeated. The Latins and Hernici separated from the Volsci, and returned home. The Volsci finding themselves thus abandoned by their allies, took refuge in the city of Satricum; which Camillus immediately invested, and took by assault. The Volsci threw down their arms, and surrendered at discretion. He then left his army under the command of Valerius; and returned to Rome to solicit the consent of the senate, and to make the necessary preparations for the siege of Antium.

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e he was propoſing this affair to the ſenate, ies arrived from Nepet and Sutrium, two ci- alliance with Rome in the neighbourhood of h, demanding ſuccours againſt the Etrurians, threatened to beſiege theſe two cities, which the keys of Etruria. Hereupon the expedi- againſt Antium was laid aſide, and Camillus ered to haſten to the relief of the allied c- with the troops which Servilius had kept in ſs at Rome. Camillus immediately ſet out e new war; and, upon his arrival before Su- found it not only beſieged, but almoſt ta- the Etrurians having made themſelves maſters e of the gates, and all the avenues to the . But the inhabitants hearing that Camillus come to their relief, recovered their courage, by barricadoes in the ſtreets, prevented the y from making themſelves maſters of the city. Camillus divided his army into two , ordered Valerius to march round the walls, he charged the Etrurians in the rear. The no ſooner appeared than the Etrurians themſelves to flight through a gate which not inveſted. Camillus's troops made a ſlaughter of them within the city, while made equal havoc without the walls. Ca- haſtened next to the relief of Nepet, which mitted to the Etrurians. Camillus took it , put all the Etrurian ſoldiers to the and condemned the authors of the revolt by the axes of the lictors. Thus ended Ca- military tribuneſhip, in which he acquired reputation than he had done in the moſt s of his dictatorſhips. In the following ma- y of ſix military tribunes, a dangerous ſedi- ſaid to have taken place through the ambi- of Marcus Manlius, who had ſaved the capi- om the Gauls. This man envied Camillus, gnified his own exploits beyond thoſe of tator; concerted meaſures with the tribunes, rove to gain the affections of the multitude, ed up for the Agrarian law, and for inſol- dences, of whom there was now a great . The ſenate, alarmed at this oppoſition, A. Cornelius Coſſus dictator, for which with the Volſci afforded them a fair pre- Manlius, ſtill continued to inflame the againſt the patricians. Beſides the moſt ded perſonal generoſity, he held aſſemblies own houſe (in the citadel), where he ſlan- the ſenators, affirming that they appropria- to their own uſe, all the gold which was to been paid to the Gauls. Upon this he was itted to priſon; but the people made ſuch ntance, that the ſenate releaſed him. At laſt was publicly accuſed of aſpiring to be king; the people, grateful for his having delivered apitol from the Gauls, could not condemn . But the military tribunes, having appointed aſſembly to be held without the city, there ained their wiſh. Manlius was thrown head- from the capitol but the people lamented his ; and imputed a plague which broke out ſoon , to the anger of the gods on that account. Romans, having now triumphed over the Sa- s, the Etrurians, the Latins, the Hernici, the ſci, and the Volſcians, began to look for great- conqueſts. They accordingly turned their arms againſt the Samnites, a people about 160 miles E. from the city, deſcended from the Sabines, and inhabiting a large tract of ſouthern Italy, which now makes a conſiderable part of Naples. Valerius Corvus and Cornelius were conſuls. VALERIUS was one of the greateſt commanders of his time; he was ſurnamed *Corvus*, from a ſtrange circumſtance of being aſſiſted by *a crow* in a ſingle combat, in which he fought and killed a Gaul of a gigantic ſtature. To his colleague's care it was conſigned to lead an army to Samnium, the enemy's capital; while Corvus was ſent to relieve Capua, the capital of the Campanians. The Samnites were the braveſt men the Romans had ever yet encountered, and the contention between the two nations was managed on both ſides with the moſt determined reſolution. But the fortune of Rome prevailed; and the Samnites at length fled. But the other conſul, having led his army into a defile, was in danger of being cut off, had not Decius, a tribune of the army, poſſeſſed himſelf of an hill which commanded the enemy: ſo that the Samnites, being attacked on both ſides were defeated with great ſlaughter, no leſs than 30,000 of them being left dead upon the field. Some time after this victory, the ſoldiers who were ſtationed at Capua mutinying, forced Quintius, an old and eminent ſoldier, to be their leader; and came within 8 miles of Rome. The ſenate immediately created Valerius Corvus dictator, and ſent him with another army to oppoſe them. The two armies were now drawn up againſt each other, while fathers and ſons beheld themſelves prepared to engage in oppoſite cauſes; but Corvus, knowing his influence among the ſoldiery, inſtead of going forward to meet the mutineers in an hoſtile manner, went with the moſt cordial friendſhip to embrace and expoſtulate with his old acquaintances. His conduct had the deſired effect. Quintius only deſired to have their defection forgiven. A war between the Romans and the Latins followed ſoon after; but as their habits, arms, and language, were the ſame, the moſt exact diſcipline was neceſſary to prevent confuſion in the engagement. Orders, therefore, were iſſued by Manlius the conſul, that no ſoldier ſhould leave his ranks under pain of death. With theſe injunctions, both armies were drawn out in array, when Metius, the general of the enemy's cavalry, puſhed forward and challenged any knight in the Roman army to ſingle combat. For ſome time there was a general pauſe, no ſoldier offering to diſobey his orders, till Titus Manlius, the conſul's ſon, burning with ſhame to ſee the whole body of the Romans intimidated, boldly ſallied out againſt his adverſary. Manlius killed his adverſary; and deſpoiling him of his armour, returned in triumph to his father's tent, where he was giving orders relative to the engagement. Doubtful of the reception he ſhould find from his father, he came, with heſitation, to lay the enemy's ſpoils at his feet, and inſinuated, that what he did was entirely from a ſpirit of hereditary virtue. But his father, turning away, ordered him to be led forth before the army, and there to have his head ſtruck off on account of his diſobeying orders. The whole army was ſtruck with horror at this unnatural mandate: but when they ſaw their young champion's head ſtruck off,

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and his blood ſtreaming upon the ground, they could no longer contain their execrations. His dead body adorned with the ſpoils of the vanquiſhed enemy, was buried with all the pomp of military diſtreſs. Mean time, the battle joined with mutual fury; and as the two armies had often fought under the ſame leaders, they combated with all the animoſity of a civil war. The Latins chiefly depended on their bodily ſtrength; the Romans, on their invincible courage. Forces ſo nearly matched ſeemed only to require the protection of their deities to turn the ſcale of victory; and the augurs had foretold, that whatever part of the Roman army ſhould be diſtreſſed, the commander of that part ſhould devote himſelf for his country. Manlius commanded the right wing, and Decius led on the left. Both ſides fought for ſome time with doubtful ſucceſs, but, at laſt the left wing of the Roman army began to give ground. Decius then reſolved to devote himſelf for his country, and to offer his own life as an atonement to ſave his army. After the uſual ſuperſtitions, mounting on horſeback, he drove furiouſly into the midſt of the enemy, carrying terror and conſternation wherever he came, till he fell covered with wounds. The Roman army conſidering his devoting himſelf in this manner as an aſſurance of ſucceſs, and the ſuperſtition of the Latins being equally influenced by his reſolution, a total rout enſued, and ſcarce a 4th part of the enemy ſurvived the defeat. This was the laſt battle that the Latins had with the Romans: they were forced to beg a peace upon hard conditions; and two years after, their ſtrongeſt city, Pædum, being taken, they were brought under ſubmiſſion to the Roman power.

(25.) ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE WAR WITH PYRRHUS. About this time the Romans ſuſtained a ſignal diſgrace in their conteſt with the Samnites. The ſenate having denied the Samnites peace, Pontius their general reſolved to gain by ſtratagem, what he had frequently loſt by force. Leading his army into a defile called *Claudium*, and taking poſſeſſion of all its outlets, he ſent 10 of his ſoldiers, habited like ſheperds, to throw themſelves in the way the Romans were to march. The Roman conſul met them, and demanded the rout the Samnite army had taken; they, with ſeeming indifference, replied, that they were gone to Luceria, in Apulia, and were then beſieging it. The Roman general, marched directly by the ſhorteſt road, through the defiles, and was not undeceived till he ſaw his army ſurrounded, on every ſide. Pontius thus having the Romans entirely in his power, firſt obliged the army to paſs under the yoke, ſtripped of all but their garments; he then ſtipulated that they ſhould wholly quit the territories of the Samnites, and that they ſhould continue to live upon terms of former confederacy. The Romans were conſtrained to ſubmit to this ignominious treaty, and marched into Capua diſarmed and half naked. But after this the power of the Samnites declined every day, while that of the Romans continually increaſed. Under Papirius Curſor, at different times conſul and dictator, repeated triumphs were granted. Fabius Maximus alſo had his ſhare in conquering them; Decius, the ſon of Decius who devoted himſelf, followed the example of his father. (See DECIUS.) The ſucceſs of the Romans againſt the Samnites alarmed all Italy. The Tarentines who had long plotted againſt the republic, now decided themſelves; and invited into Italy Pyrrhus king of Epirus. The offer was readily accepted by that ambitious monarch. Their ambaſſadors carried magnificent preſents, and told him, that they only wanted a general of fame and experience; and that they could furniſh 20,000 horſe and 350,000 foot. As ſoon as the news of this deputation were brought to the Roman conſul Æmilius, who had hitherto made war on the Tarentines but gently, in hopes of adjuſting matters by negociation, began to commit all ſorts of hoſtilities. He took cities, ſtormed caſtles, and laid the whole country waſte, burning and deſtroying all before him. The Tarentines brought their army into the field, but Æmilius ſoon obliged them to take refuge within their walls. However he uſed the priſoners with great moderation, and even ſent them back without ranſom. This highly extolled the generoſity of the conſul. Many of the inhabitants were brought over to the Roman party, and they all began to repent their having ſent for Pyrrhus. But, in the mean time, the Tarentine ambaſſadors arriving in Epirus, purſuant to the powers they had received, made an abſolute treaty with the king; who immediately ſent before him the famous CYNEAS with 3000 men, to take poſſeſſion of the citadel of Tarentum. This miniſter depoſed Agis, whom the Tarentines had choſen to be their general and governor. He likewiſe prevailed upon the Tarentines to deliver up the citadel into his hands. He ſent meſſengers to Pyrrhus, preſſing him to haſten his departure. Mean time, Æmilius reſolved to quarter his troops in Apulia, near the territory of Tarentum. But being obliged to paſs through defiles, with the ſea on one ſide and hills on the other, he was attacked by the Tarentines and Epirots from barks fraught with BALISTÆ and from archers and ſlingers on the hills. Here Æmilius placed the Tarentine priſoners between him and the enemy; which the Tarentines perceiving, ſoon left off, ſo that the Romans took their winter-quarters in Apulia. The next year Æmilius was continued in the command with the title of *proconſul*; and was ordered to make war upon the Salentines, who had declared for the Tarentines. The Romans now enliſted the proletarii, who were the meaneſt of the people, and had never before been ſuffered to bear arms. In the mean time Pyrrhus arrived at Tarentum after having narrowly eſcaped ſhipwreck. The Tarentines, who were entirely devoted to their pleaſures expected that he ſhould take all the fatigues of the war on himſelf, and expoſe only the Epirots to danger. But his ſhips, arriving one after another, with his troops, he began to reform the diſorders that prevailed. He ſhut up the theatre, public gardens, porticoes, and places of exerciſe, and prohibited all maſquerades, plays, &c. They were utter ſtrangers to military diſciplines, but Pyrrhus having cauſed a regiſter to be made of all the young men fit for war, picked out the ſtrongeſt, and incorporated them among his own troops, exerciſing them daily for ſeveral hours. And becauſe many, who had not been accuſtom-

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accustomed to such severity, left their native coun-
try. Pyrrhus, by a public proclamation, declared
them capitally guilty. In the mean time, P.
Valerius Lævinus, the Roman consul, entering
the country of the Lucanians, who were in al-
liance with the Tarentines, committed great ra-
vages there: and having taken and fortified one
of their castles, waited in that neighbourhood for
Pyrrhus. Pyrrhus therefore took the field with
his Epirots, some recruits of Tarentum, and o-
ther Italians; and marched towards those parts
where Lævinus was waiting for him. The Ro-
mans were encamped on the other side of the ri-
ver Siris; and Pyrrhus appearing on the opposite
bank, wished to reconnoitre the enemy's camp,
and see what appearance they made. He crossed
the river, attended by Megacles, and having ob-
served the consul's intrenchments, the manner in
which he had posted his advanced guards, and
the good order of his camp, he was greatly sur-
prised. On his return, he changed his resolution
of attacking them; and waited for the arrival of
his confederates. In the mean time, he posted
his guards along the river, and sent out scouts
to watch the motions of the consul. Some of
them being taken by the Romans, the consul led
them through his camp, and having shewed them
every thing, sent them back to the king, telling
him that he had many other troops to shew
him in due time. Lævinus being determined to
bring the enemy to a battle before Pyrrhus receiv-
ed the reinforcements he expected, marched to
the banks of the Siris; and there drawing up his
army in battalia, ordered the cavalry to file off,
and march a great way about, to find a passage
in some place not defended by the enemy. Ac-
cordingly, they passed the river without being
perceived; and falling upon the guards which
Pyrrhus had posted on the banks over-against the
Roman army, gave the infantry an opportunity
of passing the river on bridges which Lævinus
had prepared. But before they got over, Pyr-
rhus, hastening from his camp, hoped to cut the
Roman army in pieces while passing the river,
by climbing up the steep banks; but the caval-
ry covering the infantry, and standing between
them and the Epirots, gave them time to form
themselves. On the other hand, Pyrrhus drew
his men as fast as they came from the camp,
and performed such deeds of valour, that the
Romans thought him worthy of the great repu-
tation he had acquired. As the cavalry alone had
hitherto engaged, Pyrrhus, who confided most
in his infantry, hastened back to the camp, to
bring them to the charge; and having changed
his arms with Megacles, led his phalanx against the
Roman legions, and attacked them with incredi-
ble fury. Lævinus sustained the shock with great
resolution, so that the victory was for many hours
doubtfully disputed. Both parties several times gave
way, but rallied again, and were brought back to
the charge by their commanders. Megacles, in
the attire of Pyrrhus, was in all places, and well
supported the character he had assumed. But his
disguise at last proved fatal to him: for a Roman
knight, named *Dexter*, taking him for the king,
followed him wherever he went; and at last kil-
led him, stripped him of his armour, and carried
them in triumph to the consul, who, by shewing
to the Epirots the spoils of their king, so terri-
fied them, that they began to give way. But
Pyrrhus, appearing in the first files of his phalanx,
and riding through all the lines, undeceived his
men, and inspired them with new courage. The
advantage seemed to be equal on both sides, when
Lævinus ordered his cavalry to advance; which
Pyrrhus observing, drew up 20 elephants in the
front of his army, with towers on their backs full
of bowmen. The sight of those dreadful animals
chilled the bravery of the Romans, who had never
before seen any. However, they still advanced, till
their horses, unable to bear the smell of them, and
frightened at the strange noise they made, threw
their riders, or carried them on full speed. In the
mean time, the archers, discharging showers of
darts from the towers, killed many of the Ro-
mans, while others were trod to death by the ele-
phants. Notwithstanding the disorder of the ca-
valry, the legionaries still kept their ranks, till
Pyrrhus attacked them at the head of the Thes-
salian horse. The onset was so furious, that they
were forced to retire in disorder. But an ele-
phant, which had been wounded, having caused
a great disorder in Pyrrhus's army, this accident
favoured the retreat of the Romans, and gave
them time to repass the river, and take refuge in
Apulia. Pyrrhus remained master of the field,
and had the pleasure to see the Romans fly before
him: but the victory cost him dear, a great num-
ber of his best officers and soldiers having been
slain in the battle. His first care after the action
was to bury the dead, and herein he made no dis-
tinction between the Romans and his Epirots.
Pyrrhus next broke into the countries in alliance
with the Romans, plundered the lands of the re-
public, and made incursions even into the neigh-
bourhood of Rome. Many cities opened their
gates to him, and he soon made himself master of
the greatest part of Campania. While in that
fruitful province, he was joined by the Samnites,
Lucanians, and Messapians, whom he had long
expected. He then marched to lay siege to Ca-
pua; but Lævinus, having already received a
reinforcement of two legions, threw some troops
into the city; which obliged Pyrrhus to drop his
design, and, leaving Capua, to march to Naples.
Lævinus followed him, harrassing his troops on
their march; and at length, by keeping his army
in the neighbourhood, forced him to give over all
thoughts of attacking that city. The king then
took his route towards Rome by the Latin way,
surprised Fregellæ, and, marching through the
country of the Hernici, sat down before Prænestе.
There, from the top of an hill, he saw Rome.
But he was soon forced to retire by the other
consul T. Coruncanius, who, having reduced E-
truria, was just returned with his victorious army
to Rome. He therefore raised the siege of Prænestе,
and hastened back into Campania; where, to his
surprise, he found Lævinus with a more numerous
army than that which he had defeated on the
banks of the Siris. The consul went to meet him,
to try the fate of another battle; but Pyrrhus pre-
tending that the augures were not favourable, re-
tired to Tarentum, and put an end to the cam-
paign. To this city the Romans sent him an em-

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partly conſiſting of Cornelius Dolabella, who had conquered the Samnites, Fabricius, and Æmilius Pappus, to demand a ſurrender of the priſoners, either by way of exchange, or at a proper ranſom; for Pyrrhus had taken 1800 priſoners, moſt of them Roman knights and men of diſtinction. Pyrrhus was diſappointed when he found that they did not come with propoſals for peace, of which he was very deſirous, but he treated them with magnificence. He releaſed 200 of the priſoners without ranſom, and ſuffered the reſt, on their parole, to return to Rome to celebrate the Saturnalia. Having thus gained the good will of the ambaſſadors, he ſent Cyneas to Rome with propoſals of peace on theſe terms: 1. That the Tarentines ſhould be included in the treaty. 2. That the Greek cities in Italy ſhould enjoy their laws and liberties. 3. That the republic ſhould reſtore to the Samnites, Lucanians, and Bruttians, all the places taken from them. By the eloquence of the ambaſſadors, together with well applied bribes, he nearly effected his errand, but Appius Claudius, blind as he was, came down to the ſenate, and his oratorial influence had the effect to determine, that Rome would enter into no terms with Pyrrhus while he remained in Italy. This reſolution they followed up by diſpatching the conſuls P. Sulpicius Saverrio, and P. Decius Mus, into Apulia, where they found Pyrrhus encamped near *Aſculum*. A battle enſued, in which Decius was ſlain, and Pyrrhus wounded and defeated, with the loſs of many of his troops. Sulpicius appeared in the field next day, but finding the Epirots had withdrawn to Tarentum, he put his troops into winter quarters in Apulia. Both armies early in the ſpring took the field anew. The Romans were commanded this year by the conſuls C. Fabricius and Q. Æmilius Pappus; who no ſooner arrived in Apulia, than they led their troops into the territory of Tarentum. Pyrrhus, who had received conſiderable reinforcements from Epirus, met them near the frontiers, and encamped at a ſmall diſtance. While the conſuls were waiting for a favourable opportunity, a meſſenger from Nicias, the king's phyſician, delivered a letter to Fabricius: wherein the traitor offered to take off his maſter by poiſon, for a ſuitable reward. The virtuous Romans immediately wrote to Pyrrhus, warning him, without diſcovering the criminal, to take care of himſelf, and be upon his guard againſt the treacherous deſigns of thoſe about him. Pyrrhus, out of gratitude, releaſed immediately, without ranſom, all the priſoners he had taken. But the Romans, diſdaining to accept a recompenſe for not committing the blackeſt treachery, ſent to Pyrrhus an equal number of Samnite and Tarentine priſoners. As the king of Epirus grew every day more weary of the war, he ſent Cyneas again to Rome, to try if he could prevail upon the ſenate to hearken to an accommodation, upon terms conſiſtent with his honour, but in vain. Mean time, ambaſſadors arrived at his camp from the Syracuſians, Agrigentines, and Leontines, imploring his aſſiſtance to drive out the Carthaginians, who threatened their ſtates with utter deſtruction. Pyrrhus, who wanted only ſome pretence to leave Italy, laid hold of this; and appointing Milo governor of Tarentum, with a ſtrong garriſon, he ſet ſail for Sicily with 30,000 foot, and 2500 horſe, on board a fleet of 200 ſhips. Here he was at firſt attended with great ſucceſs; but the Sicilians, diſguſted at the enormous extortions of his miniſters, had ſubmitted partly to the Carthaginians, and partly to the Mamertines. When Carthage heard of this change, new troops were raiſed all over Africa, and a numerous army ſent into Sicily to recover the cities which Pyrrhus had taken. As the Sicilians daily deſerted from him, he was now in a condition, with his Epirots alone, to withſtand ſo powerful an enemy; and therefore, when deputies came to him from the Tarentines, Samnites, Bruttians, and Lucanians, repreſenting to him that, without his aſſiſtance, they muſt fall a ſacrifice to the Romans, he laid hold of that opportunity to return to Italy. His fleet was attacked by that of Carthage; and his army, at their landing, by the Mamertines. But Pyrrhus having, by his bravery, eſcaped all danger, marched along the ſea ſhore, to reach Tarentum the way. As he paſſed through the country of the Locrians, who had maſſacred the troops he had left there, he not only exerciſed all ſorts of cruelty on the inhabitants, but plundered the temple of Proſerpine. The immenſe riches which he found there, were, by his order, ſent to Tarentum by ſea; but the ſhips that carried them being daſhed againſt the rocks by a tempeſt, and the mariners all loſt, this proud prince conſidering it as a judgment from the gods, cauſed all the treaſure which the ſea had thrown upon the ſhore, to be carefully gathered up, and replaced in the temple: and put all thoſe to death who had adviſed him to plunder the temple. Pyrrhus at length arrived at Tarentum; but of the army he had carried into Sicily, he brought back into Italy only 2000 horſe, and not 20,000 foot. He therefore reinforced them with the beſt troops he could raiſe in the countries of the Samnites, Lucanians, and Bruttians; and hearing that the two new conſuls, Curius Dentatus and Cornelius Lentulus, had divided their forces, the one invading Lucania, and the other Samnium, he likewiſe divided his army into two bodies, marching with his Epirots againſt Dentatus, in hopes of ſurpriſing him in his camp near Beneventum. But the conſul went out of his entrenchments with a ſtrong detachment of legionaries to meet him; repulſed his van-guard, put many of the Epirots to the ſword, and took ſome of their elephants. Curius then marched his army into the Taurafian field, and drew it up in a plain wide enough for his own troops, but too narrow for the Epirot phalanx. But the king's eagerneſs to try his ſkill with ſo renowned a commander, made him engage at that great diſadvantage. The conſequence of which was, that the Romans obtained a complete victory. Oroſius and Eutropius tell us that Pyrrhus's army conſiſted of 80,000 foot, and 6000 horſe, including his Epirots and allies; whereas the conſular army was ſcarce 20,000 ſtrong. Some ſay that the king's loſs amounted to 30,000 men; others reduce it to 20,000. All agree, that Curius took 1200 priſoners, and 8 elephants. This victory, which was the moſt deciſive Rome had ever gained, brought all Italy under ſubjection

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ared the way for thoſe vaſt conqueſts which ed. Pyrrhus being not in a condition, af- great loſs, to keep the field, retired to am, attended only by a ſmall body of leaving the Romans in full poſſeſſion of his which they ſo much admired, that they ever after a model to form theirs by. And reſolved to leave Italy, but concealed his and endeavoured to keep up the droop- its of his allies, by giving them hopes of ſuccours from Greece. Accordingly he ed ambaſſadors into Ætolia, Illyricum, acedon, demanding ſupplies of men and At laſt he pretended to be in a great at the dilatorineſs of his friends in ſending ccours; and acquainted the Tarentines, muſt go and bring them over himſelf. , he left behind him a ſtrong garriſon in el of Tarentum, under Milo. After theſe ions, Pyrrhus ſet ſail for Epirus, and ar- at Acroceraunium with 8000 foot, and ; after having ſpent to no purpoſe ſix Italy and Sicily.

ROME, HISTORY OF, TO THE WAR WITH ARTHAGINIANS. Though, from the manner Pyrrhus took his leave, his Italian allies reaſon to expect any further aſſiſtance , yet they continued to indulge vain certain accounts arrived of his being the ſiege of Argos, as related under E- This threw the Samnites into deſpair; ey put all to the iſſue of a general bat- hich they were defeated with ſuch dread- ter, that the nation was almoſt extermi- This overthrow was ſoon followed by the on of the Lucanians, Bruttians, Taren- arcinates, Picentes, and Salentines; ſo that ow became miſtreſs of all the nations from eſt parts of Etruria to the Ionian ſea, the Tyrrhenian ſea to the Adriatic. All ions, however, did not enjoy the ſame t. Some were entirely ſubject to the re- others retained their old laws and cuſ- in ſubjection to the republic: ſome tary; and others allies, who were o- furniſh troops at their own expence, Romans required. Some had the pri- Roman citizenſhip, their ſoldiers being rated in the legions; while others had a ſuffrage in the elections made by the cen- Theſe different degrees of honour, privi- and liberty, were founded on the different granted to the conquered nations when rrendered, and were afterwards increaſed to their fidelity, and the ſervices they republic. The Romans now became re- by foreign nations, and received ambaſſa- Ptolemy Philadelphus king of Egypt, Apollonia, a city of Macedon. Senſi- their own importance, they now granted tion to whatever nation requeſted it of ; not with a view of ſerving one party, but ey might ſubject both. In this manner aſſiſted the Mamertines againſt Hiero, king acuſe, which brought on the wars with the thaginians, which terminated in the total de- tion of that ancient republic, as related un- CARTHAGE. The interval between the firſt and ſecond Punic wars was by the Romans em- ployed in reducing the Boii and Ligurians, who had revolted. Theſe were Gauliſh nations, who had always been very formidable to the Romans, and now gave one of their conſuls a notable de- feat. However, he ſoon after defeated them with great ſlaughter; though it was not till ſome time after that, and with great difficulty, that they were totally ſubdued. During this interval alſo, the Romans ſeized on the iſlands of Sardinia, Corſica, and Malta; and in 219 B. C. the two for- mer were reduced to the form of a province. Papirius, who had ſubdued Corſica, demanded a tri- umph; but not having intereſt enough to obtain it, he took a method entirely new to do himſelf juſtice. He put himſelf at the head of his victo- rious army, and marched to the temple of Jupi- ter Latialis, on the hill of Alba, with all the pomp that attended triumphant victors at Rome. He made no other alteration in the ceremony, but that of wearing a crown of myrtle inſtead of a crown of laurel, and this on account of his hav- ing defeated the Corſicans in a place where there was a grove of myrtles. The example of Papirius was afterwards followed by many generals to whom the ſenate refuſed triumphs. The next year, when M. Æmilius Barbula and M. Junius Pera were conſuls, a new war ſprung up in a kingdom out of Italy. ILLYRICUM, which bor- dered upon Macedon and Epirus, was at this time governed by TEUTA, the widow of king Agron, and guardian to her ſon Pinæus, who was under age. Her pirates had taken and plundered many ſhips belonging to the Romans, and her troops were then beſieging the iſland of Iſſa, in the Adriatic, whoſe inhabitants were under the protection of the republic. Upon the complaints therefore of the Italian merchants, and to protect the people of Iſſa, the ſenate ſent two ambaſſa- dors to the Illyrian queen, Lucius and Caius Co- runcanus, to demand of her that ſhe would re- ſtrain her ſubjects from infeſting the ſea with pi- rates. She anſwered them haughtily; they repli- ed in a ſimilar ſtrain, which provoked Teuta to ſuch a degree, that ſhe cauſed them to be mur- dered on their return. When ſo notorious an in- fraction of the law of nations was known at Rome, the people demanded vengeance; and the ſenate having erected, as uſual in ſuch caſes, ſtatues 3 feet high to their memory, ordered a fleet to be equipped, and troops raiſed, with expedition. But Teuta ſent an embaſſy to Rome, aſſuring the ſenate that ſhe had no hand in the murder of the ambaſſadors, and offering to deliver up to the republic thoſe who had committed it. The Ro- mans being threatened with a war from the Gauls, were ready to accept this ſatisfaction; but the Illyrian fleet having gained ſome advantage over that of the Achæans, and taken the iſland of Cor- cyra near Epirus, this ſucceſs made Teuta believe herſelf invincible, and diſregard her promiſe to the Romans; ſhe even ſent her fleet to ſeize on the iſland of Iſſa, which they had taken under their protection. Hereupon the conſuls, P. Poſt- humius Albinus, and Cn. Fulvius Centumalus, embarked for Illyricum; Fulvius having the com- mand of the fleet, which conſiſted of 100 galleys; and Poſthumius of the land forces, which amount-

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ed to 20,000 foot, beſides a ſmall body of horſe. Fulvius appeared with his fleet before Corcyra, and was put in poſſeſſion both of the iſland and city by Demetrius of Pharos, governor for Q. Teuta. Nor was this all; Demetrius made the inhabitants of Apollonia drive out the Illyrian garriſon, and admit into their city the Roman troops. The Andyæans, Parthini, and Atintanes, ſoon after ſubmitted to Poſthumius, being induced by the perſuaſions of Demetrius to ſhake off the Illyrian yoke. The conſul being now in poſſeſſion of moſt of the inland towns, returned to the coaſt, where, with the aſſiſtance of the fleet, he took many ſtrong holds, among which was Nutria, a place of great ſtrength, with a numerous garriſon; who made a vigorous defence, the Romans having loſt before it many private men, ſeveral tribunes, and one quæſtor. This loſs was repaired by the capture of 40 Illyrian veſſels, which were returning home with booty. At length the Roman fleet appeared before Iſſa, which, by Teuta's order, was ſtill cloſely beſieged, notwithſtanding her loſſes. However, upon the approach of the Roman fleet, the Illyrians diſperſed; but the Pharians, who ſerved among them, followed their countryman Demetrius, and joined the Romans, to whom the Iſſani ſubmitted. Sp. Corvilius and Q. Fabius Maximus being again raiſed to the conſulate, Poſthumius was recalled from Illyricum, and refuſed a triumph for having been too prodigal of blood at the ſiege of Nutria. His colleague Fulvius was appointed to command the land forces as proconſul. Hereupon Teuta retired to one of her ſtrong holds called *Rhizon*, and thence early in ſpring ſent an embaſſy to Rome. The ſenate refuſed to treat with her; but granted the young king a peace upon condition; 1. That he ſhould pay an annual tribute; 2. That he ſhould ſurrender part of his dominions; 3. That he ſhould never ſuffer above 3 of his ſhips of war at a time to ſail beyond Lyſſus. The places he yielded to the Romans by this treaty, were the iſlands of Corcyra, Iſſa, and Pharos, the city of Dyrrhachium, and the country of the Atintanes. Soon after, Teuta abdicated the regency, and Demetrius ſucceeded her. Before this war was ended, the Romans were alarmed by new motions of the Gauls, and the great progreſs which the Carthaginians made in Spain. At this time alſo the fears of the people were excited by a prophecy ſaid to be taken out of the Sybilline books, that the Gauls and Greeks ſhould one day be in poſſeſſion of Rome. This prophecy, however, the ſenate found means to elude, by burying two Gauls and two Greeks alive, and then telling the multitude that the Gauls and Greeks were now in the poſſeſſion of Rome. The Romans now made vaſt preparations againſt the Gauls, whom they dreaded above all other nations. Some ſay that the number of forces raiſed by the Romans on this occaſion amounted to no fewer than 800,000 men. Of this incredible multitude 248,000 foot, and 26,000 horſe were Romans or Campanians; yet the Gauls, with only 50,000 foot, and 20,000 horſe, forced a paſſage through Etruria, and took the road towards Rome. Here they at firſt defeated one Roman army; but being ſoon after met by two others, they were utterly defeated, with the loſs of more than 50,000 men. The Romans then entered their country, which they cruelly ravaged; but a plague breaking out, obliged them to return home. This was followed by a new war, in which thoſe Gauls who inhabited Inſubria and Liguria were totally ſubdued, and their country reduced to a Roman province. Theſe conqueſts were followed by that of Iſtria; Dimalum, a place of importance in Illyricum; and Pharos, an iſland in the Adriatic ſea. The 2d Punic war, for ſome time retarded the conqueſts of the Romans, and even threatened their ſtate with deſtruction; but Hannibal being at laſt recalled from Italy, and entirely defeated at Zama, they made peace upon ſuch advantageous terms as gave them an entire ſuperiority over that republic, which they not long after entirely ſubdued. See CARTHAGE, § 6.

(27.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE TIME OF GRACCHUS. The ſucceſsful iſſue of the 2d Punic war had greatly increaſed the extent of the Roman empire. They were now maſters of Sicily, the Mediterranean iſlands, and great part of Spain; and, through the diſſentions of the Aſiatic ſtates with the king of Macedon, a pretext was now found for carrying their arms into those parts. The Gauls, however, continued their incurſions, but now ceaſed to be formidable. Even the kings of Macedon were firſt obliged to ſubmit to a diſadvantageous peace, and at laſt entirely ſubdued. (See MACEDON, § 18.) The deſolation of Macedon was ſoon followed by that of Greece, either under the name of allies or otherwiſe; while Antiochus the Great, to whom Hannibal fled for protection, by an unſucceſsful war firſt gave the Romans a footing in Aſia. (See ASIA.) The Spaniards and Gauls continued the moſt obſtinate enemies. The former particularly, were rather exterminated than ſubdued, and even this required the utmoſt care and aſſiſtance of Scipio Æmilianus, the conqueror of Carthage, to execute. See SPAIN and NUMANTIA. Thus the Romans attained to a height of power ſuperior to any other nation in the world. But now a ſedition broke out, which we may ſay was never terminated but with the overthrow of the republic. This had its origin from Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, deſcended from a family which, though plebeian, was as illuſtrious as any in the commonwealth. His father had been twice conſul, was a great general, and had been honoured with two triumphs. But he was ſtill more renowned for his domeſtic virtues and probity, than for his birth or valour. He married Cornelia, the daughter of the firſt Scipio Africanus, a pattern of her ſex, and the prodigy of her age; and had by her ſeveral children, of whom only three arrived to maturity of age, Tiberius Gracchus, Caius Gracchus, and a daughter, *Sempronia*, who was married to Scipio Africanus, Junior, or Æmilianus. Tiberius, the eldeſt, was deemed the moſt accompliſhed youth in Rome, with reſpect to all the qualities both of body and mind. He made his firſt campaigns under his brother-in-law, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his courage, and prudence. When he returned to Rome, he applied himſelf to the ſtudy of eloquence; and at 30 years

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accounted the beſt orator of his age. He ried the daughter of Appius Claudius, who been conſul and cenſor, and was then prince e ſenate. He was the chief author and ne- or of that peace with the Numantines; the ſenate, with the utmoſt injuſtice, diſ- d, and condemned the conſul, the quæſtor, the officers who had ſigned it, to be deli- up to the Numantines. (See NUMANTIA.) d for the tribuneſhip of the people; which ooner obtained, than he reſolved to attack ility in the moſt tender part. They had lands unjuſtly; cultivated them by ſlaves, reat detriment of the public; and had li- about 250 years in open defiance to the law, by which it was enacted that no ci- ould poſſeſs more than 500 acres. This Gracchus reſolved to revive. The law, ſt drew it up, was very mild; for it only e- that thoſe who poſſeſſed more than 500 a- land ſhould part with the overplus; and full value of the ſaid lands ſhould be paid of the public treaſury. The lands thus ed by the public were to be divided a- the poor citizens; and cultivated either by ves or by freemen, who were upon the He allowed every child to hold 250 acres. , even in ſo mild a ſhape, was ſtrenuouſ- ed by the ſenate, and by one of his fellow *Marcus Octavius Cæcina*. The conſe- was, that he procured the depoſition of the d, irritated by oppoſition, he had influ- ugh to have the law revived as it was at ed, without abating any thing of its ſeve- here was no exception in favour of the in families; or reimburſement promiſed who ſhould part with the lands they poſ- above 500 acres. The Licinian law being ived with one conſent both by the city ntry tribes, Gracchus cauſed the people t three commiſſioners, to haſten its exe- This commiſſion was held by Gracchus, -in-law Appius Claudius, and his brother racchus. Theſe three ſpent the whole in travelling through all the Italian pro- to examine what lands were held by any above 500 acres, in order to divide them a- the poor citizens. On a ſtrict inquiry, they that the lands taken from the rich would be to content all the poor citizens. But the ing circumſtance eaſed Gracchus of this dif- Attalus Philometer, king of Pergamus, bequeathed his dominions and effects to mans, Gracchus immediately got a new ed, enacting, that this money ſhould be among the poor citizens who could not ds; and that the diſpoſal of the revenues ganus ſhould not be in the ſenate, but in ntia. By theſe ſteps Gracchus moſt effec- humbled the ſenate. In order to continue wer, he projected and indeed almoſt effected election to the office of tribune, but the pa- being determined to effect his fall, took ntage of a report that had been circulated of ention of aſpiring to ſovereignty, and ſlew in a tumult on the day of election.

(28.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH GRACCHUS THE YOUNGER. The death of Gracchus did not put an end to the tumult. Above 300 of the tribune's friends loſt their lives in the fray; and their bodies were thrown, with that of Gracchus, into the Tiber. Nay, the ſenate carried their revenge beyond the fatal day which had ſtained the Capitol with Roman blood. They ſought for all the friends of the late tribune, and without any form of law aſſaſſinated ſome, and forced others into baniſhment. Theſe diſturbances were for a ſhort time interrupted by a revolt of the ſlaves in Sicily, occaſioned by the cruelty of their maſters; but they being ſoon reduced, the conteſts about the *Sempronian law*, as it was called, again took place. Both parties were determined not to yield; and therefore the moſt fatal effects enſued. The firſt thing of conſequence was the death of Scipio Africanus the younger, who was privately ſtrangled in his bed by ſome of the plebeian party, about 129 B. C. Caius Gracchus, brother to Tiberius, not only undertook the revival of the Sempronian law, but propoſed a new one, granting the rights of Roman citizens to all the Italian allies, who could receive no ſhare of the lands divided in conſequence of the Sempronian law. The effects of this were much worſe than the former; the flame ſpread through all Italy; and the nations who had made war with the republic in its infancy again commenced enemies more formidable than before. Fregellæ, a city of the Volſci, revolted: but being ſuddenly attacked, was obliged to ſubmit, and was raſed to the ground. Gracchus, however, ſtill continued his attempts to humble the ſenate and the patricians: the ultimate conſequence of which was, that a price was ſet on his head, and that of Fulvius his confederate, no leſs than their weight in gold, to any one who ſhould bring them to Opimius the chief of the patrician party. Thus the cuſtom of proſcription was begun by the patricians, of which they themſelves ſoon had enough, and they certainly merited it. Gracchus and Fulvius were ſacrificed, but the diſorders of the republic were not ſo eaſily cured.

(29.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE HORRID MASSACRES BY CINNA AND MARIUS. The inroad of the Cimbri and Teutones put a ſtop to the civil diſcords for ſome time longer; but they being defeated, (ſee CIMBRI and TEUTONES,) nothing prevented the troubles from being revived with greater fury than before, except the war with the Sicilian ſlaves, which had again commenced with more dangerous circumſtances than ever. But this war being totally ended about 99 B. C. no farther obſtacle remained. Marius, the conqueror of JUGURTHA (ſee NUMIDIA,) and the Cimbri, undertook the cauſe of the plebeians againſt the ſenate and patricians. Having aſſociated himſelf with Apuleius and Glaucia, two factious men, they carried their proceedings to ſuch a length, that an open rebellion commenced, and Marius himſelf was obliged to act againſt his allies. Peace, however, was reſtored by the maſſacre of Apuleius and Glaucia, with a great number of their followers; upon which Marius left the city. While factious men thus endeavoured to tear the republic in pieces, the attempts of well meaning people to heal thoſe diviſions ſerved only to involve the ſtate in calamities ſtill more grievous.

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The conſuls obſerved, that many individuals of the Italian allies lived at Rome, and falſely pretended to be Roman citizens. By means of them, the plebeian party had acquired a great deal of its power; as the votes of theſe pretended citizens were always at the ſervice of the tribunes. The conſuls therefore got a law paſſed, commanding all thoſe pretended citizens to return home. This was ſo much reſented by the Italian ſtates, that an univerſal defection took place. A ſcheme was then formed by M. Livius Druſus, a tribune of the people, to reconcile all parties; but this only made matters worſe, and procured his own aſſaſſination. His death ſeemed a ſignal for war. The Marſi, Peligni, Samnites, Campanians, and Lucanians, and all the provinces from the Liris to the Adriatic, revolted at once, and formed themſelves into a republic, in oppoſition to that of Rome. The haughty Romans were now made thoroughly ſenſible that they were not invincible: they were defeated in almoſt every engagement; and muſt ſoon have yielded, had they not fallen upon a method of dividing their enemies. A law was paſſed, enacting, that all the nations in Italy, whoſe alliance with Rome was indiſputable, ſhould enjoy the right of Roman citizens. This drew off ſeveral nations from the alliance; and Sylla taking upon him the command of the Roman armies, fortune ſoon declared in favour of the latter. The ſucceſs of Rome againſt the allies ſerved only to bring greater miſeries upon herſelf. Marius and Sylla became rivals; the former adhering to the people, and the latter to the patricians. Marius aſſociated with one of the tribunes named *Sulpitius*; in conjunction with whom he raiſed ſuch diſturbances, that Sylla was forced to retire from the city. Having thus driven off his rival, Marius got himſelf appointed general againſt Mithridates, king of Pontus; (ſee PONTUS, § 7, 8.) but the ſoldiers refuſed to obey any other than Sylla. A civil war immediately enſued, in which Marius was driven out in his turn, and a price ſet upon his head and that of Sulpitius, with many of their adherents. Sulpitius was ſoon ſeized and killed; but Marius eſcaped. In the mean time, however, the cruelties of Sylla rendered him obnoxious both to the ſenate and people; and Cinna, a furious partiſan of the Marian faction, being choſen conſul, cited him to give an account of his conduct. Upon this Sylla ſet out for Aſia: Marius was recalled from Africa, whither he had fled; and immediately on his landing in Italy, was joined by a great number of ſhepherds, ſlaves, and men of deſperate fortunes; ſo that he ſoon had a conſiderable army. Cinna, whom the ſenators had depoſed and driven out of Rome, ſolicited and obtained a powerful army from the allies; and being joined by Sertorius, a moſt able and experienced general, the two, in conjunction with Marius, advanced towards the capital; and as their forces daily increaſed, a 4th army was formed under Papirius Carbo. The ſenate raiſed ſome forces to defend the city; but theſe being vaſtly inferior in number, and inclined to the contrary ſide, they were obliged to open their gates to the confederates. Marius entered at the head of a numerous guard, compoſed of ſlaves, whom he called his *Bardicaas*, and whom he deſigned to employ in revenging himſelf on his enemies. The firſt o he gave theſe aſſaſſins was, to murder all came to ſalute him, and were not anſwered the like civility. As every one was forward his compliments to the new tyrant, this orde d the deſtruction of vaſt numbers. At l Barbarians abandoned themſelves to ſuch in every kind of vice, that Cinna and Serto dered their troops to fall upon them; whic inſtantly put in execution, they were all a man. By the deſtruction of his guards, was reduced to the neceſſity of taking a of gratifying his revenge, ſomewhat more though equally effectual. A conference w between the four chiefs, in which a reſolu taken to murder without mercy all the who had oppoſed the popular faction. A ſlaughter commenced, which laſted five d ring which the greateſt part of the obnox nators were cut off, their heads ſtuck upo over againſt the roſtra, and their bodies with hooks into the forum, where they to be devoured by dogs. Sylla's houſe moliſhed, his goods confiſcated, and he declared an enemy to his country; howe wife and children eſcaped. This maſſa not confined to the city of Rome. The were diſperſed over the country in ſearch who fled; and many gave up their frie had fled to them for ſhelter.

(30.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE MASSACRES BY SYLLA. This ſlaughter ver, Cinna named himſelf and Marius co the enſuing year; and theſe tyrants ſeeme ved to begin the new year as they had end old one: but, while they were preparing new their cruelties, Sylla, having proved vi in the eaſt, ſent a long letter to the ſenate, an account of his many victories, and hi tion of returning to Rome, to revenge hi his enemies. This letter occaſioned an terror. Marius, dreading to enter the ſuch a renowned warrior, gave himſelf ceſſive drinking, and died. His ſon was with Cinna in the government, though n conſulſhip, and proved a tyrant no leſs cr his father. The ſenate declared Valerius general of the forces in the eaſt, and him a conſiderable army; but the troops man deſerted him, and joined Sylla. Soon Cinna declared himſelf conſul a third tim took for his colleague Papirius Carbo; but tizens, dreading the tyranny of theſe in monſters, fled in crowds to Sylla, who wa in Greece. To him the ſenate ſent deputie ging that he would have compaſſion on his try, and not carry his reſentment to ſuch a as to begin a civil war: but he replied, th was coming to Rome full of rage and re and that all his enemies ſhould periſh eith the ſword or the axes of the executioners. this ſeveral very numerous armies were for gainſt him; but were everywhere defeated went over to the enemy. Pompey, after ſtyled *the Great*, embraced the party of The Italian nations took ſome one ſide and another. Cinna was killed in a tumult, young Marius and Carbo ſucceeded him;

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ver having ventured an engagement with Sylla, s by him defeated, and forced to fly to Præ-, where he was clofely befieged. Thus was ne reduced to the loweft degree of mifery, a one Pontius Telefinus, a Samnite, projected total ruin of the city. He had joined, or pre-d to join, the generals of the Marian faction an army of 40,000 men; and therefore ed towards Præneſte, as if he deſigned to Marius. By this manœvre, he drew Sylla ompey away from the capital; and then, de-ing in the night, over-reached theſe two ge- and by break of day was within 10 fur-of the Collatine gate. He then declaring as much an enemy to Marius as to Sylla, troops, that it was not his deſign to aſſiſt oman againſt another, but to deſtroy race. "Let fire and ſword (ſaid he) deſtroy t no quarter be given; mankind can never as long as one Roman is left alive."—Ne-this proud metropolis been in greater dan-or ever had any city a more narrow eſcape. oman youth marched out to oppoſe him, re driven back with great ſlaughter. Sylla was defeated, and forced to fly to his Telefinus advanced with more fury than but, in the mean time, M. Craſſus having the other wing of his army, he attacked dy where Telefinus commanded, and by them to flight, ſaved his country. Sylla, now no enemy to fear, marched firſt to A-, and thence to Rome. From the former carried 8000 priſoners to Rome, and cau-all to be maſſacred at once in the circus. city next fell upon the Præneſtines, 12,000 were maſſacred without mercy. Young had killed himſelf, to avoid falling into his Soon after, the inhabitants of Norba, a Campania, finding themſelves unable to re-forces of the tyrant, ſet fire to their houſes, periſhed in the flames. The taking of theſe put an end to the civil war, but not to the s of Sylla. Having aſſembled the people comitium, he told them, that he was reſol-to ſpare a ſingle perſon who had born inſt him. This cruel reſolution he put in on with the moſt unrelenting vigour; and at laſt cut off all thoſe whom he thought of oppoſing him, Sylla cauſed himſelf to ared perpetual dictator. This revolution ed about 80 B. C. and from this time we date the loſs of the Roman liberty. Sylla in-reaſed his power in two years; but the ci-of Rome having once ſubmitted, were ever ready to ſubmit to a maſter. Though indi-als retained the ſame enthuſiaſtic notions of y as before, yet the minds of the generality from this time to have inclined towards mo-y. New maſters were indeed already pre-for the republic.

(L) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE. CÆSAR and POMPEY had emi-ly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their martial ex-s, and were already rivals. SERTORIUS, one the generals of the Marian faction, and the on-e of them poſſeſſed either of honour or pro-y, had retired into Spain, where he erected a ublic, independent of Rome. Pompey and Me-tellus, two of the beſt reputed generals in Rome, were ſent againſt him; but inſtead of conquering, they were on all occaſions conquered by him. At laſt Sertorius was treacherouſly murdered; and the traitors, who after his death uſurped the com-mand, being totally deſtitute of his abilities, were eaſily defeated by Pompey: and thus that general reaped an undeſerved honour from concluding the war with ſucceſs. The Spaniſh war was ſcarce ended, when a very dangerous one was excited by Spartacus, a Thracian gladiator. For ſome time this rebel proved very ſucceſsful: but at laſt was defeated and killed by Craſſus. The fugi-tives, however, rallied again, to the number of 5000; but, being defeated by Pompey, the latter took occaſion to claim the glory due to Craſſus. Being thus become extremely popular, he was choſen conſul along with Craſſus. Both generals were at the head of powerful armies, and a con-teſt inſtantly began betwixt them. With difficulty they were in appearance reconciled, but began to oppoſe one another in a new way. Pompey courted the favour of the people, by reinſtating the tribunes in their ancient power, which had been greatly abridged by Sylla. Craſſus, though very covetous, entertained the populace with ſur-priſing profuſion at 10,000 tables, and diſtributed corn among their families. Craſſus was the richeſt man at this time in Rome, and his eſtate account-ed to upwards of 7000 talents, *i. e.* 1,356,250l. ſterling. Pompey, however, ſtill had the ſuperi-ority; and was therefore propoſed as a proper perſon for clearing the ſeas of pirates. He was to have an abſolute authority for three years over all the ſeas within the pillars of Hercules, and over all the countries for 400 furlongs from the ſea. He was empowered to raiſe as many ſoldiers and ma-riners as he thought proper; to take what ſums of money he pleaſed out of the public treaſury, without being accountable; and to chooſe out of the ſenate 15 ſenators to be his lieutenants, and execute his orders when he himſelf could not be preſent. The ſenſible part of the people were a-gainſt inveſting one man with ſo much power; but the unthinking multitude rendered all oppoſi-tion fruitleſs. This law being agreed to, Pompey executed his commiſſion ſo much to the public ſatisfaction, that on his return a new law was pro-poſed, appointing him general of all the forces in Aſia; and as he was ſtill to retain the ſovereignty of the ſeas, he was now in fact made ſovereign of all the Roman empire. Cicero and Cæſar, ſupport-ed this law, the former aſpiring at the conſulate, and the latter pleaſed to ſee the Romans appointing themſelves a maſter. Pompey, however, executed his commiſſion with fidelity and ſucceſs, complete-ly conquering Pontus, Albania, Iberia, &c. which had been begun by Sylla and Lucullus. But while Pompey was thus aggrandiſing himſelf, the repub-lic was on the point of being ſubverted by a con-ſpiracy formed by Lucius Sergius Catiline. He was deſcended from an illuſtrious family; but ha-ving ruined his eſtate, and rendered himſelf infa-mous by a ſeries of deteſtable crimes, he aſſociated with a number of others in ſimilar circumſtances. Their ſcheme was to murder the conſuls with the greateſt part of the ſenators, ſet fire to the city, and ſeize the government. This wicked deſign

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miſcarried twice; but was not dropped by the conſpirators. At laſt it was diſcovered by a young knight, who had revealed the ſecret to his paramour. Catiline then openly took the field, and raiſed a conſiderable army: but was defeated and killed about 62 B. C. In the mean time, Cæſar continued to advance in popularity and in power. Soon after the defeat of Catiline, he was created pontifex maximus; and after that was ſent into Spain, where he ſubdued ſeveral nations that had never been ſubject to Rome. Mean time Pompey returned from the eaſt, and was received with the higheſt honours; but he affected extraordinary modeſty, and declined accepting the applauſe. His aim was to aſſume a ſovereign authority without ſeeming to deſire it. He therefore renewed his intrigues, and ſpared no pains to increaſe his popularity. Cæſar, on his return from Spain, found the ſovereignty divided between Craſſus and Pompey. Cæſar, no leſs ambitious than either, propoſed that they ſhould put an end to their differences, and take him for a partner. In ſhort, he projected a triumvirate, (Pompey, Craſſus, and himſelf,) in which ſhould be lodged the whole power of the ſenate and people; and, they bound themſelves by mutual oaths to ſtand by each other, and ſuffer nothing to be undertaken or carried into execution without the unanimous conſent of all the three. Thus was the liberty of the Romans taken away a ſecond time, nor did they ever afterwards recover it; though none perceived this, except Cato. The aſſociation of the triumvirs was for a long time kept ſecret; and nothing appeared to the people except the reconciliation of Pompey and Craſſus, for which the ſtate reckoned itſelf indebted to Cæſar.

(32.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE CIVIL WAR BETWEEN CÆSAR AND POMPEY. The firſt conſequences of the triumvirate was the conſulſhip of Julius Cæſar. This was obtained by the favour of Pompey and Craſſus. Cæſar ſet himſelf to engage the affections of the people; and this he did, by an agrarian law, ſo effectually, that he was in a manner idolized. The law was in itſelf very reaſonable and juſt; nevertheleſs, the ſenate, perceiving the deſign with which it was propoſed, thought themſelves bound to oppoſe it. But their oppoſition, proved fruitleſs: the conſul Bibulus, who ſhewed himſelf moſt active in his endeavours againſt it, was driven out of the aſſembly with the greateſt indignity; ſo that Cæſar was reckoned the ſole conſul. The next ſtep taken by Cæſar was to ſecure the knights, and for this purpoſe he abated a third of the rents which they annually paid into the treaſury; after which he governed Rome with an abſolute ſway during the time of his conſulate. The reign of this triumvir, however, was ended by his expedition into Gaul, where his military exploits acquired him the higheſt reputation.—Pompey and Craſſus became conſuls, and governed as deſpotically as Cæſar. On the expiration of their firſt conſulate, the republic fell into a kind of anarchy. At laſt, however, this confuſion was ended by raiſing Craſſus and Pompey again to the conſulate. This was no ſooner done, than a new partition of the empire was propoſed. Craſſus was to have Syria and all the eaſtern provinces, Pompey was to govern Africa and Spain, and Cæſar to be continued in Gaul, all five years. This law was paſſed by a great majority; upon which Craſſus undertook an expedition againſt the Parthians. Cæſar applied with aſſiduity to the completing of the conqueſt of Gaul; and Pompey ſtaid at Rome to govern the republic alone. The affairs of the Romans were now haſtening to a criſis. Craſſus, having entered all the provinces of the eaſt, was totally defeated and killed by the Parthians; (See PARTHIA, § 6.) after which the two great rivals, Cæſar and Pompey were left alone. Matters, however, continued pretty quiet, till Gaul was reduced to a Roman province. (See GAUL, § 4.) The queſtion now was whether Cæſar or Pompey ſhould firſt reſign the command of their armies, and return to the ſtate of private perſons. As both parties ſaw that whoever firſt laid down his arms muſt of courſe ſubmit to the other, both refuſed. As Cæſar, however, had amaſſed immenſe riches in Gaul, he was in a condition not only to maintain an army able of vying with Pompey, but even to bribe the leading men in Rome to his intereſt. The conſuls, named *Æmilius Paulus*, coſt him leſs than 1500 talents, or 310,625l. ſterling; the other, named *Marcellus*, could not be gained at any price. Pompey had put at the head of the tribunes one Scribonius Curio, a young man of great abilities, but ſo exceedingly debauched and extravagant, that he owed upwards of two millions and a half of our money. Cæſar, enabling him to ſatisfy his creditors, and furniſhing him with money to purſue his debauches, ſecured him in his intereſt; and Curio, ſeeming to be in Cæſar's intereſt, did him eſſential ſervice. He propoſed that both generals ſhould be recalled; being aſſured that Pompey would never conſent to part with his army, and Cæſar might make this a pretence for continuing in his province at the head of his troops: and while both profeſſed pacific intentions, both continued ready for the moſt obſtinate and bloody war. Cicero took upon himſelf the office of mediator; but Pompey would hearken to no terms of accommodation. In the year 49 B. C. the ſenate paſſed a decree by which Pompey was inveſted with the command of the troops of the republic, Cæſar diveſted of his office, and Lucius Domitius appointed to ſucceed him, the new governor being empowered to raiſe 4000 men to take poſſeſſion of his province. War being thus reſolved on, Cæſar animated and Pompey began to prepare for oppoſing Cæſar. They ordered 30,000 Roman forces to be aſſembled, with as many foreign troops as Pompey ſhould think proper; the expence of which was defrayed from the public treaſury. The governments of provinces were beſtowed upon ſuch as were remarkable for their attachment to Pompey. Cæſar, however, took care of his own intereſt: 3 of the tribunes who had been his friends were driven out of Rome, and arrived in his camp diſguiſed like ſlaves. Cæſar ſhowed them his army in this ignominious habit; and, ſetting forth the iniquity of the ſenate and patricians, encouraged his men to ſtand by their general under whom they had ſerved ſo long with ſucceſs; and finding by their acclamations that he could depend on them, he reſolved to begin hoſtilities immediately.

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ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF CÆSAR, BY POMPEY. Cæſar's firſt deſign to make himſelf maſter of Ariminum, a city bordering upon Ciſalpine Gaul, but reſolved to keep his deſign private. At that time he himſelf was at Ravenna, whence he ſent a detachment towards the Rubicon, deſiring the officer who commanded it to wait for him on the banks of that river. The next day he aſſiſted at a ſhow of gladiators, and made a great entertainment. Towards the cloſe of the day he roſe from table, deſired his guests to ſtay till he came back; but, inſtead of returning to the company, he ſet out for the Rubicon, having left orders to his moſt intimate friends to follow him through different gates, to avoid being obſerved. Having arrived at the Rubicon, which parted Ciſalpine Gaul from Italy, the misfortunes of the empire occurred to his mind, and made him heſitate. Turning then to Aſinius Pollio, "If I do not croſs the *Rubicon*, (ſaid he) I am undone; and if I do croſs it, how many calamities ſhall I by this means bring upon my country!" Having thus ſpoken, he muſed a few minutes, and then crying out, "The die is caſt," threw himſelf into the river, and croſſing it, marched with all poſſible ſpeed to Ariminum, which he reached and ſurpriſed before day-break. Though he had but one legion with him, he had ſent orders to the army he had left in Gaul to paſs the mountains and join him. The activity of this ſtruck the oppoſite party with the greater terror. Pompey, no leſs alarmed than ſurprized, left Rome with a deſign to retire to Capua, where he had two legions, formerly draught-ed out of Cæſar's army. He communicated his intended flight to the ſenate; but acquainted them, that if any magiſtrate or ſenator refuſed to follow him, he ſhould be treated as an enemy to the country. In the mean time, Cæſar, having ſent new troops in Ciſalpine Gaul, ſent Marc Antony with a detachment to ſeize Aretium, and other officers to ſecure Piſaurum and Fanum, and himſelf marched at the head of the 13th legion to Auximum, which opened its gates to him. From Auximum he advanced into Picenum, where he was joined by the 12th legion from Ciſalpine Gaul. As Picenum ſubmitted, he directed his forces againſt Corfinium, the capital of the Peligni, which Domitius Ahenobarbus defended with 30 cohorts. But Cæſar no ſooner inveſted it, than the garriſon betrayed their commander, and delivered him up with many ſenators who had taken refuge in the place, to Cæſar, who granted them their lives and liberty. Pompey thinking himſelf no longer ſafe at Capua after the reduction of Corfinium, retired to Brundiſium, to carry the war into the eaſt, where all the governors were his creatures. Cæſar followed cloſe; and arriving with his army before Brundiſium, inveſted the place on the land ſide, and undertook to ſhut up the port by a ſtaccado of his own invention. But, before the work was completed, the fleet which had conveyed the two legions with 30 cohorts to Dyrrhachium being returned, Pompey reſolved to make his eſcape, which he did, with all the dexterity of a great officer. He kept his departure very ſecret; but made all neceſſary preparations for facilitating it. He walled up the gates, then dug deep and wide ditches croſs all the ſtreets, except only two that led to the port; in the ditches he planted ſharp pointed ſtakes, covering them with hurdles and earth. After theſe precautions, he gave expreſs orders that all the citizens ſhould keep within doors, leſt they ſhould betray his deſign to the enemy; and then, in 3 days, embarked all his troops, except the light armed infantry, whom he had placed on the walls; and theſe likewiſe, on a ſignal given, abandoning their poſts, repaired with great expedition to the ſhips. Cæſar, perceiving the walls unguarded, ordered his men to ſcale them, and make what haſte they could after the enemy. In the heat of the purſuit they would have fallen into the ditches which Pompey had prepared for them, had not the Brundiſians warned them of the danger, and by many windings and turnings, led them to the haven, where they found all the fleet under ſail, except two veſſels, which had run aground in going out of the harbour. Theſe Cæſar took, made the ſoldiers on board priſoners, and brought them aſhore. Cæſar, ſeeing himſelf, by the flight of his rival, maſter of all Italy from the Alps to the ſea, wiſhed to follow and attack him before he received his ſupplies from Aſia. But being deſtitute of ſhipping, he reſolved to go firſt to Rome, and ſettle the government there; and then paſs into Spain, to expel Pompey's troops, who had poſſeſſion of that great continent, under Afranius and Petreius. Before he left Brundiſium, he ſent Scribonius Curio with 3 legions into Sicily, and ordered Q. Valerius, one of his lieutenants, to get together what ſhips he could, and croſs over with one legion into Sardinia. Cato, who commanded in Sicily, upon the firſt news of Curio's landing there, abandoned the iſland, and retired to the camp of the conſuls at Dyrrhachium; and Q. Valerius no ſooner appeared with his ſmall fleet off Sardinia, than the Caralitini, (the inhabitants of what is now called *Cagliari*,) drove out Aurelius Cotta, who commanded there for the ſenate, and put Cæſar's lieutenant in poſſeſſion both of their city and iſland. In the mean time Cæſar advanced towards Rome, and on his march wrote to all the ſenators then in Italy, deſiring them to repair to the capital, and aſſiſt him with their counſel. Above all, he was deſirous to ſee Cicero; but could not prevail upon him to return to Rome. As Cæſar drew near the capital, he quartered his troops in the neighbouring municipia; and then advancing to the city, out of reſpect to ancient cuſtom, he took up his quarters in the ſuburbs, whither the whole city crowded to ſee the conqueror of Gaul, who had been abſent near ten years. Such of the tribunes of the people as had fled to him for refuge reaſſumed their functions, mounted the roſtra, and endeavoured to reconcile the people to the head of their party. Marc Antony particularly, and Caſſius Longinus, moved that the ſenate ſhould meet in the ſuburbs, that Cæſar might give them an account of his conduct. Accordingly, ſuch of the ſenators as were at Rome aſſembled; when Cæſar made a ſpeech in juſtification of all his proceedings, and concluded his harangue with propoſing a deputation to Pompey, with offers of an amicable accommodation. He

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even desired the senate, to whom he paid great deference, to nominate some of their venerable body to carry proposals of peace to the consuls, and the general of the consular army; but none of the senators would take upon him that commission. He then, to provide himself with money for carrying on the war, had recourse to the public treasury. Metellus, one of the tribunes, opposed him: but Cæsar, laying his hand on his sword, threatened to kill him, which so terrified Metellus, that he withdrew. Cæsar took out of the treasury, which was ever after at his command, an immense sum; some say, 300,000 pounds weight of gold. With this supply of money he raised troops all over Italy, and sent governors into all the provinces subject to the republic. Cæsar now made Marc Antony commander in chief of the armies in Italy, sent his brother C. Antonius to govern Illyricum, assigned Cisalpine Gaul to Licinius Crassus, appointed M. Æmilius Lepidus governor of the capital; and having got together some ships to cruise in the Adriatic and Mediterranean seas, he gave the command of one of his fleets to P. Cornelius Dolabella, and of the other to young Hortensius, the son of the famous orator. As Pompey had sent governors into the same provinces, a general war was thus kindled in almost all the parts of the known world. However, Cæsar would not trust any of his lieutenants with the conduct of the war in Spain, which was Pompey's favourite province, but took it upon himself; and having settled his affairs at Rome, returned to Ariminum, assembled his legions there, and passing the Alps, entered Transalpine Gaul. There he was informed that the inhabitants of Marseilles had resolved to refuse him entrance into their city; and that L. Domitius Ahenobarbus, whom he had generously pardoned and set at liberty after the reduction of Corfinium, had set sail for Marseilles with 7 galleys, having on board a great number of his clients and slaves, with a design to raise the city in favour of Pompey. Cæsar sent for the 15 chief magistrates of the city, and advised them to follow the example of Italy, and submit. The magistrates returned to the city, and soon after informed him that they were to stand neuter; but in the mean time Domitius arriving with his small squadron, was received into the city, and declared general of all their forces. Hereupon Cæsar invested the town with 3 legions, and ordered 12 galleys to be built at Arelas, (now ARLES,) to block up the port. But as the siege proved tedious he left C. Trebonius to carry it on, and D. Brutus to command the fleet, while he continued his march into Spain, where he began the war with all the valour, ability, and success of a great general. Pompey had 3 generals in this continent, which was divided into 2 Roman provinces. Varro commanded in Farther Spain; and Petreius and Afranius, with equal power, and two considerable armies, in Hither Spain. Cæsar, while yet at Marseilles, sent Q. Fabius, with three legions, to take possession of the passes of the Pyrenees, which Afranius had seized. Fabius executed his commission with great bravery, entered Spain, and left the way open for Cæsar, who quickly followed him. As soon as he had crossed the mountains, he sent out scouts to observe the enemy; by whom he was informed that Afranius and Petreius having joined their forces, consisting of five legions, 20 cohorts of natives, and 5000 horse, were advantageously posted on a hill of an easy ascent in the neighbourhood of Ilerda, (now LERIDA,) in Catalonia. Upon this Cæsar advanced within sight of the enemy, and encamped in a plain between Ilerda and Cinga, now the *Segre* and *Cinca*. Between the eminence on which Afranius had posted himself, and the city of Ilerda, was a small plain, and in the middle of it a rising ground, which Cæsar attempted to seize, to cut off the communication between the enemy's camp and the city whence they had all their provisions. This occasioned a sharp dispute between three of Cæsar's legions and an equal number of the enemy's, which lasted 5 hours with equal success, both sides claiming the victory. But Afranius's men had first seized the post, maintained their ground in possession of it. Two days after this, the continual rains, with the melting of the snow on the mountains, so swelled the two rivers near which Cæsar was encamped, that they overflowed, broke down his bridges, and laid under water the neighbouring country to a great extent. This cut off the communication between Cæsar and the cities that had declared for him, and reduced him to such straits, that his troops were ready to die for famine, wheat being sold in the camp at 50 Roman denarii *per* bushel, or 1 l. 12 s. 1½ d. sterling. He tried to repair the bridges, but in vain; the violence of the stream rendering all his endeavours fruitless. Upon the news of Cæsar's distress, many of the states who had hitherto stood neuter, hastened to Pompey's camp, taking it for granted that Cæsar was reduced to the last extremity. Of this number was Cicero; who, without regard to the entreances of Atticus, or the letters Cæsar had wrote to him, desiring him to join neither, left Italy, and landed at Dyrrhachium, where Pompey received him with great joy. But the joy of Pompey's party was not long-lived. Cæsar, after having attempted several times in vain to rebuild his bridges, caused boats to be made with all possible expedition; and the enemy were diverted by endeavouring to intercept the succours that were sent him from Italy, he laid hold of that opportunity to convey his boats in the night on carriages 22 miles to the camp; where with wonderful quickness a detachment passed the Sicoris, and encamped on the opposite bank unknown to the enemy. The bridge in two days, opened a communication with the neighbouring country, received supplies from Gaul, and relieved the wants of his soldiers. Cæsar being thus delivered from danger, pursued the armies of Afranius and Petreius with such superior address, that he forced them to submit without coming to a battle, and became master of all Hither Spain. The two generals disbanded their troops, sent them out of the province, and returned to Italy, after having solemnly promised never to assemble forces again or make war upon Cæsar. Upon the news of the reduction of Hither Spain, the Spaniards in Farther Spain, and one Roman legion, deserted

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Varro, Pompey's governor in that province, which obliged him to surrender his other legion and all his money. Cæsar, having thus reduced Spain in a few months appointed Cassius Longinus to govern the two provinces with four legions, and then returned to Marseilles; which was just surrendering after a most vigorous resistance. Though the inhabitants had by their late treachery deserved a severe punishment, yet he granted them their lives and liberty; but stripped their arsenals of arms, and obliged them to deliver up all their ships. From Marseilles Cæsar marched into Cisalpine Gaul; and thence to Rome, where he laid the foundation of his future grandeur. He found the city in a very different state from that in which he had left it. Most of the senators and magistrates were fled to Pompey at Dyrrhachium. However, there were still prætors there; and among them M. Æmilius Lepidus, afterwards a triumvir. The Prætor, to ingratiate himself with Cæsar, nominated him dictator of his own authority, and against the inclination of the senate. Cæsar accepted the new dignity; but neither assumed his power as Sylla had done, nor retained it long. During the 12 days of his dictatorship he governed with great moderation, and gained the affections both of the people and patricians. He recalled the exiles, granted the rights and privileges of Roman citizens to all the Gauls beyond the Po, and, as pontifex maximus, filled up the vacancies of the sacerdotal colleges with his own friends. But the chief use he made of his dictatorship was to preside at the election of consuls for the next year, when he got himself, and Servilius Isauricus, one of his most zealous partisans, promoted to that dignity. And now having resolved to follow Pompey, and carry the war into the east, he set out for Brundusium, whither he had ordered 12 legions to repair with all possible expedition. But on his arrival he found only five there. The rest, being afraid of the dangers of the sea, and unwilling to engage in a civil war, had marched leisurely, complaining of their general for allowing them no respite, but carrying them continually from one country to another. However Cæsar did not wait for them, but set sail with only five legions and 600 horse in the beginning of January. While the rest were waiting at Brundusium for ships to transport them over into Epirus, Cæsar arrived safe with his five legions in Chaonia, the N. part of Epirus, near the Ceraunian mountains. There he landed his troops, and sent the ships back to Brundusium to bring over the legions left behind. The war that was now entering upon was the most difficult that he had yet undertaken. Pompey had for a whole year been assembling his troops from all the eastern countries. When he left Italy, he had only 10 legions; but since his arrival at Dyrrhachium he had been reinforced with one from Sicily, another from Crete, and two from Syria: 3000 archers, 6 cohorts of slingers, and 7000 horse, had been sent him by princes in alliance with Rome. All the free cities of Asia had reinforced his army with their best troops; Greece, Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, and all the nations from the Mediterranean to the Euphrates, took up arms in his favour. He had almost all the Roman knights, in his squadrons, and his legions consisted mostly of veterans inured to the toils of war. Pompey had under him some of the best commanders of the republic, who had formerly conducted armies themselves. As for his navy, he had above 500 ships of war, besides a far greater number of small vessels, which were continually cruizing on the coasts, and intercepted such ships as carried arms or provisions to the enemy. He had likewise above 200 senators, who formed a more numerous senate than at Rome. Cornelius Lentulus and Claudius Marcellus, the last year's consuls, presided in it; at Thessalonica, where he built a stately hall for that purpose. There, at the motion of Cato, it was decreed, that no Roman citizen should be put to death but in battle, and that no city subject to the republic should be sacked. They also decreed, that they alone represented the Roman senate, and that those who resided at Rome were encouragers of tyranny, and friends to the tyrant. Many persons of eminent probity, who had hitherto stood neuter, flocked to him from all parts. His cause was generally called the *good cause*, while Cæsar's adherents were looked upon as enemies to their country, and abettors of tyranny. As soon as Cæsar landed, he marched to Oricum, in Epirus, which was taken without opposition. The like success attended him at Apollonia, and these two conquests opened a way to Dyrrhachium, where Pompey had his magazines of arms and provisions. But the fleet which he had sent back to Brundusium, to transport the rest of his troops, had been attacked by Bibulus, one of Pompey's admirals, who had taken 30, and inhumanly burnt them with the seamen on board. Bibulus, with 110 ships of war, had also taken possession of all the harbours between Salonium and Oricum; so that the legions at Brundusium could not venture to cross the sea without great danger of falling into the enemy's hands. By this news Cæsar was so much embarrassed, that he made proposals of accommodation upon very moderate terms, viz. that both Pompey and he should disband their armies within three days, renew their former friendship, and return together to Italy. These proposals were sent by Vibullius Rufus, an intimate friend of Pompey, whom Cæsar had twice taken prisoner. Pompey, however, answered that he would not hearken to any terms, lest it should be said that he owed his life and return to Italy to Cæsar's favour. Cæsar again sent one Vatinius to confer with Pompey about a treaty of peace. Labienus received the proposals; but while they were conferring together, a party of Pompey's men discharged their darts at Vatinius and his attendants. Some of the guards were wounded, and Vatinius narrowly escaped with his life. In the mean time Cæsar advanced towards Dyrrhachium; but Pompey unexpectedly appearing, he halted on the other side of the Apsus, where he entrenched himself. Pompey, however, durst not cross the river in Cæsar's sight; so that the two armies continued for some time quiet in their respective camps. Cæsar wrote repeatedly to Mark Antony, who commanded the legions in Italy, to come to his assistance; but received no answer. He then sent Posthumius, one of

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of his lieutenants, with preſſing orders to Marc Antony, Gabinius, and Calenus, to bring the troops to him at all adventures. Gabinius, unwilling to expoſe all the hopes of his general to the hazards of the ſea, marched a great way about by Illyricum. But the Illyrians, who had declared for Pompey, fell unexpectedly upon him and killed him and all his men. Marc Antony and Calenus went by ſea, and were in danger from one of Pompey's admirals; but brought their troops ſafe to ſhore at Nyphæum, near Apollonia. As ſoon as it was known that Antony was landed, Pompey marched to prevent his joining Cæſar. But Cæſar haſtening to the relief of his lieutenant, joined him before Pompey came up. Then Pompey retired to an advantageous poſt near Dyrrhachium, called *Aſparagium*, and there encamped. Cæſar having thus at length got all his troops together, offered Pompey battle, and kept his army drawn up in ſight of the enemy. But Pompey declining an engagement, he turned towards Dyrrhachium, as if he deſigned to ſurprize it, hoping thus to draw Pompey into the plain. But Pompey followed Cæſar at ſome diſtance, and letting him draw near to the city, encamped on a hill called *Petra*, which commanded the ſea, whence he could be ſupplied with proviſions from Greece and Aſia, while Cæſar was forced to bring corn by land from Epirus, at a vaſt expence. This put Cæſar upon a new deſign, which was to ſurround an army far more numerous than his own, and, by ſhutting them up within a narrow tract of ground, diſtreſs them as much for want of forage as his troops were for corn. Accordingly he drew a line of circumvallation from the ſea quite round Pompey's camp, and kept him ſo cloſely blocked up, that, though his men were plentifully ſupplied with proviſions by ſea, yet the horſes of his army died in great numbers for want of forage. At length, being reduced to the utmoſt extremity for want of forage, Pompey reſolved to force the enemy's lines and eſcape. With the aſſiſtance, therefore, of two deſerters he embarked his archers, ſlingers, and light armed infantry, and marching by land at at the head of 60 cohorts, went to attack that part of Cæſar's lines which was next to the ſea. He ſet out from his camp in the dead of the night, and arriving at the poſt he deſigned to force by day break, he began the attack by ſea and land at the ſame time. The 9th legion, which defended that part of the lines, made a vigorous reſiſtance; but being attacked in the rear by Pompey's men, who came by ſea, and landed between Cæſars two lines, they fled with ſuch precipitation, that the ſuccours Marcellinus ſent them could not ſtop them. The enſign who carried the eagle at the head of the routed legion was mortally wounded; but before he died, conſigned the eagle to the cavalry, deſiring them to deliver it to Cæſar. Pompey's men purſued the fugitives, and made ſuch a ſlaughter of them, that all the centurions of the firſt cohort were cut off except one. And now Pompey's army broke in like a torrent upon the poſts Cæſar had fortified, and were advancing to attack Marcellinus, who guarded a neighbouring fort; but Marc Antony coming very ſeaſonably to his relief with 12 cohorts, they retired. Soon after Cæſar arri ed with a ſtrong reinforcement, and poſted hi ſelf on the ſhore, whence he obſerved an old ca made within the place where Pompey, was cloſed. Upon his quitting it, Pompey had t poſſeſſion of it, and left a legion to guard it. poſt Cæſar reſolved to reduce. Accordingly advanced ſecretly at the head of 33 cohort two lines: and arriving at the old camp, b Pompey could have notice of his march att it with great vigour, forced the firſt intr ment, notwithſtanding the brave reſiſtance o tus Pulcio, and penetrated to the 2d, whither legion had retired. But here his right wa looking for an entrance into the camp, ma along the outſide of a trench which Cæſar formerly carried on from the left angle of camp, about 400 paces, to a neighbouring This trench they miſtook for the rampart of camp; and being thus led away from their wing, they were ſoon after prevented fro joining it by the arrival of Pompey, who up at the head of a legion, and a large bo horſe. Then the legion which Cæſar ha tacked taking courage, made a briſk ſally, his men back to the firſt intrenchment which had ſeized, and there put them in great di while they were attempting to paſs the Pompey, falling upon them with his ca flank, completed their defeat; and then fl the enemy's right wing, which had paſſe trench, and was ſhut up between that an ramparts of the old camp, made a moſt dr ſlaughter of them. This trench was filled dead bodies, many falling into it in that diſo and others paſſing over them and preſſing to death. In this diſtreſs, Cæſar did all he c to ſtop the flight of his legionaries, but to no poſe: the ſtandard-bearers themſelves threw the Roman eagles when Cæſar endeavoure ſtop them, and left them in the hands of the my, who on this occaſion took 32 ſtanda diſgrace which Cæſar had never ſuffered He was himſelf in no ſmall danger of falli the hand of one of his own men, whom he hold of when flying, bidding him ſtand an about; but the man, apprehenſive of the d he was in, drew his ſword, and would have k him, had not one of his guards prevented the b by cutting off his arm. Cæſar loſt on this occa 960 foot, 400 horſe, 5 tribunes, and 32 centur

(34.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEF OF POMPEY AT PHARSALIA. This loſs and grace greatly mortified Cæſar, but did not courage him. After he had by his lenity and quent ſpeeches recovered the ſpirit of his troo he decamped, and retired in good order to Ap lonia, where he paid the army, and left his and wounded. From thence he marched i Macedon, where Scipio Metellus, Pompey's ther-in-law, was encamped. He met with gr difficulties on his march, the countries thro which he paſſed refuſing to ſupply his army w proviſions. On his entering Theſſaly he was m by Domitius, one of his lieutenants, whom h had ſent with three legions to reduce Epirus. H ving got all his forces together, he marched di rectly to Gomphi, the firſt town of Theſſaly which

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ich had been formerly in his intereſt, but now clared againſt him. Whereupon he attacked it ſt ſo much vigour, that though the garriſon s very numerous, and the walls were of an unmon height, he made himſelf maſter of it in a hours. Thence he marched to Metropolis, ther town of Theſſaly, which ſurrendered; as all the other cities of the country, except La, of which Scipio was maſter. On the other , Pompey, being continually importuned by nators and officers of his army, left his camp rrhachium, and followed Cæſar, firmly reſ not to give him battle, but rather to diſin by keeping cloſe at his heels, ſtraitening arters, and cutting off his convoys. As he frequent opportunities of coming to an enment, but always declined it, his friends and iems began to put ill conſtructions on his diſnes. Theſe, with the complaints of his ſolb made him at length reſolve to venture a geaction. With this deſign he marched into a plain near the cities of Pharſalia and Thebes; laſt was alſo called Philippi, from Philip Macedon. Pompey pitched his camp on civity of a ſteep mountain, in a place altoimacceſſible. He was himſelf of the opinion was better to deſtroy the enemy by fatigue t; but his officers forced him to call a counar, when all to a man were for venturing al action the very next day. The event of ile was in the higheſt degree fortunate for (See PHARSALIA;) who reſolved to purs advantage, and follow Pompey to whatuntry he ſhould retire. Hearing, therefore being at Amphipolis, he ſent off his troops him, and then embarked on board a little in order to croſs the Helleſpont; but in the of the ſtrait, he fell in with one of Pomcommanders, at the head of ten ſhips of war. noway terrified at the ſuperiority of his bore up to him, and commanded him to . The other inſtantly obeyed, awed by the of Cæſar's name, and ſurrendered himſelf fleet at diſcretion.

ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEFEAT PEY'S PARTISANS, AND DEATH OF CATO. ontinued his voyage to Epheſus, then to ; and being informed that Pompey had re before him, he made no doubt but that fled to Egypt; wherefore he ſet ſail for kingdom, and arrived at Alexandria with a000 men. Upon his landing, he received ts of Pompey's miſerable end, who had aſſaſſinated by order of the treacherous king; on after one of the murderers came with his and ring as a moſt grateful preſent to Cæſar. POMPEY, N° 1.) But Cæſar turned away with horror, and ſoon after ordered a magt tomb to be built to his memory on the here he was murdered; and a temple near lace, to NEMESIS. There were at that time pretenders to the crown of Egypt: Ptolemy, knowledged king; and the celebrated Cleo his ſiſter; who, by the inceſtuous cuſtom of country, was alſo his wife, and, by their faher's will, ſhared jointly in the ſucceſſion. How, ſhe aimed at governing alone; but the Roſenate having confirmed her brother's title, ſhe was baniſhed into Syria with Arſinoe her younger ſiſter. Cæſar, however, gave her new hopes of obtaining the kingdom, and ſent both for her and her brother to plead their cauſe before him. Photinus, the young king's guardian, who had long born the moſt inveterate hatred both to Cæſar and Cleopatra, diſdained this propoſal, and backed his refuſal by ſending an army of 20,000 men to beſiege him in Alexandria. Cæſar bravely repulſed the enemy, but finding the city of too great extent to be defended by ſo ſmall an army as 4000 men, he retired to the palace, which commanded the harbour, to make a ſtand. Achilles, who commanded the Egyptians, attacked him there with vigour, and endeavoured to make himſelf maſter of the fleet before the palace: On this Cæſar, burnt the whole fleet, in ſpite of every effort to prevent it. He next took the iſle of Pharos, the key to Alexandria, by which he was enabled to receive the ſupplies ſent him from all ſides; and in this ſituation he determined to withſtand the united force of all the Egyptians. In the mean time, Cleopatra having heard of the turn in her favour, got herſelf introduced into his chamber, and her careſſes did not fail to fix him in her intereſt. While Cleopatra was thus employed, her ſiſter Arſinoe was engaged in the camp in purſuing a ſeparate intereſt. She had, by the aſſiſtance of one Ganymede, made a large party in the Egyptian army in her favour; and ſoon after cauſed Achilles to be murdered; and Ganymede to take the command in his ſtead, and to carry on the ſiege with vigour. Ganymede's principal effort was by letting in the ſea upon thoſe canals which ſupplied the palace with freſh water; but this inconvenience Cæſar remedied by digging a great number of wells. His next endeavour was to prevent the junction of Cæſar's 24th legion, which he twice attempted in vain. He ſoon after made himſelf maſter of a bridge which joined the iſle of Pharos to the continent, from which poſt Cæſar reſolved to diſlodge him. In the heat of action, ſome mariners joined the combatants; but ſeized with a panic, inſtantly fled, and ſpread a general terror through the army. All Cæſar's endeavours to rally his forces were in vain, the confuſion was paſt remedy, and numbers were drowned or put to the ſword in attempting to eſcape; on which, ſeeing the irremediable diſorder of his troops, he retired to a ſhip to get to the palace. But he was no ſooner on board than great crowds entered at the ſame time, upon which, apprehenſive of the ſhip's ſinking, he jumped into the ſea, and ſwam 200 paces to the fleet before the palace. The Alexandrians, finding their efforts to take the palace ineffectual, endeavoured to get their king out of Cæſar's power, as he had ſeized upon his perſon in the beginning of their diſputes. For this purpoſe they made uſe of their cuſtomary arts of diſſimulation, profeſſing the utmoſt deſire for peace, and only wanting the preſence of their lawful prince to give a ſanction to the treaty. Cæſar, though ſenſible of their perfidy, gave them their king, as he was under no apprehenſion from a boy. Ptolemy, however, inſtead of promoting peace, made every effort to give vigour to hoſtilities. In this manner Cæſar was hemmed in for ſome time: but he was at laſt relieved from this mortifying

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mortifying ſituation by Mithridates Pergamenus, one of his moſt faithful partizans; who, collecting a numerous army in Syria, marched into Egypt, took the city of Peluſium, repulſed the Egyptian army with loſs, and at laſt, joining with Cæſar, attacked their camp, and made a great ſlaughter of the Egyptians. Ptolemy himſelf, attempting to eſcape on board a veſſel that was ſailing down the river, was drowned by the ſhip's ſinking; and Cæſar thus became maſter of all Egypt without further oppoſition. He therefore appointed, that Cleopatra, with her younger brother, then an infant, ſhould jointly govern, according to the intent of their father's will; and baniſhed Arſinoe with Ganymede. Cæſar now for a while relaxed from his uſual activity, captivated with the charms of Cleopatra, and paſſing whole nights in feaſts with the young queen. He even propoſed to attend her up the Nile into Ethiopia; but the brave veterans, who had followed his fortune, boldly reprehended his conduct, and refuſed to be partners in ſo infamous an expedition. Thus rouzed from his lethargy, he left Cleopatra, by whom he had a ſon, afterwards named *Cæſarion*, to oppoſe Pharnaces king of Pontus, who had now made ſome inroads upon the dominions of Rome. Here he was attended with the greateſt ſucceſs, as related under PONTUS, § 17; and having ſettled affairs in this part of the empire, he embarked for Italy, where he arrived ſooner than his enemies expected. He had been, during his abſence, created conſul for five years, dictator for one year, and tribune of the people for life. But Antony, who governed in Rome for him, had filled the city with riot and debauchery, and many commotions had enſued, which none but Cæſar could appeaſe. By his moderation and humanity, he ſoon reſtored tranquillity to the city, ſcarce making any diſtinction between thoſe of his own and the oppoſite party. Thus having, by gentle means, reſtored his authority at Rome, he prepared to march into Africa, where Pompey's party had rallied under Scipio and Cato, aſſiſted by Juba king of Mauritania. But the vigour of his proceedings had like to have been retarded by a mutiny in his own army. Thoſe veteran legions, who had hitherto conquered all that came before them, began to murmur for not having received the rewards which they had expected for their paſt ſervices, and now inſiſted upon their diſcharge. However, Cæſar quelled the mutiny; and then, with his uſual rapidity, landed with a party in Africa, the reſt of the army following ſoon after. After many ſkirmiſhes, he inveſted the city of Tapſus, ſuppoſing that Scipio would attempt its relief, which accordingly happened. Scipio, joining with Juba, advanced with his army, and encamping near Cæſar, they ſoon came to a general battle. Cæſar's ſucceſs was as uſual; the enemy received a complete and total overthrow, with little loſs on his ſide. Juba and Petreius his general killed each other in diſpair; Scipio, attempting to eſcape by ſea into Spain, fell among the enemy; and was ſlain; ſo that, of all the generals of that undone party, Cato was now alone remaining. This extraordinary man, having retired to Africa after the battle of Pharſalia, had led the wretched remains of that army through burning deſerts and tracts infeſted with ſerpents, and was now [illegible] the city of Utica, which he had been left to defe[nd]. Still, however, in love with even the ſhow of a [free] man government, he had formed the prin[cipal] citizens into a ſenate, and conceived a reſol[ution] of holding out the town. He accordingly a[ſſem]bled his ſenators upon this occaſion, and [exhor]ted them to ſtand a ſiege; but finding his a[m]munitions ineffectual, he ſtabbed himſelf with [his] ſword. See CATO, N° 2.

(36.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE [REIGN] DER OF CÆSAR. Upon Cato's death, the [whole] Africa being completed, Cæſar returned [in] umph to Rome; and, as if he had abridg[ed] his former triumphs only to increaſe the ſp[len]of this, the citizens were aſtoniſhed at the [ma]ficence of the proceſſion, and the number [of] countries he had ſubdued. It laſted 4 days; [the] firſt was for GAUL, the 2d for EGYPT, [the] for his victories in ASIA, and the 4th for [the] ver Juba in AFRICA. To every one of [his] diers he gave a ſum equivalent to about [£]our money, double that ſum to the cent[urions] and four times as much to the ſuperior [officers]. The citizens alſo ſhared his bounty; to eve[ry] of whom he diſtributed 10 buſhels of co[rn] pounds of oil, and a ſum of money equal to [about] two pounds Sterling. He, after this, enter[tained] the people at about 20,000 tables, treated [them] with the combats of gladiators, and filled [the] with a concourſe of ſpectators from every [part] Italy. The people now ſeemed eager [to] out new modes of homage and adulation [to] great enſlaver. He was created, by a new [office] *Magiſter Morum*, or Maſter of the *Morals* [of the] People; he received the titles of *Emperor* [and] *ther of his country*; his perſon was declared [ſacred] and, in ſhort, upon him alone were devol[ved] life all the great dignities of the ſtate. [It] be owned, that no ſovereign could make a [better] uſe of his power. He began his empire, [by] preſſing vice and encouraging virtue. He [communicated] the power of judicature to the [ſenate] and the knights alone, and by many ſalu[tary] laws reſtrained the ſcandalous luxuries of [the age]. He propoſed rewards to all who had ma[ny chil]dren; and took the moſt prudent method[s of] peopling the city, that had been exhauſted [by the] late commotions. Having thus reſtored [peace] rity once more to Rome, he again found [himſelf] under a neceſſity of going into Spain, to [quell] an army which had been raiſed there under [the] ſons of Pompey and Labienus his former [generals]. He proceeded in this expedition with his [uſual] celerity, and arrived in Spain before the [enemy] thought he had left Rome. Cneius and [Sextus] Pompey's ſons, profiting by their unhappy [fa]ther's example, reſolved to protract the war; [ſo] that the firſt operations of the two armies [were] ſpent in ſieges and fruitleſs attempts to [ſurprize] each other. At length Cæſar, after taking [ſeveral] cities from the enemy, and purſuing young [Pom]pey with unwearied perſeverance, compelled [him] to come to a battle upon the plains of [Munda]. After a moſt obſtinate engagement, Cæſar [gained] a complete victory, (See MUNDA,) and [having] now ſubdued all his enemies, returned to [Rome] for the laſt time to receive new dignities and

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part. Still, however, he ſhowed great moderation in the uſe of his power; he left the conſuls to be named by the people; he enlarged the number of ſenators; he pardoned all who had been in arms againſt him; but deprived them of the power of reſiſtance. He even ſet up once more the ſtatues of Pompey. The reſt of this extraordinary man's life was devoted to the advantage of the ſtate. He adorned the city with magnificent buildings; he rebuilt Carthage and Corinth; he planted colonies to both cities; he undertook to level ſeveral mountains in Italy, to drain the Pontine marſhes near Rome, and deſigned to cut through the iſthmus of Peloponneſus. Thus he formed mighty projects and deſigns beyond the reach of the longeſt life; but the greateſt of all was his intended expedition againſt the Parthians, which he deſigned to revenge the death of Craſſus; then to paſs through Hyrcania, and encompaſſing Scythia along the banks of the Caſpian ſea, to advance to open himſelf a way through the formidable foreſts of Germany in Gaul, and ſo return to Rome. Theſe were the plans of this great man, but the jealouſy of a few individuals put an end to them all. The ſenate, with an aſſurance which marked the degeneracy of the times, continued to load Cæſar with freſh honours, and he continued with an equal vanity to receive them. They called the month *Quintilis* JULY after him to which indeed he was entitled by his place in the Kalendar; they ſtamped money with his image: they ordered his ſtatue to be placed in all the cities of the empire; they inſtituted public ſacrifices on his birth-day; and talked even in his life-time, of enrolling him in the number of their gods. Antony, at one of their Lupercalian feſtivals, fooliſhly ventured to offer him a crown; but he repeatedly refuſed it and received with every refuſal loud acclamations from the people. One day, when the ſenate ordered him ſome particulars, he neglected to riſe from his ſeat; and from that moment it began to be ruſhed that he intended to make himſelf king; though in fact he already was ſo, the people could not bear his aſſuming the title. Whether he deſigned to aſſume that empty honour muſt for ever remain a ſecret; but certain it is that the unſuſpecting openneſs of his conduct ſeemed ſomething like a confidence in his own innocence. When informed by thoſe about him of the jealouſies of many who envied his power, he ſaid, That he had rather die once by treaſon, than live continually in the apprehenſion of it: and to convince the world how little he apprehended from his enemies, he diſbanded his compact body of Spaniſh guards. Yet a deep-laid conſpiracy was formed againſt him, compoſed of no leſs than 60 ſenators. At the head of this conſpiracy were BRUTUS, whoſe life Cæſar had ſpared after the battle of Pharſalia and CASSIUS, who had been likewiſe pardoned ſoon after, both prætors for the year. Brutus gloried in being deſcended from that Brutus who firſt gave liberty to Rome; and from a wiſh to follow his example, broke all the ties of gratitude, and joined in a conſpiracy to deſtroy his benefactor. Caſſius was impetuous and proud, and hated Cæſar's perſon more than his cauſe. He had often ſought an opportunity of aſſaſſination rather from private than public motives. The conſpirators, to give a colour of juſtice to their proceedings, remitted the execution of this deſign to the ides of March, the day on which it was reported that Cæſar was to be offered the crown. The augurs had foretold that this day would be fatal to him; and the night preceding, he heard his wife Calphurnia lamenting in her ſleep, and being awakened, ſhe confeſſed to him that ſhe dreamt of his being aſſaſſinated in her arms. Theſe omens had almoſt changed his intention of going to the ſenate, but one of the conſpirators coming in, prevailed upon him to go, telling him of the reproach which would attend his ſtaying at home till his wife had lucky dreams. As he went to the ſenate, a ſlave, who haſtened to him with information of the conſpiracy, attempted to come near him, but could not for the crowd. Artemidorus, a Greek philoſopher, who had diſcovered the whole plot, delivered him a memorial, containing his information; but Cæſar gave it to one of his ſecretaries without reading. As ſoon as he had taken his place in the ſenate, the conſpirators came near him, under a pretence of ſaluting him; and Cimber approached in a ſuppliant poſture, to ſue for his brother's pardon, who was baniſhed. All the conſpirators ſeconded him, and Cimber, ſeeming, to ſue with ſtill greater ſubmiſſion, took hold of the bottom of his robe, holding him ſo as to prevent his riſing. This was the ſignal. Caſca, who was behind, ſtabbed him ſlightly in the ſhoulder. Cæſar inſtantly turned round, and with the ſtyle of his tablet wounded him in the arm. But the reſt of the conſpirators incloſing him round, he received a ſecond ſtab from an unknown hand in the breaſt, while Caſſius wounded him in the face. He ſtill defended himſelf vigouroſly, ruſhing among them, and throwing down ſuch as oppoſed him, till he ſaw Brutus among the conſpirators, who, coming up, ſtruck his dagger in his thigh. From that moment Cæſar thought no more of defending himſelf, but looking upon this conſpirator, cried out, "And you too, my ſon Butrus!" Then covering his head, and ſpreading his robe before him, to fall with decency, he ſunk down at the baſe of Pompey's ſtatue, after receiving 23 wounds, in the 56th year of his age, and 4th of his reign.

(37.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE SECOND TRIUMVIRATE, AND THEIR BLOODY PROSCRIPTIONS. As ſoon as the conſpirators had diſpatched Cæſar, they addreſſed the ſenate, to vindicate their motives, and to excite them to join in procuring their country's freedom; but all the ſenators who were not accomplices fled with precipitation. The people alſo being alarmed, ran tumultuouſly through the city; ſome actuated by their fears, and more by a deſire of plunder. In this confuſion, the conſpirators all retired to the capitol, and guarded its acceſſes by a body of gladiators which Brutus had in pay. It was in vain they alleged they only ſtruck for freedom, and that they killed a tyrant who uſurped the rights of mankind: the people, accuſtomed to luxury and eaſe, little regarded their profeſſions, dreading more the dangers of poverty than of ſubjection. The friends of the late dictator now found that this was the time for gratifying their ambition under the veil of juſtice. Antony, who was a

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lieutenant under Cæsar, was a man of moderate abilities and excessive vices; ambitious of power, but well skilled in war. He was consul for that year; and resolved, with Lepidus, to seize the sovereign power. Lepidus, therefore, took possession of the forum with a band of soldiers; and Antony, being consul, was permitted to command. They first possessed themselves of all Cæsar's papers and money; and next convened the senate, to determine whether Cæsar had been a legal magistrate or an usurper, and whether those who killed him merited reward or punishment. There were many of those who had received their promotions from Cæsar, and had acquired large fortunes in consequence of his appointments: to vote him an usurper, therefore, would have endangered their property; and yet to vote him innocent, might endanger the state. In this dilemma they tried to reconcile extremes; they approved all the acts of Cæsar, but granted a general pardon to all the conspirators. This decree did not satisfy Antony, as it granted security to a number of men who were the avowed enemies of tyranny, and who would be foremost in opposing his schemes. As therefore the senate had ratified all Cæsar's acts without distinction, he formed a scheme upon this of making him *rule when dead*. Being possessed of Cæsar's books, he prevailed upon his secretary to insert whatever he thought proper. By these means, great sums of money, which Cæsar never would have bestowed, were ordered to be distributed among the people; and every man who was averse to republican principles was sure of finding a gratuity. He then demanded that Cæsar's funeral obsequies would be performed; which the senate could not decently forbid, as they had never declared him a tyrant. Accordingly, the body was brought forth into the forum with the utmost solemnity; and Antony began to excite the passions of the people. He first read Cæsar's will, in which he had left Octavius, his sister's grandson, his heir, permitting him to take the name of *Cæsar*; and three parts of his private fortune Brutus was to inherit in case of his death. The Roman people were left the gardens which he had on the other side the Tiber; and every citizen was to receive 300 sesterces. This last bequest greatly increased the people's affection for Cæsar: they considered him as a father, who after doing them the greatest good while living, thought of benefiting them after his death. As Antony continued reading, the multitude were moved, and lamentations were heard from every quarter. Antony, now began to address the assembly in a more pathetic strain: he presented before them Cæsar's bloody robe, and, as he unfolded it, took care they should observe the number of stabs in it; he then displayed an image, of the body of Cæsar, all covered with wounds. The people could now no longer contain their indignation; they unanimously cried out for revenge, and the multitude ran with flaming brands from the pile to set fire to the conspirators houses. They, however, being well guarded, repulsed the multitude, but perceiving their rage, they thought it safest to retire from the city. Divine honours were then granted him; and an altar was erected on the place where his body was burnt, where afterwards was erected a column inscribed, *To the father of his country*. In the mean time, Antony having gained the people by his zeal in Cæsar's cause, next endeavoured to bring over the senate, by seeming concern for the freedom of the state. He therefore proposed to recal Sextus, Pompey's only remaining son, who had concealed himself in Spain, and to grant him the command of all the fleets of the empire. His next step was the quelling a sedition of the people, who rose to revenge the death of Cæsar, and putting their leader [illegible] thus to death, who pretended to be the son of Marios. He after this pretended to dread the resentment of the multitude, and demanded a guard. The senate granted it, and, under this pretence he drew round him a body of 6000 resolute men attached to his interest, and ready to execute his commands. Thus he continued every day making rapid strides to absolute power; all the authority of government was lodged in his hands and those of his two brothers, who shared among them the consular tribunition, and prætorian power. His vows to revenge Cæsar's death [illegible] ed postponed, or forgotten; and his only aim was to confirm himself in that power which he had thus artfully acquired. But an obstacle to his ambition soon arose from another quarter. This was from Octavius, or Octavianus Cæsar, the grand nephew, and adopted son of Cæsar, who was at Appollonia when his kinsman was slain. He was then about 18 years old, and had been sent to that city to improve himself in Grecian literature. Upon the news of Cæsar's death, notwithstanding the earnest dissuasions of his friends he returned to Rome, to claim the inheritance and revenge the death of his uncle. But Antony whose projects were only to aggrandize himself gave him but a cold reception, and, instead of granting him the fortune left him by the will, delayed the payment of it upon various pretences. But Octavianus, instead of abating his claim sold his own patrimonial estate, to pay such legacies as Cæsar had left, and particularly that to the people. By these means he gained a degree of popularity, which his enemies vainly laboured to diminish. The army near Rome, who had long wished to see the conspirators punished, began to turn from Antony to his rival, whom they found more sincerely bent on gratifying their desires. Antony having procured also the government of Hither Gaul from the people, two of his legions that he had brought home from his former government of Macedonia, went over to Octavius. This produced, as usual, interviews, complaints, recriminations, and pretended reconciliations which only widened the difference; so that at length, both sides prepared for war. Thus the state was divided into three distinct factions; that of Octavianus, who aimed at procuring Cæsar's inheritance, and revenging his death; that of Antony, whose sole view was to obtain absolute power; and that of the conspirators, who endeavoured to restore the republic. Antony being raised by the people to his new government of Cisalpine Gaul, contrary to the inclinations of the senate, resolved to enter upon his province immediately, and oppose Brutus, who commanded a small body of troops there, while his army [illegible]

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pet entire. He accordingly left Rome, and marching thither, commanded Brutus to depart. Brutus, being unable to oppose him, retired with his forces; but being pursued by Antony, he was at last besieged in the city of Mutina, of which he sent word to the senate. In the mean while, Octavianus, who by this time had raised a body of 10,000 men, returned to Rome; and being resolved, before he attempted to take vengeance on the conspirators, if possible to diminish the power of Antony, began by bringing over the senate to favour his designs. In this he succeeded by the credit of Cicero, who had long hated Antony. Accordingly, by his eloquence, a decree was passed, ordering Antony to raise the siege of Mutina, evacuate Cisalpine Gaul, and to await the further orders of the senate upon the banks of the Rubicon. Antony treated the order with contempt; and instead of obeying, began to show his displeasure. On this the senate declared him an enemy to the state, and sent Octavianus, with the army he had raised, to curb his insolence. The consuls, Hirtius and Pansa, joined all their forces; and thus combined, they marched at the head of a numerous army, against Antony, into Cisalpine Gaul. After one or two ineffectual conflicts, the armies came to a general engagement; in which Antony was defeated, and compelled to join Lepidus, who commanded a body of forces in farther Gaul. This victory, however, which raised the senate so much success, produced effects very different from their expectations. The consuls were mortally wounded; but Pansa, previous to his death, called Octavianus to his side, and advised him to join with Antony, telling him, that the senate only desired to divide both, by opposing them to each other. The advice of the dying consul sunk deep on his spirit, so that from that time he only sought a pretence to break with them. Their giving the command of a part of his army to Decimus Brutus, and their denying him a triumph soon after, served to alienate his mind entirely from the senate, and make him resolve to join Antony and Lepidus. He was willing, however, to try the senate thoroughly, before he came to an open rupture; and before he sent to demand the consulship, which he refused. He then privately sent to sound the intentions of Antony and Lepidus, concerning the junction of forces, and found them as eager to meet as the senate was to oppose him. Antony was in fact, the general of both armies, and Lepidus was only nominally so, his soldiers refusing to obey him upon the approach of the former. Therefore, upon being assured of the assistance of Octavianus upon their arrival in Italy, they had crossed the Alps with an army of 17 legions, breathing revenge against all who had opposed their designs. The senate now began, too late, to perceive their error in disobliging Octavianus; and therefore gave him the consulship which they had so lately refused, and to prevent his joining with Antony, flattered him with new honours, and gave him a power superior to all law. The first use Octavianus made of his new authority was to procure a law for the condemnation of Brutus and Cassius; after which, he joined his forces with those of Antony and Lepidus. The meeting of these three *usurpers* of their country's freedom was near Mutina, upon a little island of the river Panarus. Their mutual suspicions were the cause of their meeting in this place. Lepidus first entered, and, finding all things safe, made the signal for the other two to approach. Their conference lasted 3 days; and the result of it was, that the supreme authority should be lodged in their hands, under the title of the *triumvirate*, for 5 years; that Antony should have Gaul; Lepidus, Spain; and Octavianus, Africa, and the Mediterranean islands. As for Italy, and the eastern provinces, they were to remain in common until their general enemy was entirely subdued. But the last article of their union was a dreadful one. It was agreed that all their enemies should be destroyed; of which each presented a list. In these were comprised not only the enemies, but the friends of the triumvirate, since the partisans of the one were often found among the opposers of the others. Thus Lepidus gave up his brother *Paulus* to the vengeance of his colleague; Antony permitted the proscription of his uncle *Lucius*; and Octavianus delivered up the great CICERO. The most sacred rights of nature were violated; 300 senators, and above 2000 knights, were included in this terrible proscription; their fortunes were confiscated, and their murderers enriched with the spoil. Rome soon felt the effects of this infernal union, and the horrid cruelties of Marius and Sylla were renewed. As many as could escape the cruelty of the triumvirs, fled into Macedonia to Brutus, or found refuge with young Pompey, who was now in Sicily, and covered the Mediterranean with his numerous navy. Their cruelties were not aimed at the men alone; but the softer sex were also marked as objects of avarice or resentment. They made out a list of 1400 women of the richest in the city, who were ordered to give in an account of their fortunes, to be taxed. But this was so firmly opposed by Hortensia, that, they were content to tax only 400. However, they made up the deficiency, by extending the tax upon men; near 100,000, as well citizens as strangers, were compelled to furnish supplies to the subversion of freedom. At last, both the avarice and vengeance of the triumviri seemed fully satisfied, and they went into the senate to declare that the proscription was at an end; and thus having deluged the city with blood, Octavianus and Antony, leaving Lepidus to defend Rome in their absence, marched with their army to oppose the conspirators, who were now at the head of a formidable army in Asia.

(38.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE SUICIDE OF BRUTUS. Brutus and Cassius, the principal conspirators, upon the death of Cæsar, being compelled to quit Rome, went into Greece, where they persuaded the Roman students at Athens to declare in the cause of freedom; then parting, the former raised a powerful army in Macedonia and the adjacent countries, while the latter went into Syria, where he became master of 12 legions, and reduced his opponent Dolabella to such straits as to kill himself. Both armies soon after joining at Smyrna, the sight of such a formidable force began to revive the declining spirits of the party, and to unite the two generals still more closely. The

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Rhodians and Lycians having refuſed their uſual contributions, the conſpirators made their reduction their firſt buſineſs. (See RHODES, § 11.) The Lycians rather than ſubmit, burned themſelves alive in Xanthus. The humanity of Brutus could ſave only 150 from the flames. As Antony and Octavianus were now advanced into Macedonia, they ſoon after paſſed over into Thrace, and advanced to the Philippi, near which the forces of the triumvirs were poſted. A battle ſoon enſued; in which the republicans were defeated, and Caſſius killed, as related under PHILIPPI. Previous to this battle Brutus is ſaid to have ſeen a ſpectre which warned him of the iſſue. Brutus, when he became ſole general, aſſembled the diſperſed troops of Caſſius, and animated them with freſh hopes of victory. As they had loſt all they poſſeſſed by the plundering of their camp, he promiſed them 2000 denarii each man to make up their loſſes. Still, however, he had not confidence to face the adverſary, who offered him battle next day. His aim was to ſtarve his enemies, who were in extreme want of proviſions, their fleet having been lately defeated. But his ſingle opinion was over-ruled by the reſt of his army, and he was, after a reſpite of 20 days, obliged to comply with their ſolicitations to try the fate of the battle. Fortune again declared againſt him; and the two triumviri expreſsly ordered by no means to ſuffer the general to get off, leſt he ſhould renew the war. His friend Lucilius, however, giving himſelf as Brutus, he effected his eſcape; but finding all hopes of retrieving his affairs loſt, he flew himſelf the ſame night.

(39.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE TOTAL DEFEAT OF ANTONY AT ACTIUM. After Brutus's death the triumviri acted as ſovereigns, and divided the Roman dominions among them. However, though there were apparently three who thus participated the power, only two were actually poſſeſſed of it. Lepidus was admitted merely to curb the jealouſy of Antony and Octavianus, and poſſeſſed neither intereſt in the army nor authority among the people. Their firſt care was to puniſh thoſe whom they had formerly marked for vengeance. The head of Brutus was ſent to Rome to be thrown at the foot of Cæſar's ſtatue. His aſhes, however, were ſent to his wife Porcia, Cato's daughter, who afterwards killed herſelf by ſwallowing burning coals. Of all thoſe who had a hand in Cæſar's death not one died a natural death. The power of the triumviri being thus eſtabliſhed upon the ruins of the commonwealth, Antony went into Greece. Thence he paſſed over into Aſia, where all the monarchs of the eaſt, who acknowledged the Roman power, came to pay him obedience. Among other ſovereigns, Cleopatra came to Tarſus where he was, and he was ſo captivated by her charms that he returned to Egypt with her, and gave himſelf up to love. While he thus remained idle, Octavianus, who undertook to lead back the veteran troops and ſettle them in Italy, was aſſiduouſly employed in providing for their ſubſiſtence. He had promiſed them lands at Rome, as a recompenſe for their paſt ſervices; but they could not receive new grants, without turning out the former inhabitants. In conſequence of this, multitudes of women, with children in their arms, whoſe tender years and innocence excited univerſal compaſſion, daily filled the temples and the ſtreets with their diſtreſſes. Numbers of huſbandmen and ſhepherds came to deprecate the conqueror's intention, or to obtain a habitation in ſome other part of the world. Amongſt this number was Virgil the poet, who in an humble manner begged permiſſion to retain his patrimonial farm: Virgil obtained his requeſt; but the reſt of his countrymen, of Mantua and Cremona, were turned out without mercy. Italy and Rome now felt the moſt extreme miſeries; the inſolent ſoldiers plundered at will; while Sextus Pompey being maſter of the ſea, cut off all foreign communication, and prevented the people's receiving their uſual ſupplies of corn. To theſe miſeries were added the commencement of another civil war. Fulvia, the wife of Antony, who had been left at Rome, had felt for ſome time all the pangs of jealouſy, and reſolved to try every method of bringing back her huſband from the arms of Cleopatra. She conſidered a breach with Octavianus as the only probable means of rouſing him from his lethargy; and accordingly, with the aſſiſtance of Lucius Antonius, her brother-in-law, who was then conſul, and entirely devoted to her intereſt, ſhe began to ſow the ſeeds of diſſenſion. The pretext was, that Antony ſhould have a ſhare in the diſtribution of lands as well as Octavianus. To negociations ſucceeded war, and Octavianus being victorious, generouſly pardoned the conquered, but obliged Fulvia to quit Italy. Antony, learning what was paſſing, reſolved to oppoſe Octavianus without delay. He accordingly ſailed at the head of a conſiderable fleet from Alexandria to Tyre, thence to Cyprus and Rhodes, and had an interview with Fulvia his wife at Athens. He blamed her for occaſioning the diſorders, expreſſed the utmoſt contempt for her perſon, and, leaving her upon her death-bed at Sycion, haſtened into Italy to fight Octavianus. They met at Brunduſium. Antony's forces were numerous, but moſtly newly raiſed; but he was aſſiſted by Sextus Pompeius, who was daily coming into power. Octavianus was at the head of thoſe veterans who had always been victorious, but who ſeemed not diſpoſed to fight againſt Antony their former general. A negociation was therefore propoſed; and a reconciliation effected. All offences were mutually forgiven; and a marriage was concluded between Antony and Octavia the ſiſter of Octavianus. A new diviſion of the Roman empire was made between them; Octavianus was to have the command of the weſt, Antony of the eaſt, while Lepidus was to have provinces in Africa. As for Sextus Pompeius, he was permitted to retain all the iſlands he had already poſſeſſed, together with Peloponneſus: he was alſo granted the privilege of demanding the conſulſhip in his abſence, and of diſcharging that office by any of his friends. It was alſo ſtipulated to leave the ſea open, and pay the people what corn was due out of Sicily. Thus a general peace was concluded. This calm continued for ſome time: Antony led his forces againſt the Parthians, over whom his lieutenant, Ventidius, had gained great advantages. Octavianus drew the greateſt part of his army into Gaul, where there were ſome diſturbances; and Pompey went to ſea

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newly ceded province. It was on this quarter fresh motives were given for renewing the Antony, who was obliged by treaty to quit Cæsus, refused to evacuate it till Pompey satisfied him for such debts as were due to from the inhabitants. This Pompey refused; immediately fitted out a new fleet, and re- his former enterprises, by cutting off such and provisions as were consigned to Italy. the grievances of the poor were again re- and the people instead of three tyrants now oppressed by four. In this exigence, nus, who had long meditated diminishing mber, resolved to begin by get ing rid of y. He was master of two fleets; one of he had caused to be built at Ravenna; and which Menodorus, who revolted from y, brought to his aid. His first attempt to invade Sicily; but being overpowered in ge by Pompey, and his fleet afterwards in a storm, he was obliged to defer his the next year. During this interval he forced by a fleet of 120 ships, given him , with which he resolved once more to Sicily. He was again disabled and shatter- storm: which so raised the vanity of Pom- he began to style himself the *son of Nep-* However, Octavianus, having refitted his recruited his forces, he gave the com- both to Agrippa, his faithful friend, who himself worthy of the trust. He began his by a victory over Pompey; and, though shortly after worsted, he soon after gave ersary a complete and final overthrow. resolved to fly to Antony, from whom ected refuge, as he had formerly obliged ervir by protecting his mother. However, once more, at the head of a small body to make himself independent, and surpri- ony's officers who had been sent to accept submissions. But he was at last abandoned soldiers, and delivered up to Titus, Anto- tenant, who caused him to be slain. The of this general removed one very powerful to the ambition of Octavianus, and he re- get rid of the rest of his associates. An soon furnished by Lepidus, that served ext for depriving him of his share in the ire. Being at the head of 22 legions, strong body of cavalry he supposed that his was more than equivalent to the popula- Octavianus. He therefore resolved to add to his province; pretending a right, as hav- invaded it. His colleague having previous- postulated without success and knowing that ecret intrigues and largesses had entirely at- the army to himself, went alone to the camp epidus, deprived him of all his authority, and ished him to Circæum. There remained now one obstacle to his ambition, viz. Antony, he resolved to remove, and began to render character as contemptible as he could at Rome. ct, Antony's conduct contributed greatly to mote the object of his ambitious partner. He marched against the Parthians with a prodi- army; but was forced to return with the of the fourth part of his forces, and all his age. (See PARTHIA, § 8.) This greatly dimi- nished his reputation; but his making a triumphal entry into Alexandria soon after, entirely disgusted the citizens of Rome. However, Antony, totally disregarding the business of the state, spent whole days and nights in the company of Cleopatra, who studied every art to increase his passion, and vary his entertainments. Not contented with sharing in her company all the delights which Egypt could afford, Antony was resolved to enlarge his sphere of luxury, by granting her many of those kingdoms which belonged to the Roman empire. He gave her all Phœnicia, Celo-Syria, and Cyprus; with a great part of Cilicia, Arabia, and Judea; gifts which he had no right to bestow, but which he pretended to grant in imitation of Hercules. This complication of vice and folly at length exasperated the Romans; and Octavianus took care to exaggerate all his faults. At length he resolved to send Octavia to Antony, as if with a view of reclaiming her husband, but, in fact, to furnish a sufficient pretext of declaring war against him, aware of what would happen. Accordingly, Antony ordered her to return without seeing her. Octavianus had now a sufficient pretext for declaring war; and informed the senate of his intention. But he deferred it for a while, being then employed in quelling an insurrection of the Illyrians. The following year was taken up in preparations against Antony. Antony ordered Canidius, with his army, to march into Europe; while he and Cleopatra followed to Samos, to prepare for carrying on the war with vigour. The kings who attended him endeavoured to gain his favour more by their entertainments than their warlike preparations; the provinces strove rather to please him by sacrificing to his divinity, than by their alacrity in his defence. In short his best friends now began to forsake him. His delay at Samos, and afterwards at Athens, where he carried Cleopatra to receive new honours, was extremely favourable to the arms of Octavianus; who was at first scarcely in a disposition to oppose him, had he gone into Italy; but he soon found time to put himself in a condition for carrying on the war, and shortly after declared it against him in form. All Antony's followers were invited over to join him, with great promises of rewards. Their armies were suitable to the empire they contended for. The one was followed by all the forces of the east; the other by all the strength of the west. Antony's force composed a body of 100,000 foot and 12,000 horse; his fleet amounted to 500 ships of war. The army of Octavianus mustered only 80,000 foot, but equalled his adversary's in number of cavalry; his fleet was but half as numerous as Antony's; however, his ships were better built, and manned with better soldiers. The great decisive engagement, which was a naval one, was fought near Actium, a city of Epirus, at the entrance of the gulph of Ambracia. Antony ranged his ships before the mouth of the gulph; and Octavianus drew up his fleet in opposition. The two land armies, on opposite sides of the gulph, were drawn up, only as spectators. The battle began on both sides with great ardour; nor was there any advantage on either side till all of a sudden Cleopatra fled from the engagement attended by 69 sail; what increased the general amazement

was

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was to behold Antony himself following soon after. Yet the engagement continued with great obstinacy till 5 P. M. when Antony's forces submitted. The land forces soon after followed the example of the navy; and all yielded without striking a blow the 4th day after the battle.

(40.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE SUICIDE OF ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA. When Cleopatra fled, Antony pursued her in a five-oared galley; and coming along-side of her ship entered, without seeing or being seen by her. She was in the stern, and he went to the prow, where he remained for some time silent, holding his head between his hands. In this manner he continued three whole days; during which, either through indignation or shame, he neither saw nor spoke to Cleopatra. At last, when they arrived at the promontory of Tenarus, the queen's female attendants reconciled them, and every thing went on as before. Still, however, he had the consolation to suppose his army continued faithful to him; and accordingly dispatched orders to his lieutenant Canidius to conduct it into Asia. However, when he arrived in Africa, he was informed of their submission to his rival. This account so transported him with rage, that he was hardly prevented from killing himself; but at length, at the entreaty of his friends, he returned to Alexandria. Cleopatra, however, seemed to retain that fortitude in her misfortunes which had abandoned her admirer. Having amassed considerable riches, by confiscation and other acts of violence, she formed a very singular project, to convey her whole fleet over the isthmus of Suez into the Red Sea, and thus save herself in another region beyond the reach of Rome, with all her treasures. Some of her vessels were actually transported thither, pursuant to her orders; but the Arabians having burnt them, and Antony dissuading her from the design, she abandoned it for the more improbable scheme of defending Egypt against the conqueror.—She made all preparation for war; at least hoping thereby to obtain better terms from Octavianus. In fact, she had always loved Antony's fortunes rather than his person; and if she could have fallen upon any method of saving herself, though even at his expence, she would have gladly embraced it. She even still had some hopes from the power of her charms, though she was almost 40; and was desirous of trying upon Octavianus those arts which had been so successful with the greatest men of Rome. Thus, in three embassies which were sent from Antony to his rival in Asia, the queen had always her secret agents, charged with particular proposals in her name. Antony desired only that his life might be spared, and to pass the rest of his days in obscurity. To these proposals Octavianus made no reply. Cleopatra sent him also public proposals in favour of her children; but at the same time privately resigned him her crown, with all the ensigns of royalty. To the queen's public proposal no answer was given; to her private offer he replied, by giving her assurances of his favour in case she sent away Antony or put him to death. When these negociations came to the knowledge of Antony, his jealousy and rage were heightened to the utmost. He built a solitary house upon a mole in the sea; where he passed his time, shunning all commerce with mankind, a professing to imitate Timon the man-hater. his furious jealousy drove him even from this treat; for hearing that Cleopatra had many cret conferences with one Thyrsus, an em from Octavianus, he seized upon him, and h ordered him to be cruelly scourged, sent him to his patron. Meanwhile, the war was carri gorously forward, and Egypt was once mo theatre of the contending armies of Rome. lus, the lieutenant of Octavianus, took P nium, which opened the whole country to l cursions. Octavianus was in the mean tim vancing with another army before Pelusium governor of which gave him possession of the so that Octavianus had now no obstacle in h to Alexandria. Antony, upon his arrival, out to oppose him, fighting with great desper and putting the enemy's cavalry to flight. flight advantage revived his declining hopes he re-entered Alexandria in triumph. Then to the palace, he embraced Cleopatra, an sented her a soldier who had distinguished in the late engagement. The queen reward very magnificently; presenting him with piece and breast-plate of gold. With thes ever, the soldier went off the next night to ther army. Antony could not bear this de he resolved, therefore, to make a bold exp fort by sea and land, but previously of fight his adversary in single combat. Oct coolly replied, that Antony had ways en die besides single combat. At day-break posted the few troops he had remaining rising ground near the city: whence he sent to his galleys to engage the enemy. Th waited to be a spectator of the combat; a first, he saw them advance in good order; approbation was turned into rage, when his ships only saluting those of Octavian both fleets uniting, and sailing back into bour. At the same time his cavalry defea He tried, however, to lead on his infantry were soon vanquished, and himself com return into the town. His anger was ne vernable; he could not help crying out he passed, that he was betrayed by Cleopa delivered by her to those who, for her sake were his enemies. In these suspicions he w deceived; for it was by secret orders fro queen that the fleet had passed over to the Cleopatra had, for a long while, dreaded t fects of Antony's jealousy; and had, some before, prepared a method of obviating an den sallies it might produce. Near the tem Isis she had erected a building, which was ingly designed for a sepulchre. Hither she ved all her treasure and most valuable effec vering them over with torches, faggots, and combustible matter. This sepulchre she de to answer a double purpose; as well to secu from the sudden resentments of Antony, make Octavianus believe that she would b her treasures in case he refused her propos of capitulation. Here, therefore, she retired Antony's fury; shutting the gates, which fortified with bolts and bars of iron: but in mean time gave orders to spread a report

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ith.—This news, which ſoon reached Antony, alled all his former love. He now lamented death with the ſame violence he had but a few nutes before ſeemed to deſire it; and called one his freed-men, named *Eros*, whom he had en- ed by oath to kill him whenever fortune ſhould ing him to this laſt reſource. Eros being com- lled to perform his promiſe, drew the ſword, rning his face, plunged it into his own bo- , and died at his maſter's feet. Antony for a le hung over his faithful ſervant, and, com- ding his fidelity, took up the ſword, with ſtabbing himſelf in the belly, fell back- upon a little couch. Before he died he rd that Cleopatra was yet alive, and had him- carried to die in her preſence. Octavianus extremely deſirous of getting Cleopatra into power; having a double motive for his ſolici- on this occaſion; one, to prevent her de- ing the treaſures ſhe had taken with her into mb; the other, to preſerve her perſon as an ment to grace his triumph, and by ſtratagem he obtained his object. In the mean time ianus made his entry into Alexandria, and the inhabitants with lenity. Two only of ular note were put to death upon this occa- Antony's eldeſt ſon Antyllus, and Cæſario, of Julius Cæſar. As for the reſt of Cleo- children, he treated them with great gen- . When ſhe was recovered from an illneſs, e to viſit her in perſon.—Cleopatra had been ing for this interview, and made uſe of eve- thod ſhe could think of to propitiate the ror, and to gain his affection; but in vain. ſhen ordered an aſp to be ſecretly conveyed r in a baſket of fruit, ſent a letter to Octa- , informing him of her purpoſe of ſuicide, deſired to be buried in the ſame tomb with y. She died at the age of 39, after having d 22 years. Her death put an end to the chy in Egypt.

(2) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEATH UGUSTUS. After having ſettled the affairs ypt, he left Alexandria in the beginning of mber, in the year of Rome 720, with a de- to return through Syria, Aſia Minor, and ece, to Italy. On his arrival at Antioch, he d there Tiridates, who had been raiſed to the e of Parthia, in oppoſition to Phrahates, and aſſadors from Phrahates, who were come to t the aſſiſtance of the Romans againſt each . Octavianus gave a friendly anſwer both ridates and the ambaſſadors of Phrahates, out intending to help either; but with a de- to animate the one againſt the other, and to weaken both. After this, having appoint- Seſſala Corvinus governor of Syria, he march- to Aſia, and took up his winter quarters. pent the winter in ſettling the ſeveral pro- s of Aſia Minor and the adjacent iſlands; arly in ſpring paſſed into Greece, whence he ut for Rome, which he entered in the month ilis, afterwards called *Auguſt*, in three tri- hs, which were celebrated for three days to- er. And now Octavianus was at the height is wiſhes, ſole maſter of the whole Roman ire. But, to perſuade the people that they enjoyed their ancient government, he conti- nued the old magiſtrates, with the ſame name, pomp, and ornaments, but they were to have no military power, but only their old juriſdiction of deciding finally all cauſes, except ſuch as were capital; and though ſome of theſe laſt were left to the governor of Rome, yet the chief he reſerved for himſelf. He likewiſe won the hearts of the populace by cheapneſs of proviſions and plentiful markets; he frequently entertained them with ſhows and ſports; and by theſe means kept them in good humour, and made them forget uſurpation, ſlavery, and every public evil. As for the ſenate, he filled it with his own creatures, raiſing the number of the ſenators to 1000. He ſupplied ſeveral poor ſenators with money to diſcharge the public offices, and affected a high regard for that body; but diveſted them of all power, and reduced them to mere cyphers. To prevent them from raiſing new diſturbances in the diſtant provinces, he prohibited any ſenator to travel out of Italy without leave, except ſuch as had lands in Sicily, or Narbonne Gaul. Before he ended his 6th conſulſhip, he took a cenſus of the people, 41 years after the laſt; and in this the number of the men fit to bear arms amounted to 463,000, the greateſt that had ever been found. To gain the affections of the people, he annulled, by one edict, the many ſevere and unjuſt laws which had been enacted during the triumvirate. He raiſed many public buildings, repaired the old ones, and added many ſtately ornaments to the city, which at this time was, if we may credit ſome ancient writers, about 50 miles in compaſs, and contained near four millions of ſouls. He attended buſineſs, reformed abuſes, ſhowed great regard for the Roman name, procured plenty, pleaſure, and jollity, often appearing in perſon at the public diverſions, and in all things ſtudying to render himſelf popular. And now Octavianus, entering upon his 7th conſulſhip with M. Agrippa, and finding all things ripe for his deſign, went to the ſenate-houſe; and there offered to reſign his authority, and put all again into the hands of the people upon the old plan of the republic; but they not only interrupted him while he was ſpeaking, but, after he had done, unanimouſly beſought him to take upon himſelf alone the whole government of the Roman empire. He, with a ſeeming reluctance, yielded at laſt to their requeſt, and accepted of the ſovereignty for ten years, but with no intention of relinquiſhing it at the end of that period. With this new authority the ſenate conferred upon him the name of Auguſtus. Though the whole power of the ſenate and people was now veſted in Auguſtus, yet, that he might ſeem to ſhare it with the ſenators, he refuſed to govern all the provinces; aſſigning to the ſenate ſuch as were quiet and peaceable; thus ſecuring all the military power to himſelf. Over the provinces were ſet ſuch as had been conſuls or prætors, with the titles of *proconſul* and *propretor*. Thus ended the greateſt commonwealth, and began the greateſt monarchy, that had ever been known, a monarchy which comprehended the greateſt, and by far the beſt part of Europe, Aſia, and Africa, being near 4000 miles in length, and about half as much in breadth. As to the annual revenues of the empire, they have been reckoned

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to

to amount to forty millions of our money. But the Romans now ran headlong into all manner of luxury and effeminacy. The people were become a mere mob. The nobility were indeed more polite than formerly, but idle, venal, vicious, ſtrangers to public glory, void of patriotiſm, and ſolely intent on gaining the favour of the emperor. Auguſtus, now abſolute maſter of the Roman empire, took all methods to ingratiate himſelf with his ſoldiers, by whoſe means he had attained ſuch a height of power. He kept 25 legions conſtantly on foot, amounting to 170,650 men. At ſea he had two powerful navies. As to the civil government, he enacted ſeveral new laws, and reformed ſome old ones: and, as he affected to do nothing without the advice of the ſenate, to the reſt of his titles they added that of *Father of his Country*. Auguſtus next turned his arms againſt the Spaniſh nations called *Cantabrians* and *Aſturians*, who had never been fully ſubdued. The war terminated as uſual, in favour of the Romans; and theſe brave nations were forced to receive the yoke, though not without the moſt violent reſiſtance. (See ASTURIA.) By this and his other conqueſts the name of Auguſtus became ſo celebrated, that his friendſhip was courted by the moſt diſtant monarchs. Phrahates, king of Parthia, made a treaty with him upon his own terms; gave him 4 of his own ſons, with their wives and children as hoſtages, and delivered up the Roman eagles and other enſigns which had been taken from Craſſus at the battle of Carrhæ. He received alſo an embaſſy from a king of India, with a letter written in the Greek tongue, in which the Indian monarch informed him, that "though he reigned over 600 kings, he had ſo great a value for the friendſhip of Auguſtus, that he had ſent this embaſſy on ſo long a journey on purpoſe to deſire it of him; and that he was ready to meet him at whatſoever place he pleaſed to appoint; and that, upon the firſt notice, he was ready to aſſiſt him in whatever was right." This letter he ſubſcribed by the name of *Porus king of India*. Of the ambaſſadors who ſet out from India, three only reached Auguſtus, who was then in the iſland of Samos, the others dying by the way. Of the three ſurvivors one was named *Zarmar*, a gymnoſophiſt, who followed the emperor to Athens, and there burnt himſelf in his preſence; it being cuſtomary for the gymnoſophiſts to put an end to their lives in this manner, when they thought they had lived long enough, or apprehended ſome misfortune. Soon after this the Roman dominions were extended ſouthward over the Garamantes, a people whoſe country reached as far as the Niger. All this time the emperor continued to make new regulations for the good of the ſtate; and among other things cauſed the Sibylline oracles to be reviewed. Many of theſe he rejected; but ſuch as were reckoned authentic, he cauſed to be copied by the pontifices, and lodged them in golden cabinets, which he placed in the temple of Apollo, in his palace. The Roman empire had now extended itſelf ſo far, that it ſeemed to have arrived at the limits preſcribed to it by nature; and it ſoon after began to be attacked by thoſe nations which in proceſs of time were to overthrow it. The Germans, by which name the Romans confounded a great number of nations dwelling in the northern parts of Europe, began to make incurſions into Gaul. Their firſt attempt happened in the year 17 B. C. when they at firſt gained an inconſiderable advantage, but were ſoon driven back with great loſs. Soon after this the RHÆTI, who inhabited a country bordering on the lake of Conſtance, invaded Italy, where they committed dreadful devaſtations, putting all the males to the ſword without diſtinction of rank or age. Againſt theſe barbarians Auguſtus ſent Druſus, the 2d ſon of the empreſs Livia; who, though very young, gained a complete victory with very little loſs. Thoſe who eſcaped took the road to Gaul, being joined by the Vindelici, another nation in the neighbourhood; but Tiberius, the elder brother of Druſus, marched againſt them, and overthrew them completely, that the Rhæti, Vindelici, and Norici, three of the moſt barbarous nations in thoſe parts, were obliged to ſubmit. To keep the country in awe, Tiberius planted two colonies in Vindelicia, opening a road thence into Noricum and Rhætia. One of the cities which he built for the defence of his colonies was called *Drusomagus*; the other, *Auguſta Vindelicorum*; now called *Numinghen* and *Augſburg*. Auguſtus, who had long ſince obtained all the temporal honours which could well be conferred upon him, now began to aſſume thoſe of the ſpiritual kind; being in the year 13 B. C. created *Pontifex Maximus*: an office which he continued to hold till his death; as did alſo his ſucceſſors till the time of Theodoſius. By virtue of this office he corrected a very groſs miſtake in the Roman kalendar; for the pontifices having, for the ſpace of 36 years, that is, ever ſince the reformation by Julius Cæſar, made every *third* year a leap year inſtead of every *fourth*, 12 days had been inſerted inſtead of 9, ſo that the Roman year conſiſted of three days more than it ought to have done. Theſe three days having been thrown out, the form of the year has ever ſince been regularly obſerved, till the *Gregorian* or *New Style* came to be adopted throughout Europe, and is ſtill known by the name of the *old ſtyle* among us. On this occaſion he gave his own name to the month *Auguſt*, as Julius Cæſar had formerly done to *July*. In the year 11 B. C. Agrippa died, and was ſucceeded in his employment of governor of Rome by Tiberius; but, before inveſting him with this ample power, the emperor cauſed him to divorce his wife Agrippina (who had already brought him a ſon, and was then big with child) to marry Julia, the widow of Agrippa, and daughter of the emperor. Julia was a princeſs of infamous character, as was known to every body excepting Auguſtus himſelf; however, Tiberius made no heſitation. The emperor now ſent his two ſtep-ſons, Tiberius and Druſus, againſt the northern nations. Tiberius reduced the Pannians, who had attempted to ſhake off the yoke after the death of Agrippa. Druſus performed great exploits in Germany; but while he was conſidering whether he ſhould penetrate further into theſe northern countries, he was ſeized with a violent fever, which carried him off in a few days. He was ſucceeded in his command by his bro-

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who, who is reported to have done great things, it certainly made no permanent conquests in Germany. However, he was honoured with a triumph, and had the tribunitial power for five years conferred upon him; which was no sooner done, than, to the great surprise of Augustus and the whole city, he desired leave to quit Rome, and retire to Rhodes. A profound peace now reigned throughout the whole empire; and in consequence of this the temple of Janus was shut, which had never before happened since the reign of Numa Pompilius. During this pacific interval the Saviour of mankind was born in Judæa, many years after the building of Rome. Three years after, Tiberius returned to the city, by permission of Augustus, but in a short time his grandsons, Lucius Cæsar, and Caius Cæsar died, not without suspicion of being poisoned by Livia. Augustus was exceedingly concerned at their loss, and immediately adopted Tiberius as his son; but adopted also Agrippa Posthumius, the son of the famous Agrippa; and obliged him to adopt Germanicus, the son of his brother Drusus, though he had a son of his own called *Drusus*. As to Agrippa, who might have been a occasion of jealousy, Tiberius was soon rid of him, by his disgrace and banishment, which soon took place, but on what account is unknown. The northern nations now began to grow formidable: and though it is pretended that the Romans was always successful against them, yet about this time they gave the Romans a most terrible overthrow; three legions and six cohorts, under Quintilius Varus, being almost entirely cut off. Augustus set no bounds to his grief on this occasion. Tiberius, however, was soon after sent into Germany; and for his exploits there was honoured with a triumph. Augustus now took him for his colleague in the sovereignty; although he sent Germanicus against the northern nations, and Tiberius into Illyricum. This was the last of his public acts; for having accompanied Tiberius part of his journey, he died at Nola in Campania, in the 76th year of his age, and 57th of his reign. Livia was suspected of having hastened his death by poisoned figs.

ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF Nero. Tiberius, who succeeded to the throne, resolved to secure himself on the throne by the murder of Agrippa; whom accordingly he ordered to be put to death by a military tribune. Though this might have been a sufficient specimen of what the Romans had to expect, the oath of Augustus was no sooner known, than Tiberius first took an oath of fidelity to the emperor, and then administered it to the senate, the people, and the soldiery. Tiberius began in a dark mysterious manner, ruling with absolute sway, but seeming to hesitate whether he should accept the sovereign power or not. Tiberius had scarce taken possession of the throne, when news were brought him that the armies in Pannonia and Germany had mutinied. In Pannonia they were terrified into submission by an eclipse of the moon; but the revolt of the Germanic legions threatened more danger. After Germanicus had granted all their demands, and quieted them, as he supposed, fresh disturbances broke out. He then thought it was necessary to provide for the safety of his family, by sending his Agrippina from the camp with many of the wives of other officers. This made such a deep impression on the mutineers, that they intreated Germanicus to recall his wife, and not oblige her to seek a sanctuary among foreigners. The general improved this favourable disposition, and they of their own accord seized and massacred the ringleaders of the revolt. Still, however, two of the legions continued disobedient; but on hearing of the return of their fellows to their duty, those who had remained true rose and massacred the whole of the revolters. The sedition being thus quelled, Germanicus led his army into Germany, where he performed many great exploits; (See GERMANY, § 8—10;) but still all that he could perform was far from freeing the empire from so dangerous and troublesome an enemy. In the year 19 he died, of poison, as was supposed, given by Piso, his partner in the government of Syria, to which Germanicus had been promoted after his return from the north. In the mean time, Tiberius, though he affected to court the favour of the people by various methods, yet showed himself in general such a cruel and bloodthirsty tyrant, that he became the object of universal abhorrence. Though he had hated Germanicus in his heart, he punished Piso with death; but in about a year after the death of Germanicus, having now no object of jealousy to keep him in awe, he pulled off the mask, and appeared in his natural character. He began daily to diminish the authority of the senate; which was much facilitated by their own adulation; so that he despised their meanness, while he enjoyed its effects. A law subsisted, which made it treason to form any injurious attempt against the majesty of the people. Tiberius assumed to himself the interpretation and enforcement of this law. All freedom was now therefore banished from convivial meetings, and diffidence reigned amongst the dearest relations. The law of offended majesty being revived, many persons of distinction fell a sacrifice to it. In the beginning of these cruelties, Tiberius took into his confidence SEJANUS, a Roman knight, by birth a Volscian, who gained his confidence by the most refined degree of dissimulation, being an over-match for his master in his own arts. He was made by the emperor captain of the Prætorian guards, one of the most confidential trusts in the state, and extolled in the senate as a worthy associate in his labours. The servile senators, with ready adulation, set up the statues of the favourite beside those of Tiberius, and seemed eager to pay him similar honours. It was from such humble beginnings that this minister even ventured to aspire at the throne, and was resolved to make the emperor's foolish confidence one of the first steps to his ruin. However, he considered that cutting off Tiberius alone would rather retard than promote his designs, while his son Drusus and the children of Germanicus were yet remaining. He therefore began by corrupting Livia, the wife of Drusus; whom, after having debauched her, he prevailed

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upon to poiſon her huſband. This was effected by means of a ſlow poiſon, which gave his death the appearance of a caſual diſtemper. Tiberius, in the mean time, not much regarding his ſon, bore his death with great tranquillity. Sejanus reſolved to make his next attempt upon the children of Germanicus, who were undoubted heirs to the empire. However, he was fruſtrated, both with regard to the fidelity of their governors, and the chaſtity of Agrippina their mother. Whereupon he reſolved upon removing Tiberius out of the city. He began to inſinuate to Tiberius the numerous inconveniencies of the city, the fatigues of attending the ſenate, and the ſeditious temper of the inferior citizens. Tiberius, either prevailed upon by his perſuaſions, or purſuing the natural turn of his temper, which led to indolence and debauchery, in the 12th year of his reign left Rome, and went into Campania, under pretence of dedicating temples to Jupiter and Auguſtus. After this he never returned to Rome; but ſpent the greateſt part of his time in the iſland of Capræa, a place which was rendered as infamous by his pleaſures as deteſtable by his cruelties. He ſpent whole nights in debaucheries at the table. His luxuries of other kinds were ſtill more deteſtable, and ſeemed to increaſe with his drunkenneſs and gluttony. But from the time of his retreat, he became more cruel, and Sejanus always endeavoured to increaſe his diſtruſts. Sejanus found his aim every day ſucceeding; the wretched emperor's terrors were an inſtrument by which he levelled every obſtacle to his deſigns. But the chief objects of his jealouſy were the children of Germanicus, whom he reſolved to get rid of. He ſo contrived to widen the breach between the emperor and the princes, that at length Nero and Druſus were declared enemies of the ſtate, and afterwards ſtarved to death in priſon; while Agrippina their mother was ſent into baniſhment. In this manner Sejanus proceeded, removing all who ſtood between him and the empire, and every day increaſing in confidence with Tiberius, and power with the ſenate. The number of his ſtatues exceeded even thoſe of the emperor; and he was more dreaded than even the tyrant who enjoyed the empire. But the rapidity of his riſe was only preparatory to the greatneſs of his downfal. All we know of his firſt diſgrace with the emperor is, that Satrius Secundus was the man who had the boldneſs to accuſe him. Antonia, the mother of Germanicus, ſeconded the accuſation. He was very near diſpatching Tiberius, when his practices were diſcovered, and his own life was ſubſtituted for that againſt which he aimed. The emperor ordered the ſenate to put him in priſon; but they went beyond their orders. Inſtead of ſentencing him to impriſonment, they directed his execution. His body was ignominiouſly dragged about the ſtreets, and his whole family executed with him.

(43.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF TIBERIUS. Sejanus's death only kindled the emperor's rage for further executions. The priſons were crowded with pretended accomplices in the conſpiracy of Sejanus. Tiberius began to grow weary of particular executions; he therefore gave orders that all the accuſed ſhould be put to death without examination. He often feaſted his eyes with the tortures of the wretches that were put to death before him. In this manner did the tyrant continue to torment others, although he was himſelf ſtill more tortured by his own ſuſpicions. In the mean time, the frontier provinces were invaded with impunity by the barbarians. Mæſia was ſeized on by the Dacians and Sarmatians; Gaul was waſted by the Germans, and Armenia conquered by the forces of Parthia. Tiberius, however, was ſo much addicted to his brutal appetites, that he left his provinces wholly to the care of his lieutenants, and himſelf were intent rather on the accumulation of private fortune than the ſafety of the ſtate. At length, however, in the 22d year of his reign, he began to feel the approaches of his diſſolution. He therefore, began to think of a ſucceſſor, and nominated Caligula: ſoon after he fell into ſuch meanings, as all believed were fatal. It was in this ſituation, that, by Marco's advice, Caligula prepared to ſecure the ſucceſſion. He received congratulations of the whole court, cauſed himſelf to be acknowledged by the Prætorian ſoldier's, and went forth from the emperor's apartment amidſt the applauſes of the multitude, when all of a ſudden he was informed that the emperor was recovered, that he had begun to ſpeak, and deſired to eat. Marco, however, was hardened in crimes, ordered that the emperor ſhould be diſpatched, by ſmothering him with pillows; or, as others will have it, by poiſon. Thus Tiberius died, in the 78th year of his age, after reigning 22. The Romans were, at this time, arrived at their higheſt pitch of effeminacy and vice. The wealth of almoſt every nation of the empire, having, for a time, circulated through the city, brought with it the luxuries peculiar to each country; and Rome preſented a deteſtable picture of the pollution. In the 18th year of this monarch's reign, Chriſt was crucified.

(44.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF CALIGULA. No monarch ever came to the throne with more advantages than Caligula. He received the congratulations of the people in very ſide, all equally pleaſed in being freed from the cruelties of Tiberius, and in hoping great advantages from the virtues of his ſucceſſor. Caligula took every method to impreſs them with the opinion of an happy change. Amidſt the joicings of the multitude, he advanced moſt magnificently with the dead body of Tiberius, which the ſoldiers brought to be burnt at Rome. Upon his entrance into the city, he was received with the titles of honour by the ſenate. He was left heir with Gemellus, grandſon to Tiberius; but they ſet aſide Gemellus, and declared Caligula ſole ſucceſſor to the empire. The new emperor at firſt ſeemed very ambitious of the public favour; and having performed the funeral ſolemnities of Tiberius, he haſtened to the iſland Pandataria and Pontia, to remove the aſhes of his mother and brothers, expoſing himſelf to the dangers of tempeſtuous weather, to give a teſtimony to his piety. Having brought them to Rome, he inſtituted annual ſolemnities in their honour, and ordered September to be called *Germanicus*, becauſe

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memory of his father. He conferred the same honours upon his grandmother Antonia, which had been given to Livia; and ordered all inscriptions to be burnt that any way exposed the enemies of his family. He even refused a pardon that was offered him, tending to the discovery of a conspiracy against him; alleging, That he was conscious of nothing to deserve any man's hatred, and therefore had no fears from their malice. He caused the institutions of Augustus, which had been disused in the reign of Tiberius, to be revived; undertook to reform many abuses in the state, and severely punished corrupt governors. He banished the spintriæ or inventors of abominable recreations from Rome; attempted to restore the ancient manner of electing magistrates by the suffrages of the people; and gave them a free jurisdiction, without any appeal to himself. Although the will of Tiberius was annulled by the senate, and that of Livia suppressed by Tiberius, yet he caused all their legacies to be punctually paid; and to make Gemellus amends for uniting the crown, he caused him to be elected *Princeps Juventutis*, or principal of the youth. He restored some kings to their dominions who had been unjustly dispossessed by Tiberius, and remitted them the arrears of their revenues. And, lest he might appear an encourager of every virtue, he ordered a female slave a large sum of money for enduring the most exquisite torments without discovering the secrets of her master. So many concessions, and such apparent virtue, could not fail of receiving just applause. A shield of gold, bearing his image, was decreed to be carried annually to the Capitol, attended by the senate and the sons of the nobility singing in praise of the emperor's virtues. It was likewise ordained, that the day on which he was appointed to the empire should be called *Pubitia*; implying, that when he came to govern, the city received a new population. In less than 8 months all this shew of virtue and clemency vanished; while furious passions, unexampled avarice, and capricious cruelty began to take their turn in his mind. As most of the cruelties of Tiberius arose from suspicion, those of those committed by Caligula took rise from prodigality. Some assert, that a disorder of mind happened soon after his accession to the empire discomposed his understanding. Indeed madness itself could scarce dictate cruelties more extravagant, or inconsistencies more ridiculous, than are imputed to him. Gemellus he obliged to kill himself. Silenus, the emperor's father-in-law, was the next that was put to death upon slight suspicions; and Gerincus, a senator of noted integrity, refusing to witness falsely against him, shared his fate. After these followed a crowd of victims to the emperor's avarice or suspicion. Among the number of those who were sacrificed to his jealousy, was Marco, the late favourite of Tiberius, and the person to whom Caligula owed his empire. Not long after, he assumed divine honours, and gave himself the names of such divinities as he thought most agreeable to his nature. For this purpose he caused the heads of the statues of Jupiter and some other gods to be struck off, and his own to be put in their places. He frequently seated himself between Castor and Pollux, and ordered that all who came to their temple, to worship, should pay their adorations only to him; nay, at last he altered their temple to the form of a portico, which he joined to his palace, that the very gods, as he said, might serve him in the quality of porters. He was not less notorious for the depravation of his appetites than for his ridiculous presumptions. Neither person, place, nor sex, were obstacles to the indulgence of his unnatural lusts. There was scarce a lady of any quality in Rome that escaped his lewdness; and, indeed, such was the degeneracy of the times, that there were few ladies who did not think this disgrace an honour. He committed incest with his three sisters, and at public feasts they lay with their heads upon his bosom by turns. Of these he prostituted Livia and Agrippina to his vile companions, and then banished them as adultresses and conspirators against his person. As for Drusilla, he took her from her husband Longinus, and kept her as his wife. Her he loved so affectionately, that, being sick, he appointed her heiress of his empire and fortune; and she happening to die before him, he made her a goddess. Nor did her example when living, appear more dangerous to the people than her divinity when dead. To mourn for her death was a crime, as she was become a goddess; and to rejoice for her divinity was capital, because she was dead. Nay, even silence itself was an unpardonable insensibility, either of the emperor's loss or his sister's advancement. But of all his vices, his prodigality was the most remarkable, and that which in some measure gave rise to the rest. The most notorious instance of his fruitless profusion was the vast bridge at Puteoli, which he undertook in the third year of his reign. He caused a great number of ships to be fastened to each other, so as to make a floating bridge from Baiæ to Puteoli, across an arm of the sea 3 miles and an half broad. The ships being placed in two rows, in form of a crescent, were secured to each other with anchors, chains, and cables. Over these were laid vast quantities of timber, and upon that earth, so as to make the whole resemble one of the streets of Rome. He next caused several houses to be built upon his new bridge, for the reception of himself and his attendants, into which fresh water was conveyed by pipes from land. At night, the number of torches and other illuminations with which this expensive structure was adorned, cast such a gleam as illuminated the whole bay, and all the neighbouring mountains. Expences like these would have exhausted the most unbounded wealth: in fact, after reigning about a year, Caligula found his revenues totally exhausted; and a fortune of about 18,000,000 of our money, which Tiberius had amassed together, entirely spent in extravagance and folly. Now, therefore, his prodigality put him upon new methods of supplying the exchequer; and as before his profusion, so now his rapacity became boundless. He put in practice all kinds of rapine and extortion. Every thing was taxed, to the very wages of the meanest tradesman. He poisoned many who had named him for their heir, to have the immediate possession of their fortunes. He set up a brothel in his own palace, by which he gained considerable sums by

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proſtitution. He alſo kept a gaming-houſe, ſcrupling none of the meaneſt tricks to advance his gains. On one occaſion having had a run of ill luck, he ſaw two rich knights paſſing through his court; upon which he roſe up, and cauſing both to be apprehended, confiſcated their eſtates, and then joining his former companions, boaſted that he never had a better throw in his life. Another time, wanting money for a ſtake, he went down and cauſed ſeveral noblemen to be put to death; and then returning, told the company that they ſat playing for trifles while he had won 60,000 ſeſterces at a caſt. Such inſupportable and capricious cruelties produced many ſecret conſpiracies againſt him; but theſe were deferred, on account of his intended expedition againſt the Germans and Britons, in the third year of his reign. His mighty preparations, however, ended in nothing. Inſtead of conquering Britain, he only gave refuge to one of its baniſhed princes; and, inſtead of conquering Germany, he only led his army to the ſea-ſhore in Batavia. At laſt a plan for taking him off was concerted under the influence of Caſſius Cherea, tribune of the prætorian bands. He was joined by Valerius Aſiaticus, whoſe wife the emperor had debauched, Annius Vincianus, Clemens the prefect, and Caliſtus, whoſe riches made him obnoxious to the tyrant. While theſe were deliberating upon the moſt certain method of deſtroying the tyrant, an unexpected incident gave new ſtrength to the conſpiracy. Pompedius, a ſenator of diſtinction, having been accuſed before the emperor, of having ſpoken of him with diſreſpect, the informer cited one Quintilia, an actreſs, to confirm his accuſation. Quintilia, however, was poſſeſſed of an uncommon degree of fortitude. She denied the fact with obſtinacy; and being put to the torture at the informer's requeſt, ſhe bore the ſevereſt torments with unſhaken conſtancy. After ſeveral deliberations, it was at laſt reſolved to attack him during the continuance of the Palatine games. And he was accordingly ſlain in a little vaulted gallery that led to the bath. He was diſpatched with 30 wounds, in the 29th year of his age, after a ſhort reign of 3 years, 10 months, and 8 days. With him his wife and infant daughter alſo periſhed; the one being ſtabbed by a centurion, the other having its brains daſhed out againſt the wall. His coin was alſo melted down by a decree of the ſenate; and ſuch precautions were taken, that all ſeemed willing, that neither his features nor his name might be tranſmitted to poſterity.

(45.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF CLAUDIUS. As ſoon as the death of Caligula was made public, it produced the greateſt confuſion in the city. The conſpirators, who only aimed at deſtroying a tyrant without attending to a ſucceſſor, had all retired to private places. Some thought the report of the emperor's death was only an artifice of his own, to ſee how his enemies would behave. In this interval of ſuſpenſe, the German guards pillaged and gave looſe to their licentiouſneſs, under pretence of revenging the emperor's death. All the conſpirators and ſenators that fell in their way received no mercy. However, they grew calm by degrees, and the ſenate was permitted to aſſemble, to deliberate upon what was neceſſary to be done in this emerg... In this deliberation, Saturninus, who was conſul, inſiſted much upon the benefits of li... and his language was highly pleaſing to the ſ... but the populace and the army oppoſed ... The former remembered the donations and ... ſpectacles of the emperors with regret. T... ter were ſenſible they could have no power ... a monarchy. In this oppoſition of intereſt ... variety of opinions, chance at laſt decided t... of the empire. Some ſoldiers running ab... palace, diſcovered Claudius, Caligula's ... lurking in a ſecret place, where he hid ... through fear. Of this perſonage, who had ... to been deſpiſed for his imbecility, they r... to make an emperor; and accordingly carri... upon their ſhoulders to the camp, where th... claimed him at a time when he expected ... but death. The ſenate went ſoon after in ... to render him their homage. Cherea was ... who fell a ſacrifice to the jealouſy of this n... narch. He met death with all the fortitud... ancient Roman. Lupus, his friend, ſuffere... with him; and Sabinus, one of the conſp... laid violent hands on himſelf. Claudius ... years old when he began to reign. The ... cated diſeaſes of his infancy had affected ... faculties of his body and mind. The com... ment of his reign gave the moſt promiſing ... of an happy continuance. He began by ... an act of oblivion for all former words and ... and diſannulled all the cruel edicts of C... He forbade all perſons, under ſevere penal... ſacrifice to him as they had done to Caligu... aſſiduous in hearing and examining com... and frequently adminiſtered juſtice in ... tempering by his mildneſs the ſeverity of ... He took a more than ordinary care that ... ſhould be continually ſupplied with corn a... viſions, ſecuring the merchants againſt ... He was not leſs aſſiduous in his buildings, i... he excelled almoſt all that went before hi... conſtructed a wonderful aqueduct, called ... own name, much ſurpaſſing any other in ... either for workmanſhip or plentiful ſup... brought water from 40 miles diſtance, ... great mountains, and over deep valleys ... built on ſtately arches, and furniſhing the ... parts of the city. He made alſo an have... tia; a work of ſuch immenſe expence, ... ſucceſſors were unable to maintain it. ... greateſt work of all was the draining of ... Fucinus, which was the largeſt in Italy, an... ing its water into the Tiber, to ſtrengt... current of that river. For effecting this, ... other vaſt difficulties, he mined through a ... tain of ſtone 3 miles broad, and kept 30,000 ... employed for 11 years together. To this ſol... tude for the internal advantages of the ſtate, ... added that of a watchful guardianſhip over ... provinces. He even undertook to gratify the p... ple by foreign conqueſt. The Britons, who h... for near 100 years, been left in ſole poſſeſſion ... their own iſland, began to ſeek the mediation ... Rome, to quell their inteſtine commotions. T... principal man who deſired to ſubject his nat... country to the Roman dominion, was one Beric... who perſuaded the emperor to make a deſcent ...

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on the iſland, magnifying the advantages that would attend the conqueſt of it. Plautius the rator was accordingly ordered to paſs over into ul, and make preparations for this expedition; d the Britons, under their king Cynobelinus, e ſeveral times overthrown. Theſe ſucceſſes after induced Claudius to go into Britain in ſon, upon pretence that the natives were ſtill ious, and had not delivered up ſome Roman tives who had taken ſhelter among them; but particular account of the exploits of the Ro- in this iſland, ſee ENGLAND, § 10. But dius ſoon began to leſſen his care for the pub- and to commit to his favourites all the con- of the empire. The chief of his directors his wife Meſſalina: whoſe name is almoſt be- a common appellation to women of aban- d characters. However, ſhe was not leſs re- able for her cruelties than her luſts; and de- ed many of the moſt illuſtrious families of e. Subordinate to her were the emperor's men; Pallas, the treaſurer; Narciſſus, the ary of State; and Calliſtus, the maſter of the s. Theſe entirely governed Claudius; ſo he was only left the fatigues of ceremony, they poſſeſſed all the power of the ſtate. uld be tedious to enumerate the various cru- which theſe inſidious adviſers obliged the emperor to commit: thoſe againſt his own will ſuffice. Appius Silanus, a perſon of merit, who had been married to the empe- mother-in-law, was put to death upon the ions of Meſſalina. After him he ſlew both s-in-law, Silanus and Pompey, and his two the Livias, one the daughter of Druſus, ther of Germanicus; without permitting to plead in their defence, or even without g any cauſe. Great numbers of others fell es to the jealouſy of Meſſalina and her mi- who bore ſo great a ſway in the ſtate, that ces, dignities, and governments, were en- at their diſpoſal. Every thing was put to ey took money for pardons and penalties; cumulated, by theſe means, enormous ſums. diſorders in the miniſters produced conſpi- againſt the emperor. Statius Corvinus and Afinius formed a conſpiracy againſt him. knights privately combined to aſſaſſinate him. e revolt which gave him the greateſt uneaſ- , and which was puniſhed with the moſt un- ing ſeverity, was that of Camillus, his lieu- t-general in Dalmatia. This general, incited any of the principal men of Rome, openly ed, and aſſumed the title of *emperor*. No- could exceed the terrors of Claudius, upon informed of this revolt: ſo that when Ca- commanded him by letters to relinquiſh mpire, he ſeemed inclined to give obedience. ever, his fears were ſoon removed: for the ps which had declared for Camillus, being ed by ſome prodigies, ſoon after killed him. cruelty of Meſſalina and her minions upon occaſion ſeemed to have no bounds. They ſo ught upon the emperor's fears and ſuſpicions, numbers were executed without trial or of; and ſcarce any who were but ſuſpected, ped, unleſs by ranſoming their lives with their ect. By ſuch cruelties as theſe, his favou- rites endeavoured to eſtabliſh his and their own authority. He now became a prey to jealouſy and diſquietude, in conſequence of which he ſeemed delighted with inflicting tortures. Suetonius ſays, that there were no leſs than 35 ſenators, and above 300 knights, executed in his reign. In this manner was Claudius urged on by Meſſalina to commit cruelties, while ſhe put no bounds to her enormities. After appearing for ſome years inſatiable in her deſires, ſhe at length fixed her affections upon Caius Silius, the moſt beautiful youth in Rome. Her love for the young Roman ſeemed to amount even to madneſs. She obliged him to divorce his wife Junia Syllana, that ſhe might entirely poſſeſs him herſelf. She gave immenſe treaſures and valuable preſents; cohabiting with him in the moſt open manner. The very imperial ornaments were transferred to his houſe; and the emperor's ſlaves and attendants had orders to wait upon the adulterer. Nothing was wanting to complete their inſolence, but their being married together; and this was alſo effected. They relied upon the emperor's imbecility, for their ſecurity, and only waited till he retired to Oſtia to put their project in execution. Some time before there had been a quarrel between Meſſalina and Narciſſus, the emperor's firſt freedman, who watched for an opportunity of ruining the empreſs. He communicated to Claudius what had happened and urged him revenge without delay. Nothing could exceed the conſternation of Meſſalina and her companions, upon being told that the emperor was coming. Every one retired in the utmoſt confuſion. Silius was taken. Meſſalina took ſhelter in ſome gardens which ſhe had ſeized upon, having expelled Aſiaticus the owner, and put him to death. From thence ſhe ſent Britannicus, her only ſon by the emperor, with Octavia her daughter, to intercede for her. She ſoon after followed him; but Narciſſus had fortified the emperor againſt her arts, and ſhe was obliged to return in diſpair. Silius was inſtantly put to death in the emperor's preſence, and Narciſſus, without authority, ordered that Meſſalina ſhould ſhare the ſame fate. Claudius was informed of her death in the midſt of his banquet; without the leaſt appearance of emotion. Claudius being now a widower, declared publicly that he would remain ſingle for the future, and that he would forfeit his life if he broke his reſolution. But his reſolutions were but of ſhort continuance. His freedmen after ſome deliberation, fixed upon Agrippina, the daughter of his brother Germanicus for his wife. This woman was more practiſed in vice than even the former empreſs. As the late declaration of Claudius ſeemed to be an obſtacle to his marrying again, perſons were ſuborned to move in the ſenate, that he ſhould be compelled to take a wife, as a matter of great importance to the commonwealth. When this decree paſſed, Claudius had ſcarce patience to contain himſelf a day before the celebration of his nuptials. Claudius having now received a new director, ſubmitted with more implicit obedience than in any former part of his reign. Agrippina's chief aims were to ſecure the ſucceſſion in favour of her own ſon Nero, and to ſet aſide the claims of young Britannicus. For this purpoſe ſhe married

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ried Nero to the emperor's daughter Octavia, a few days after her own marriage. Not long after this, ſhe urged the emperor to ſtrengthen the ſucceſſion, in imitation of his predeceſſors, by making a new adoption; and cauſed him take in her ſon Nero, to divide the fatigues of government. Her next care was to increaſe her ſon's popularity, by giving him Seneca for a tutor. This ſubtle woman pretended the utmoſt affection for Britannicus; whom, however, ſhe reſolved to deſtroy: and ſhortly after her acceſſion, ſhe procured the death of ſeveral ladies who had been her rivals. She diſplaced the captain of the guard, and appointed Burrhus to that command; a perſon of great military knowledge, and ſtrongly attached to her intereſts. From that time ſhe took leſs pains to diſguiſe her power. In the 54th year of Claudius, ſhe perſuaded him to reſtore liberty to the Rhodians, of which he had deprived them ſome years before; and to remit the taxes of the city Ilium, as having been the progenitors of Rome. Her deſign in this was to increaſe the popularity of Nero, who pleaded the cauſe of both cities with great approbation. Such an immoderate abuſe of her power at laſt awakened the emperor's ſuſpicions. Agrippina's imperious temper began to grow inſupportable to him; and he declared when heated with wine, that it was his fate to ſuffer the diſorders of his wives, and to be their executioner. This expreſſion engaged all her faculties to prevent the blow. Her firſt care was to remove Narciſſus, whom ſhe hated upon many accounts. This miniſter at length thought fit to retire, by a voluntary exile, into Campania. The unhappy emperor ſeemed regardleſs of the dangers that threatened his deſtruction. His affection for Britannicus every day increaſed, which ſerved alſo to increaſe the vigilance and jealouſy of Agrippina. She now, therefore, reſolved to poiſon her huſband, and determined upon a poiſon to deſtroy his intellects, and yet not ſuddenly to terminate his life. This not having the deſired effect however ſhe directed a wretched phyſician, to thruſt a poiſoned feather down his throat, under pretence of making him vomit; and this diſpatched him.

(46.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF NERO. Claudius being deſtroyed, Agrippina took every precaution to conceal his death from the public, until ſhe had ſettled her meaſures for ſecuring the ſucceſſion. A ſtrong guard was placed at all the avenues of the palace, while ſhe amuſed the people with various reports; at one time giving out that he was ſtill alive, at another, that he was recovering. In the meanwhile, ſhe made ſure of the perſon of young Britannicus, under a pretence of affection for him. At laſt, when all things were adjuſted, the palace-gates were thrown open, and Nero, accompanied by Burrhus, prefect of the Prætorian guards, iſſued to receive the congratulations of the people and the army. The cohorts then attending, proclaimed him with the loudeſt acclamations, though not without making ſome inquiries after Britannicus. He was carried in a chariot to the reſt of the army; wherein having made a ſpeech ſuited to the occaſion, and promiſing them a donation, he was declared emperor by the army, the ſenate, and the people. Nero's firſt care was, to ſhew all poſſible reſpect to the deceaſed emperor, to cover the guilt of his death. His obſequies were performed with a pomp equal to that of Auguſtus: the young emperor pronounced his funeral oration, and he was canonized among the gods. The funeral oration, though ſpoken by Nero, was drawn up by Seneca; and this was the firſt time a Roman emperor needed the aid of another's eloquence. Nero, though but 17 years of age, began his reign with general approbation. As he owed the empire to Agrippina he ſubmitted to her directions, with the moſt implicit obedience. On her part, ſhe ſeemed reſolved on governing with her natural ferocity, and conſidered her private animoſities as the only rule to guide her in public juſtice. Immediately after the death of Claudius ſhe cauſed Silanus, the pro-conſul of Aſia, to be aſſaſſinated. The next object of her reſentment was Narciſſus, Claudius's favourite, a man notorious for the greatneſs of his wealth and the number of his crimes. He was obliged to put an end to his life by Agrippina's order. The bloody outſet would have been followed by more ſeverities, had not Seneca and Burrhus oppoſed them. Theſe worthy men, altho' they owed their riſe to the empreſs, were above being inſtruments of her cruelty. They, then combined together, and gaining the young emperor on their ſide formed a plan of power merciful and wiſe. The beginning of his reign, while he acted by their counſels, always been conſidered as a model for princes. In fact, the young monarch knew ſo well how to conceal his innate depravity, that his moſt friends could ſcarce perceive his virtues to be aſſumed. He appeared juſt, liberal, and humane. His condeſcenſion and affability were ſtill more than his other virtues; ſo that the Romans began to think, that his clemency would compenſate for the tyranny of his predeceſſors. In the mean time, Agrippina, who was excluded from all ſhare in government, attempted to recover power. Perceiving that her ſon had fallen in love with a freedwoman, named *Acte*, and entirely under the influence of a concubine, ſhe tried every art to prevent his growing paſſion. The gratification of his paſſion, therefore, in this inſtance, only ſerved to increaſe his hatred for the empreſs. Nor was it long before he gave evident marks of his diſobedience, by diſplacing Pallas her favourite. Upon this occaſion ſhe firſt perceived the total declenſion of her authority; which threw her into the moſt ungovernable fury. She ſaid that Britannicus, the real heir to the throne, was ſtill living, and in a condition to receive his father's empire, which was now poſſeſſed by an uſurper. She threatened to go to the camp, and there expoſe his baſeneſs and her own, invoking the furies to her aſſiſtance. Theſe menaces alarmed the ſuſpicions of Nero; who had begun to give way to his natural depravity. He, therefore, determined upon the death of Britannicus, and contrived to have him poiſoned at a public banquet. Agrippina, however, took every opportunity of obliging and flattering the tribunes and centurions; ſhe heaped up treaſures with a rapacity beyond her natural avarice; all her ac-

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ned calculated to raiſe a faction, and make her ſelf formidable to the emperor. Whereupon Nero commanded her German guard to be taken from her, and obliged her to lodge out of the palace. He alſo forbid particular perſons to viſit her, and went himſelf but rarely and ceremonially to pay her his reſpects. She now therefore began to find, that, with the emperor's love, ſhe had loſt the aſſiduity of her friends. Nero increaſed in years, his crimes increaſed. He took pleaſure in running about the city by night diſguiſed like a ſlave. In this habit he entered taverns and brothels, attended by the lewd followers of his pleaſures, attempting the lives of thoſe who oppoſed him, and frequently endangering his own. After his example, numbers of profligate young men infeſted the ſtreets likewiſe; ſo that every night the city was filled with tumult and diſorder. However, the people bore all theſe miſchiefs with patience, having occaſion every day to experience his liberality, and having alſo been relieved by the abolition of many of their taxes. The provinces were no way affected by theſe riots; except diſturbances on the ſide of the Parthians, which were ſoon ſuppreſſed, they enjoyed the moſt perfect tranquillity. But thoſe ſenſualities which, for the firſt four years of his reign, produced but few diſorders, in the fifth became capital. He firſt began to tranſgreſs the bounds of decency, by publicly abandoning Octavia, his wife, and taking Poppea, the wife of his favourite Otho. This was another grating circumſtance to Agrippina, who vainly uſed all her intereſt to reconcile Poppea; and reinſtate herſelf in her ſon's favour. This laſt began her arts by urging him to divorce his wife, and marry herſelf. She detected the dangerous deſigns of Agrippina; and by degrees, accuſtomed his mind to reflect on parricide without horror. His cruelties againſt her began rather by various circumſtances of petty malice than by any downright injury, at laſt, finding theſe ineffectual to break her ſpirit, he reſolved on putting her to death. After attempting poiſon and other modes ineffectual, he ſent a body of ſoldiers to her houſe who diſpatched her with ſeveral wounds. He vindicated his fact next day to the ſenate; who not only excuſed, but applauded his impiety. Nero now gave a looſe to his appetites, that were not only baſe but inhuman. There ſeemed an odd contraſt in his diſpoſition; for, while he practiſed actions ſufficient to make the mind ſhudder with horror, he was fond of thoſe amuſing arts that ſoften and refine the heart. He was particularly addicted, even from childhood, to muſic, and not entirely ignorant of poetry. But chariot-driving was his favourite purſuit. He incloſed a ſpace in the valley of the Vatican, and exhibited his dexterity to the whole of his ſubjects. Their praiſes animated him ſtill more to theſe purſuits; ſo that he now reſolved to appear as a ſinger upon the ſtage. His firſt public appearance was at games of his own inſtitution, called *juvenales*; where he danced upon the ſtage, tuning his inſtrument to the voice. A group of tribunes and centurions attended behind him; when his old governor Burrhus ſtood by his hopeful pupil, with indignation in his countenance, and praiſes on his lips. He was deſirous alſo of becoming a poet: but he was unwilling to undergo the pain of ſtudy. Nor was he without his philoſophers alſo; he took a pleaſure in hearing their debates after ſupper. Furniſhed with ſuch talents as theſe, he was reſolved to make the tour of his empire, and give the moſt public diſplay of his abilities. The place of his firſt exhibition, upon leaving Rome, was Naples. The crowds there were ſo great, and the curioſity of the people ſo earneſt in hearing him, that they did not perceive an earthquake that happened while he was ſinging. His deſire of gaining the ſuperiority over the other actors was truly ridiculous. While he continued to perform, no man was permitted to depart from the theatre, upon any pretence whatſoever. Some were ſo fatigued with hearing him, that they leaped privately from the walls, or pretended to fall into fainting fits, in order to be carried out. *Veſpaſian*, afterwards emperor, happening to fall aſleep on one of theſe occaſions, very narrowly eſcaped with his life. After being fatigued with the praiſes of his countrymen, Nero reſolved upon going over into Greece, to receive new theatrical honours. There he exhibited in all the games, and obtained from the meanneſs of the Greeks, 1800 crowns. His entry into Rome on his return was attended with more ſplendour than a triumph. So many honours only inflamed his deſires of acquiring new; he at laſt began to take leſſons in wreſtling; willing to imitate Hercules in ſtrength, as he had rivalled Apollo in activity. He alſo cauſed a lion of paſteboard to be made with great art, againſt which he undauntedly appeared in the theatre, and ſtruck it down with a blow of his club. But his cruelties outdid all his other extravagancies, a complete liſt of which would exceed our limits. He often ſaid, that he had rather be hated than loved. When one ſaid in his preſence, That the world might be burned when he was dead: "Nay," replied Nero, "let it be burnt while I am alive." In fact, a great part of the city of Rome was burnt ſoon after. This remarkable conflagration took place in the 11th year of Nero's reign. Nero, who was then at Antium, did not return to the city, till he heard that the flames were advancing to his palace, which, after his arrival, was burnt down to the ground, with all the houſes adjoining to it. However, Nero, affecting compaſſion for the multitude, bereft of their dwellings, laid open the field of Mars, and all the great edifices erected there by Agrippa, and even his own gardens. He likewiſe cauſed tabernacles to be reared in haſte for the reception of the forlorn populace; from Oſtia, too, and the neighbouring cities, were brought, by his orders, all ſorts of furniture and neceſſaries, and the price of corn was conſiderably leſſened. But theſe bounties, however generous and popular, were beſtowed in vain, becauſe a report was ſpread abroad, that, during the time of this general conflagration, he mounted his domeſtic ſtage, and ſung the deſtruction of Troy, comparing the deſolation of Rome to that of Troy. At length on the ſixth day, the fury of the flames was ſtopped at the foot of mount Eſquiline, by levelling with the ground a vaſt number of buildings. But ſcarce had the alarm ceaſed, when the fire broke out anew with freſh

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rage, but in places more wide and ſpacious; whence fewer perſons were deſtroyed, but more temples and public portico's were overthrown. As this ad conflagration broke out in certain buildings belonging to Tigellinus, they were both aſcribed to Nero; and it was ſuppoſed, that, by deſtroying the old city, he aimed at the glory of building a new one, and calling it by his name. Of the 14 quarters into which Rome was divided, 4 remained entire, 3 were laid in aſhes, and, in the 7 others, remained here and there a few houſes, miſerably ſhattered, and half conſumed. Among the many ancient and ſtately edifices, which the rage of the flames utterly conſumed, Tacitus reckons the temple dedicated by Servius Tullius to the Moon; the temple and great altar conſecrated by Evander to Hercules; the chapel by Romulus to Jupiter Stator; the court of Numa, with the temple of Veſta, and in it the tutelar gods peculiar to the Romans. In the ſame fate were involved the ineſtimable treaſures acquired by ſo many victories, the wonderful works of the beſt painters and ſculptors of Greece, and what is ſtill more to be lamented, the ancient writings of celebrated authors, till then preſerved entire. The fire began the ſame day on which the Gauls formerly burnt it to the ground. Upon the ruins of the demoliſhed city, Nero founded a palace, which he called his *golden houſe*; though it was not ſo much admired on account of an immenſe profuſion of gold, precious ſtones, and other ineſtimable ornaments, as for its vaſt extent, containing ſpacious fields, large wilderneſſes, artificial lakes, thick woods, orchards, vineyards, hills, groves, &c. The ground that was not taken up by the foundations of Nero's own palace, he aſſigned for houſes, which were not placed, at random, and without order; but the ſtreets were laid out regularly, ſpacious and ſtraight; the edifices reſtrained to a certain height, of about 70 feet, the courts were widened; and to all the great houſes which ſtood by themſelves, and were called *iſles*, large porticoes were added, which Nero engaged to raiſe at his own expence, and to deliver to each proprietor the ſquares about them clear from all rubbiſh. Thus the city in a ſhort time roſe out of its aſhes with new luſtre, and more beautiful than ever. The emperor uſed every art to throw the odium of this conflagration upon the Chriſtians, who were at that time gaining ground in Rome. Nothing could be more dreadful than the perſecution raiſed againſt them upon this falſe accuſation, of which an account is given under the article HISTORY, *Part* II, *Sect.* III. Hitherto, however, the citizens of Rome ſeemed comparatively exempted from his cruelties, which chiefly fell upon ſtrangers and his neareſt connections; but a conſpiracy formed againſt him by Piſo, a man of great power and integrity, which was prematurely diſcovered, opened a new train of ſuſpicions that deſtroyed many of the principal families in Rome. Piſo, Lateranus, Fennius Rufus, Subrius Flavius, Sulpicius Aſper, Veſtinus the conſul, and numberleſs others, were all executed. But the two moſt remarkable perſonages who fell on this occaſion were Seneca the philoſopher, and Lucan the poet, his nephew. It is not known whether Seneca was really concerned or not.—He was ordered to put himſelf to death, which he did, by opening his veins in a warm bath. The was the whole city filled with ſlaughter, frightful inſtances of treachery. No matter ſecure from the vengeance of his ſlaves, nor parents from the baſer attempts of their chil Not only throughout Rome, but the whole try round, bodies of ſoldiers were ſeen in of the ſuſpected and the guilty. Whole of wretches loaded with chains were led eve to the gates of the palace, to wait their from the tyrant. He always preſided at t ture in perſon, attended by Tigellinus, cap the guard, who, being the moſt abandoned in Rome, was become his principal miniſt favourite. Nor were the Roman provinces better ſituation than the capital. The exam the tyrant influenced his governors, who gav ſtances of their rapacity and cruelty, in every of the empire. In the 7th year of his reign, t tons revolted, under the conduct of their Voadicea; (See ENGLAND, § 11.) but were ſo completely defeated, that ever after, dur continuance of the Romans among them, th not only all hope, but even all deſire of fre A war alſo was carried on againſt the Pa for the greateſt part of this reign, conduc Corbulo; who, after many ſucceſſes, had ſ ſeſſed Tiridates, and ſettled Tigranes in Ar in his room. Tiridates, however, was ſoo reſtored by an invaſion of the Parthians int country; but being once more oppoſed by bulo, the Romans and Parthians came to greement, that Tiridates ſhould continue t vern Armenia, upon condition that he ſhou down his crown at the feet of the emperor' tue, and receive it as coming from him; all t he performed. This ceremony Nero deſir have repeated to his perſon; wherefore he ed Tiridates to Rome, granting him the magnificent ſupplies for his journey. N tended his arrival with very ſumptuous pr tions. He received him ſeated on a thro companied by the ſenate ſtanding round hi the whole army drawn out with all imag ſplendor.—Tiridates aſcended the throne great reverence; and approaching the em fell down at his feet, and in the moſt abject acknowledged himſelf his ſlave. Nero raiſed up, telling him with equal arrogance, that he well, and that by his ſubmiſſion he had gai kingdom which his anceſtors could never ac by their arms. He then placed the crown o head, and, after the moſt coſtly ceremonies entertainments, he was ſent back to Arm with incredible ſums of money to defray the pences of his return. In the 12th year of N reign, the Jews revolted, having been ſo oppreſſed by the Roman governor. Florus arrived at that degree of tyranny, that by pr proclamation he gave permiſſion to plunder country, provided he received half the ſp Theſe oppreſſions drew ſuch a train of calam after them, that the ſufferings of all other nati were ſlight in compariſon to what this devo people afterwards endured, as is related und the article JEWS. In the mean time, Nero pr ceeded in his cruelties at Rome with unabated verity

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rity. The valiant Corbulo, who had gained so many victories over the Parthians, could not escape his fury. Nor did the empress Poppæa herself escape; whom, in a fit of anger, he kicked when she was pregnant, by which she miscarried and died. At last the Romans began to grow weary of such a monster, and there appeared a general revolution in all the provinces. The first appeared in Gaul, under Julius Vindex, who commanded the legions there, and publicly proclaimed against the tyrannical government of Nero. He appeared to have no other motive for this rebellion that of freeing the world from an oppressor; for when it was told him that Nero had set a reward upon his head of 10,000,000 of sesterces, he made this gallant answer, "Whoever brings me Nero's head, shall, if he pleases, have mine." But to show that he was not actuated by views of private ambition, he proclaimed Servius Galba emperor, and invited him to join in the revolt. Galba, who was then governor of Spain, was equally remarkable for his wisdom in peace, and his courage in war. But as all talents are corrupt princes are dangerous, he for some time lived in obscurity, avoiding all opportunities of signalizing his valour. He now therefore, either through the caution attending old age, or from a total want of ambition, appeared little inclined to join with Vindex. In the mean time, Nero, who had been apprised of the proceedings of him in Gaul, appeared totally regardless of the danger, flattering himself that the suppression of this revolt would give him an opportunity of fresh confiscations. But the revolt of Vindex, the news of which arrived soon after, affected him in a very different manner. The reflection of that general was such, that from the moment he declared against him, Nero considered himself as undone. He resolved to massacre the governors of provinces, to destroy all exiles, and to murder all the Gauls in Rome, as a punishment for the treachery of their countrymen. In short, in the wildness of his rage, he thought of poisoning the whole senate, of burning the city, and turning the lions kept for the games of the theatre, out upon the people. But his designs being impracticable, he resolved at once to face the danger in person. But his very preparations served to mark the infatuation of his mind. His principal care was, to provide waggons for the convenient carriage of his musical instruments; and to dress out his concubines like Amazons, with whom he intended to face the enemy. While Nero was thus frivolously employed, the revolt became general. Not only the cities in Spain and Gaul, but also the legions in Germany, Africa, and Lusitania, declared against him. Virginius Rufus alone, who commanded an army on the Upper Rhine, for a while continued in suspense; during which his forces, without his permission, falling upon the Gauls, routed them with great slaughter, and Vindex slew himself. But this ill success no way advanced the interests of Nero; he was so detested by the whole empire, that he could find none of the armies faithful to him. He therefore called for Locusta to furnish him with poison; and, thus prepared for the worst, he retired to the Servilian gardens, with a resolution of flying into Egypt. He accordingly dispatched the freedmen, in whom he had the most confidence, to prepare a fleet at Ostia; and in the meanwhile sounded, in person, the tribunes and centurions of the guard, to know if they were willing to share his fortunes. But they all excused themselves, under divers pretexts. Thus destitute of every resource, all the expedients that cowardice, revenge, or terror could produce, took place in his mind by turns. He at one time resolved to take refuge among the Parthians; at another, to deliver himself up to the mercy of the insurgents; one while, he determined to mount the rostrum, to ask pardon for what was past, and to conclude with promises of amendment for the future. With these gloomy deliberations he went to bed; but waking about midnight, he was surprised to find his guards had left him. The prætorian soldiers, in fact, having been corrupted by their commander, had retired to their camp, and proclaimed Galba emperor. Nero immediately sent for his friends to deliberate upon his present exigence; but his friends also forsook him. He went from house to house, but all the doors were shut against him, and none were found to answer his inquiries; his very domestics followed the general defection; and having plundered his apartment, escaped different ways. Being now reduced to desperation, he desired that one of his favourite gladiators might come and dispatch him; but even in this request there was none found to obey. "Alas! (cried he) have I neither friend nor enemy?" And then running desperately forth, he seemed resolved to plunge headlong into the Tiber. But just then his courage failing him, he made a sudden stop, as if willing to recollect his reason; and asked for some secret place, where he might re-assume his courage, and meet death with becoming fortitude. In this distress, Phaon, one of his freedmen, offered him his country house, about four miles distant, where he might for some time remain concealed. Nero accepted his offer; and arrived with difficulty in safety. During this interval, the senate finding the prætorian guards had taken part with Galba, declared him emperor, and condemned Nero to die *more majorum*; that is, to be stripped naked, his head fixed in a pillory, and in that posture to be scourged to death. Nero was so terrified on hearing this, that he set a dagger to his throat, with which, by the assistance of Epaphroditus, his freed man and secretary, he gave himself a mortal wound. He expired in the 32d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign. See NERO.

(47.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF GALBA. Galba was 72 years old when he was declared emperor, and was then in Spain with his legions. However, he soon found that his being raised to the throne was but an inlet to new disquietudes. His first embarrassment arose from a disorder in his own army; for upon his approaching the camp, one of the wings of horse repenting of their choice, prepared to revolt, and he found it no easy matter to reconcile them to their duty. He also narrowly escaped assassina-

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tion from ſome ſlaves, who were preſented to him by one of Nero's freedmen with that intent. The death of Vindex alſo ſerved to add to his diſquietudes. But hearing from Rome that Nero was dead, and the empire transferred to him, he immediately aſſumed the title and enſigns of command. In his journey towards Rome, he was met by Rufus Virginius, who, finding the ſenate had decreed him the government, came to yield him obedience. This general had more than once refuſed the empire himſelf, which was offered him by his ſoldiers; alleging, that the ſenate alone had the diſpoſal of it, and from them only he would accept the honour. Galba having been brought to the empire by his army, was at the ſame time willing to ſuppreſs their power to commit any future diſturbance. His firſt approach to Rome was attended with one of thoſe rigorous ſtrokes of juſtice which ought rather to be denominated *cruelty* than any thing elſe. A body of mariners, whom Nero had taken from the oar and enliſted among the legions, went to meet Galba, three miles from the city, and with loud importunities demanded a confirmation of what his predeceſſor had done in their favour. Galba, who was rigidly attached to the ancient diſcipline, deferred their requeſt to another time. But they, conſidering this delay as equivalent to an abſolute denial, inſiſted in a very diſreſpectful manner; and ſome of them even had recourſe to arms: whereupon Galba ordered a body of horſe attending him to ride in among them, and thus killed 7000 of them; and afterwards ordered them to be decimated. His next ſtep to curb the inſolence of the ſoldiers, was his diſcharging the German cohort, which had been eſtabliſhed by the former emperors as a guard to their perſons. Thoſe he ſent home to their own country unrewarded, pretending they were diſaffected to his perſon. He ſeemed to have two other objects alſo in view; namely, to puniſh thoſe vices which had come to an enormous height in the laſt reign, with the ſtricteſt ſeverity; and to repleniſh the exchequer, which had been quite drained by the prodigality of his predeceſſors. But theſe attempts only brought on him the imputation of ſeverity and avarice; for the ſtate was too much corrupted to admit of ſuch an immediate tranſition from vice to virtue. The people had long been maintained in ſloth and luxury by the prodigality of the former emperors, and could not think of being obliged to ſeek for new means of ſubſiſtence, and to retrench their ſuperfluities. They began, therefore, to ſatirize the old man, and turn the ſimplicity of his manners into ridicule. By ill judged frugalities, at ſuch a time, Galba began to loſe his popularity; and he, who before his acceſſion was eſteemed by all, when become emperor, was conſidered with contempt. Shortly after his coming to Rome, the people were preſented with a moſt grateful ſpectacle, which was that of Locuſta, Ælius, Policletus, Petronius, and Petinus, all bloody miniſters of Nero's cruelty, drawn in fetters through the city, and publicly executed. But Tigellinus, who had been more active than all the reſt, was not there. The crafty villain had taken care for his own ſafety, by the largeneſs of his bribes; and though the people cried out for vengeance againſt him at the theatre and at the circus, yet the emperor granted him his life and pardon. Helotus, the eunuch alſo, who had been the inſtrument of poiſoning Claudius, eſcaped, and owed his ſafety to a proper application of his wealth. Thus by the inequality of his conduct, he became deſpiſed. At one time ſhewing himſelf ſevere and frugal, another remiſs and prodigal; condemning the illuſtrious perſons without any hearing, and pardoning others though guilty: in ſhort, nothing was done but by the mediation of his favourites; all offices were venal, and all puniſhments redeemable by money. Affairs were in this unſettled poſture at Rome, when the provinces were yet in a worſe condition. The ſucceſs of the army in Spain in chooſing an emperor, induced the legions in the other parts to wiſh for a ſimilar opportunity. Many ſeditions were kindled, and inſurrections promoted in different parts of the empire, particularly in Germany. There were three in that province two Roman armies; the one of which lately attempted to make Rufus Virginius emperor, and was commanded by his lieutenant; the other commanded by Vitellius, who long had ambition to obtain the empire for himſelf. The former of theſe armies deſpiſing their preſent general, and conſidering themſelves as ſuſpected by the emperor for having been the laſt to acknowledge his title, reſolved now to be foremoſt in denying it. Accordingly, when they were commoned to take the oaths of homage and fidelity, they refuſed to acknowledge any other commander but thoſe of the ſenate. This refuſal they followed by a meſſage of the prætorian bands, declaring, that they were reſolved not to acquieſce in the election of an emperor created in Spain, but deſiring that the ſenate ſhould proceed to a new choice. Galba being informed of this commotion, was ſenſible, that, beſides his age, he was leſs reſpected for want of an heir. He reſolved therefore to put what he had formerly deſigned in execution, and to adopt ſome perſon whoſe virtues might deſerve ſuch advancement, and protect his declining age from danger. His friends underſtanding his determination, intreated him reſolved to give him an heir of their own chooſing; ſo that there aroſe a great contention among them upon this occaſion. Otho made warm application for himſelf; alleging the great ſervices he had done the emperor, as being the firſt perſon of note who came to his aſſiſtance when he first declared againſt Nero. However, Galba, being fully reſolved to conſult the public good alone, rejected his ſuit; and on a day appointed, ordered Piſo Lucinianus to attend him. The character given by hiſtorians of Piſo is, that he was every way worthy of the honour deſigned him. He was noway related to Galba; and had no other intereſt but merit to recommend him to his favour. Taking this youth therefore by the hand in the preſence of his friends, he adopted him to ſucceed in the empire, giving him the moſt wholeſome leſſons for guiding his future conduct. Piſo's conduct ſhowed that he was highly deſerving this diſtinction: and in all his deportment there appeared ſuch modeſty, firmneſs, and equality of mind, as beſpoke him rather capable of diſcharging

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changing, than ambitious of obtaining the imperial dignity. But the army and the ſenate did not ſeem equally diſintereſted upon this occaſion; they had been ſo long uſed to bribery and corruption, that they could now bear no emperor who was not in a capacity of ſatisfying their avarice. The adoption therefore of Piſo was but coldly received; for his virtues were no recommendation in a nation of univerſal depravity. Otho now finding his hopes of adoption wholly fruſtrated, and ſtill further ſtimulated by the immenſe load of debt which he had contracted by his riotous way of living, reſolved upon obtaining the empire by force, ſince he could not by peaceable ſucceſſion. In fact, his circumſtances were ſo very deſperate, that he was heard to ſay, that it was equal to him whether he fell by his enemies in the field, or by his creditors in the city. He therefore raiſed a moderate ſum of money by ſelling his intereſt to a perſon who wanted a place; and with this bribed two ſubaltern officers in the prætorian bands, ſupplying the deficiency of largeſſes by promiſes and plauſible hopes. Having thus, in leſs than 8 days corrupted the fidelity of the ſoldiers, he ſtole ſecretly from the emperor while he was ſacrificing; aſſembling the ſoldiers, in a ſhort ſpeech urged the cruelties and avarice of Galba. Finding his invectives received with univerſal ſhouts from whole army, he threw off the maſk, and declared his intentions of dethroning him. The ſoldiers, ripe for ſedition, immediately ſeconded his views: taking Otho upon their ſhoulders, inſtantly proclaimed him emperor; and, to ſtrike the citizens with terror, carried him with their ſwords drawn into the camp. Galba, in the mean time, being informed of the revolt of the army, ſeemed utterly confounded, and in want of reſolution to face an event which he ſhould have long foreſeen. In this manner the poor old man continued wavering and doubtful; till at length being deluded by a falſe report of Otho's being ſlain, he rode into the forum in complete armour, attended by many of his followers. Juſt at the ſame inſtant a body of horſe ſent from the camp to deſtroy him entered on the oppoſite ſide, with which party prepared for the encounter. For ſome time hoſtilities were ſuſpended on each ſide; Galba, confuſed and irreſolute, and his antagoniſts ſtruck with horror at the baſeneſs of their enterpriſe. At length, finding the emperor in his own meaſure deſerted by his adherents, they fell in upon him, trampling under foot the crowds of people that then filled the forum. Galba ſeeing them approach, ſeemed to recollect all his former fortitude; and bending his head forward, bid the aſſaſſins ſtrike it off if it were for the good of the people. This was quickly performed; and his head being ſet upon the point of a lance, was preſented to Otho, who ordered it to be contemptuouſly carried round the camp; while the body remaining expoſed in the ſtreets till it was buried by one of his ſlaves. He died in the 73d year of his age, after a ſhort reign of 7 months.

(48.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF OTHO. No ſooner was Galba thus murdered, than the ſenate and people ran in crowds to the camp, contending who ſhould be foremoſt in extolling the virtues of the new emperor, and depreſſing the character of him they had ſo unjuſtly deſtroyed. Each laboured to excel the reſt in his inſtances of homage; and the leſs his affections were for him, the more did he indulge all the vehemence of exaggerated praiſe. Otho finding himſelf ſurrounded by congratulating multitudes, immediately repaired to the ſenate, where he received the titles uſually given to the emperors; and from thence returned to the palace, ſeemingly reſolved to reform his life, and aſſume manners becoming the greatneſs of his ſtation. He began his reign by a ſignal inſtance of clemency, in pardoning Marius Celſus, who had been highly favoured by Galba; and not contented with barely forgiving, he advanced him to the higheſt honours; aſſerting, that "fidelity deſerved every reward." This act of clemency was followed by another of juſtice, equally agreeable to the people. Tigellinus, Nero's favourite, he who had been the promoter of all his cruelties, was now put to death; and all ſuch as had been unjuſtly baniſhed, or ſtripped, at his inſtigation, during Nero's reign, were reſtored to their country and fortunes. In the mean time, the legions in Lower Germany having been purchaſed by the large gifts and ſpecious promiſes of Vitellius their general, were at length induced to proclaim him emperor; and regardleſs of the ſenate, declared that they had an equal right to appoint to that high ſtation with the cohorts at Rome. The news of this conduct in the army ſoon ſpread conſternation throughout Rome; but Otho was particularly ſtruck with the account, as being apprehenſive that nothing but the blood of his countrymen could decide a conteſt of which his own ambition only was the cauſe. He now therefore ſought to come to an agreement with Vitellius; but this not ſucceeding, both ſides began their preparations for war. News being received that Vitellius was upon his march to Italy, Otho departed from Rome with a vaſt army to oppoſe him. But though he was very powerful with regard to numbers, his men, being little uſed to war, could not be relied on. He ſeemed by his behaviour ſenſible of the diſproportion of his forces; and he is ſaid to have been tortured with frightful dreams and the moſt uneaſy apprehenſions. It is alſo reported, that one night fetching many profound ſighs in his ſleep, his ſervants ran haſtily to his bed ſide, and found him ſtretched on the ground. He alleged he had ſeen the ghoſt of Galba, which had, in a threatening manner, beat and puſhed him from his bed; and he afterwards uſed many expiations to appeaſe it. However this be, he proceeded with a great ſhow of courage till he arrived at the city of Brixellum, on the Po, where he remained, ſending his forces before him under his generals Suetonius and Celſus, who made what haſte they could to give the enemy battle. The army of Vitellius, which conſiſted of 70,000 men, was commanded by his generals Valens and Cecina, he himſelf remaining in Gaul in order to bring up the reſt of his forces. Thus both ſides haſtened to meet each other with ſo much animoſity and precipitation, that three

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conſiderable battles were fought in three days. One near Placentia, another near Cremona, and a third at a place called *Caſtor*; in all which Otho had the advantage. But theſe ſucceſſes were but ſhort lived; for Valens and Cecina, who had hitherto acted ſeparately, joining their forces, and reinforcing their armies with freſh ſupplies, reſolved to come to a general engagement. Otho, who by this time had joined his army at a little village called *Bedriacum*, finding the enemy, notwithſtanding their late loſſes, inclined to come to a battle, reſolved to call a council of war to determine upon the proper meaſures to be taken. His generals were of opinion to protract the war; but others, whoſe inexperience had given them confidence, declared, that nothing but a battle could relieve the miſeries of the ſtate; proteſting, that Fortune, and all the gods, with the divinity of the emperor himſelf, favoured the deſign, and would undoubtedly proſper the enterpriſe. In this advice Otho acquieſced: he had been for ſome time ſo uneaſy under the war, that he ſeemed willing to exchange ſuſpenſe for danger. However, he was ſo ſurrounded with flatterers, that he was prohibited from being perſonally preſent in the engagement, but prevailed upon to reſerve himſelf for the fortune of the empire, and wait the event at Brixelium. The affairs of both armies being thus adjuſted, they came to an engagement at Bedriacum; where, in the beginning, thoſe on the ſide of Otho ſeemed to have the advantage. At length, the ſuperior diſcipline of the legions of Vitellius turned the ſcale of victory. Otho's army fled in great confuſion towards Bedriacum, being purſued with a miſerable ſlaughter all the way. In the mean time, Otho waited for the news of the battle with great impatience, and ſeemed to tax his meſſengers with delay. The firſt account of his defeat was brought him by a ſoldier, who had eſcaped from the field of battle. However, Otho, who was ſtill ſurrounded by flatterers, was deſired to give no credit to a baſe fugitive, who was guilty of falſehood only to cover his own cowardice. The ſoldier, however, ſtill perſiſted in the veracity of his report; and, finding none inclined to believe him, immediately fell upon his ſword, and expired at the emperor's feet. Otho was ſo much ſtruck with the death of this man, that he cried out, that he would cauſe the ruin of no more ſuch valiant and worthy ſoldiers, but would end the conteſt the ſhorteſt way; and therefore having exhorted his followers to ſubmit to Vitellius, he put an end to his own life.

(49.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF VITELLIUS. It was no ſooner known that Otho had killed himſelf, than all the ſoldiers repaired to Virginius, the commander of the German legions, earneſtly intreating him to take upon him the reins of government; or at leaſt, intreating his mediation with the generals of Vitellius in their favour. Upon his declining their requeſt, Rubrius Gallus, a perſon of conſiderable note, undertook their embaſſy to the generals of the conquering army; and ſoon after obtained a pardon for all the adherents of Otho. Vitellius was immediately after declared emperor by the ſenate; and received the marks of diſtinction which now followed the ſtrongeſt ſide. At the ſame time, Italy was ſeverely diſtreſſed by the ſoldiers, who committed ſuch outrages as exceeded all the oppreſſions of the moſt calamitous [illegible] Vitellius, who was yet in Gaul, reſolved, before he ſet out for Rome, to puniſh the prætorian cohorts, who had been the inſtruments of all the late diſturbances in the ſtate. He therefore ordered them to be diſarmed, and deprived of the name and honour of ſoldiers. He alſo ordered 150 of thoſe who were moſt guilty to be put to death. As he approached towards Rome, he paſſed through the towns with all imaginable ſplendor; his paſſage by water was in [illegible] galleys, adorned with garlands of flowers, and profuſely furniſhed with the greateſt delicacies. In his journey there was neither order nor diſcipline among his ſoldiers; they plundered every where they came with impunity; and he ſeemed in no way diſpleaſed with their licentiouſneſs. But on his arrival at Rome, he entered the city, [illegible] as a place he came to govern with juſtice, [illegible] a town that became his own by the laws of conqueſt. He marched through the ſtreets [illegible] on horſeback, all in armour; the ſenate and people going before him, as if captives of his victory. He the next day made the [illegible] ſpeech, in which he magnified his own [illegible] and promiſed them extraordinary advantages in his adminiſtration. He then harangued the people, who, being now long accuſtomed to [illegible] all in authority, highly applauded their new emperor. In the mean time, his ſoldiers being permitted to ſatiate themſelves in the debauches of the city, grew totally unfit for war. The principal affairs of the ſtate were managed by the loweſt wretches. Vitellius, more abandoned than they, gave himſelf up to all kinds of luxury and profuſeneſs: but gluttony was his favourite vice; ſo that he brought himſelf to a habit of vomiting in order to renew his meals at pleaſure. His entertainments, though ſeldom at his own coſt, were prodigiouſly expenſive; he frequently invited himſelf to the tables of his ſubjects, breakfaſting with one, dining with another, and ſupping with a third, all in the ſame day. In this manner Vitellius proceeded; ſo that Joſephus tells us, if he had reigned long, the whole empire would not have been ſufficient to have maintained his gluttony. Thoſe who had formerly been his associates were now deſtroyed without mercy, [illegible] ing to viſit one of them in a violent fever, mingled poiſon with his water, and delivered it to him with his own hands. He never paid [illegible] thoſe money-lenders who came to demand payment of his former debts. One of the [illegible] coming to ſalute him, he immediately ordered him to be carried off to execution; but [illegible] after, commanding him to be brought back, when all his attendants thought it was to [illegible] the unhappy creditor, Vitellius gave them [illegible] to underſtand that it was merely to have the pleaſure of feeding his eyes with his torments. Having condemned another to death, he ordered his two ſons with him, only for their preſence to intercede for their father. A Roman knight being dragged away to execution, and crying out that he had made the emperor his heir, Vitellius de-

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ſee the will, where finding himſelf joint heir
h another, he ordered both to be executed, that
night enjoy the legacy without a partner. By
diſuſing ſuch vices and cruelties as theſe he be-
ſe odious to all mankind, and the aſtrologers
groſticated his ruin. A writing was ſet up in
forum, in the name of the ancient Chaldeans,
g Vitellius warning to depart this life by the
ds of October. Vitellius received this in-
ation with terror, and ordered all the aſtro-
rs to be baniſhed from Rome. An old woman
foretold, that if he ſurvived his mother, he
ld reign many years in happineſs, this made
put her to death, by refuſing her ſuſtenance,
the pretence of its being prejudical to her
h. But he ſoon ſaw the futility of ſuch prog-
ications; for his ſoldiers, by their cruelty and
e, having become inſupportable to the inha-
ts of Rome, the legions of the Eaſt began to
t, and ſoon after reſolved to make Veſpaſian
ror. Veſpaſian, who was commander againſt
ews, had reduced moſt of their country, ex-
Jeruſalem, to ſubjection. The death of Ne-
d the ſucceſſion of Galba, gave a temporary
to his conqueſts as he was obliged to ſend
n Titus to Rome. Titus, however, being
d by contrary winds, received news of Gal-
ath before he ſailed. He then reſolved to
e neuter during the civil war between O-
d Vitellius; and when the latter prevailed,
e him his homage with reluctance. But
deſirous of acquiring reputation, he determi-
lay ſiege to Jeruſalem, when he was told
itellius was deteſted by all ranks in the em-
Theſe murmurings increaſed every day,
Veſpaſian endeavoured to advance the diſ-
s of the army, who began at length to fix
him as the perſon moſt capable to termi-
the miſeries of his country. Not only his
gions, but thoſe in Mœſia and Pannonia,
ed themſelves for Veſpaſian. He was alſo
med emperor at Alexandria, the army there
ning it with extraordinary applauſe. Still,
r, Veſpaſian declined the honour done him;
length his ſoldiers compelled him, with
s of immediate death. He now called a
il of war: where it was reſolved, that his
ns ſhould carry on the war againſt the Jews;
at Mutianus, one of his generals, ſhould,
great part of his legions, enter Italy; while
ſian ſhould levy forces in all parts of the eaſt,
inforce them in caſe of neceſſity. Mean time
ius reſolved to make an effort to defend the
e; and his chief commanders, Valens and
, were ordered to make all preparations to
the invaders. The firſt army that entered
was under Antonius Primus, who was met
ecina near Cremona, whom he prevailed u-
to change ſides, and declare for Veſpaſian.
rmy, however, quickly repented of what they
done; and impriſoning their general, attacked
nius, though without a leader. The engage-
t continued the whole night: in the morning,
r a ſhort repaſt, both armies engaged a ſecond
e; when the ſoldiers of Antonius ſaluting the
ng ſun, according to cuſtom, the Vitellians ſup-
ing that they had received new reinforcements,
took themſelves to flight, with the loſs of 30,000
men. Soon after, freeing their general Cecina from priſon, they prevailed upon him to intercede with the conquerors for pardon; which they obtained, though not without the moſt horrid barbarities committed in Cremona. When Vitellius was informed of the defeat of his army, his inſolence was converted into extreme timidity. At length he commanded Julius Priſcus and Alphenus Varus, with ſome forces that were in readineſs, to guard the paſſes of the Apennines, to prevent the enemy's march to Rome. But being perſuaded to repair to his army in perſon, his preſence only increaſed the contempt of his ſoldiers. After a ſhort continuance in the camp, and underſtanding the revolt of his fleet, he returned to Rome: but every day rendering his affairs more deſperate, he made offers to Veſpaſian of reſigning the empire. One Sabinus, who had adviſed Vitellius to reſign, perceiving his deſperate ſituation, reſolved, by a bold ſtep, to oblige Veſpaſian, and ſeized upon the Capitol. But he was premature in his attempt; for the ſoldiers of Vitellius attacked him with great fury, and prevailing by their numbers, ſoon laid that beautiful building in aſhes. During this dreadful conflagration, Vitellius was feaſting in the palace of Tiberius, and beholding all the horrors of the aſſault with great ſatisfaction. Sabinus was taken priſoner, and ſhortly after executed. Domitian, Veſpaſian's ſon, afterwards emperor, eſcaped by flight, in the habit of a prieſt; and all the reſt, who ſurvived the fire, were put to the ſword. But this ſucceſs ſerved little to improve the affairs of Vitellius. He vainly ſent meſſenger after meſſenger to bring Veſpaſian's general, Antonius, to a compoſition. This commander gave no anſwer to his requeſts, but ſtill continued his march towards Rome. Being arrived before the walls of the city, the forces of Vitellius were reſolved upon defending it to the utmoſt extremity. It was attacked on three ſides with the utmoſt fury; while the army within, ſallying upon the beſiegers, defended it with equal obſtinacy. The battle laſted a whole day, till at laſt the beſieged were driven into the city, and a dreadful ſlaughter made of them in all the ſtreets, which they vainly attempted to defend. In the mean time, the citizens ſtood by, looking on as both ſides fought; and, as if they had been in a theatre, clapped their hands; at one time encouraging one party, and again the other. As either turned their backs, the citizens would then fall upon them in their places of refuge, and ſo kill and plunder them without mercy. But what was ſtill more remarkable, during theſe dreadful ſlaughters both within and without the city, the people celebrated one of their riotous feaſts, called the *Saturnalia*; ſo that at one time might have been ſeen a ſtrange mixture of mirth and miſery, of cruelty and lewdneſs; in one place, buryings and ſlaughters; in another, drukenneſs and feaſting; in a word, all the horrors of a civil war, and all the licentiouſneſs of the moſt abandoned ſecurity! During this complicated ſcene of miſery, Vitellius retired to his wife's houſe, upon mount Aventine, deſigning to fly to the army commanded by his brother at Tarracina. But he changed his mind, and returned again to his palace. There, after wandering quite diſconſolate, he hid himſelf in an obſcure corner, whence

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whence he was ſoon taken by a party of ſoldiers. Still willing to add a few hours to his miſerable life, he begged to be kept in priſon till the arrival of Veſpaſian at Rome, pretending that he had ſecrets of importance to diſcover. But his intreaties were vain: the ſoldiers binding his hands behind him, and throwing an halter round his neck, led him along, half naked, into the public forum, upbraiding him as they proceeded, with all thoſe bitter reproaches their malice could ſuggeſt, or his own cruelties deſerve. They alſo tied his hair backwards, as was uſual with the moſt infamous malefactors, and held the point of a ſword under his chin, to prevent his hiding his face from the public. Some caſt dirt and filth upon him as he paſſed, others ſtruck him with their hands; ſome ridiculed the defects of his perſon, his red fiery face, and the enormous greatneſs of his belly. At length, being come to the place of puniſhment, they killed him, and dragging the dead body through the ſtreets with an hook, they threw it, with all poſſible ignominy, into the Tiber. Such was the miſerable end of this emperor, in the 57th year of his age, after a ſhort reign of eight months and five days.

(50.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF VESPASIAN. Vitellius being dead, the conquering army purſued their enemies throughout the city, where neither houſes nor temples afforded refuge to the fugitives. But not only the enemy ſuffered thus, but many of the citizens, who were obnoxious to the ſoldiers, were dragged from their houſes, and killed. They next began to ſeek for plunder; and left no place without marks of their rage or rapacity. The lower rabble joined in theſe deteſtable outrages; ſome ſlaves diſcovered the riches of their maſters; ſome were detected by their neareſt friends; the whole city was filled with outcry and lamentation; inſomuch, that the former ravages of Otho and Vitellius were now conſidered as ſlight evils in compariſon. At length, however, upon the arrival of Mutianus, general to Veſpaſian, theſe ſlaughters ceaſed, and the ſtate began to wear the appearance of former tranquillity. Veſpaſian was declared emperor by the unanimous conſent both of the ſenate and the army, and dignified with all the uſual titles. Meſſengers were diſpatched to him into Egypt, deſiring his return. But the winter being dangerous for ſailing, he deferred his voyage. The diſſenſions in other parts of the empire alſo retarded his return, for Claudius Civilis, in Lower Germany, excited his countrymen to revolt, and deſtroyed the Roman garriſons. But, to give his rebellion an air of juſtice, he cauſed his army to ſwear allegiance to Veſpaſian tho' he ſoon diſclaimed all ſubmiſſion to the Roman government; and having overcome one or two of the lieutenants, and being joined by ſuch Romans as refuſed obedience to the new emperor, he boldly advanced to give Cerealis, Veſpaſian's general, battle. But after ſome temporary ſucceſs, Cerealis not only routed the enemy, but took and deſtroyed their camp. This engagement, however, was not deciſive; ſeveral others enſued. An accommodation at length took place. Civilis obtained peace for his countrymen, and pardon for himſelf. During theſe commotions in Germany, the Sarmatians, a barbarous nation in the NE. of the em ſuddenly paſſed the Iſer, and marched into the man dominions with ſuch celerity and fury, deſtroy ſeveral garriſons, and an army under teius Agrippa. However, they were driven by Rubrius Gallus, Veſpaſian's lieutenant, their native foreſts; while ſeveral attempts made to confine them by garriſons and But theſe hardy nations, having once fou way into the empire, never after deſiſted f vading it till at length they deſtroyed it e Veſpaſian continued ſome months at Alex in Egypt. Before he ſet out for Rome, he his ſon Titus the command of the army th to beſiege Jeruſalem; while he went forwar was met many miles from Rome by all the and near half the inhabitants, who gave the eſt teſtimonies of their joy, in having an e of ſuch great and experienced virtues. N he in the leaſt diſappoint their expectations equally aſſiduous in rewarding merit, and p ing his adverſaries; in reforming the ma the citizens, and ſetting them the beſt ex his own. In the mean time, Titus ca the war againſt the Jews with vigour, wh ed in the total deſtruction of the city. (Se § 12, 13.) After this his ſoldiers would hav ed Titus as conqueror; but he refuſed the alleging that he was only an inſtrument hand of Heaven, that manifeſtly declared againſt the Jews. At Rome, however, all were filled with the praiſes of the co His return, therefore, in triumph, with hi was celebrated with all poſſible magnific joy. Among the rich ſpoils were diſplay quantities of gold taken out of the temple the book of their law. A triumphal arch rected on this occaſion, on which were de all the victories of Titus over the Jews, w mains almoſt entire to this day. Veſpaſi wiſe built a temple to Peace, wherein we ſited moſt of the Jewiſh ſpoils; and havi calmed all the commotions in the empire, the temple of Janus, which had been op 5 or 6 years. Veſpaſian having thus give ty and peace to the empire, reſolved to numberleſs abuſes which had grown up un predeceſſors. To effect this with greater joined Titus with him in the conſulſhip a bunitial power, and in ſome meaſure ad him a partner in all the higheſt offices of th He began with reſtraining the licentiouſneſs army, and forcing them back to their priſti cipline. He abridged the proceſſes that ha carried to an unreaſonable length in the co juſtice. He rebuilt ſuch parts of the city ſuffered in the late commotions; particular Capitol, which he reſtored to more than magnificence. He likewiſe built a famous phitheatre, the ruins of which are ſtill an ev of its ancient grandeur. The other ruinous of the empire alſo ſhared his paternal care; proved ſuch as were declining, adorned o and built many anew. In ſuch acts as the paſſed a long reign of clemency and moderat ſo that it is ſaid, no man ſuffered by an unj a ſevere decree during his adminiſtration. Sabinus ſeems to have been the only perſon

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as treated with greater rigour than usual by this emperor. Sabinus was commander of a small army in Gaul, and had declared himself emperor upon the death of Vitellius. However, his army was soon after overcome by Vespasian's general, and he himself compelled to fly. He for some time wandered through the Roman provinces, but finding the pursuit every day become closer, he was obliged to hide himself in a cave; in which he remained concealed for no less than 9 years, attended all the time by his faithful wife Empona, who purchased provisions for him by day, and repaired to him in the night. She was at last discovered in the performance of this pious office, and Sabinus was carried to Rome. Great intercession was made to the emperor in his behalf: Empona herself appearing with her two children, imploring her husband's pardon. But Sabinus had been too dangerous a rival, and so was executed. But this is said to be the only instance in which he resented private offences. He caused the daughter of Vitellius, his avowed enemy, to be married into a private family, and he himself provided her a suitable fortune. One of Nero's servants coming to ask pardon for having once rudely thrust him out of the palace, and insulted him when in office, Titus took his revenge by serving him just in the same manner. When any conspiracies were formed against him, he disdained to punish them, saying, That they deserved rather his contempt for their ignorance, than his resentment; and seemed to envy him a dignity of which he himself experienced the uneasiness. His liberality to the encouragement of arts and learning, was less than his clemency. He settled a constant salary of 100,000 sesterces upon the teachers of rhetoric. He was particularly favourable to Josephus, the Jewish historian. Quintilian the rhetor, and Pliny the naturalist, flourished in his reign, and were highly esteemed by him. He was less an encourager of all other excellencies in men, and invited the greatest masters and artificers from all parts of the world, making them considerable presents. Yet all his numerous acts of liberality and magnificence could not preserve his character from the imputation of rapacity and avarice. He revived many obsolete methods of taxation, and even bought and sold commodities himself, to increase his fortune. He is charged with advancing the most avaricious governors to the provinces, to share their plunder on their return to Rome. He descended to some very distressable impositions, even to the laying a tax upon urine. When his son Titus remonstrated against the meanness of such a tax, Vespasian taking a piece of money, demanded if the smell offended him; and then added, that this very money was produced by urine. But in excuse for the state of the exchequer, when Vespasian came to the throne, was so much exhausted, that he informed the senate, that it would require a supply of 60,000 (of our money) to re-establish the commonwealth. But while the provinces were thus obliged to contribute to the support of his power, he took every precaution to provide for their safety; so that we find but two insurrections in his reign.—In the 4th year of his reign, Antiochus king of Comagena, holding a private correspondence with the Parthians, the declared enemies of Rome, was taken prisoner in Cilicia, by Pyrrhus the governor, and sent bound to Rome. But Vespasian generously gave him residence at Lacedæmon, and allowed him a revenue suitable to his dignity. About the same time the Alani, a barbarous people inhabiting alone the river Tanais, abandoned their barren wilds, and invaded the kingdom of Media. From thence passing into Armenia, after great ravages, they overthrew king Tiridates, with prodigious slaughter. Titus was sent to chastise their insolence; but the barbarians retired at the approach of the Roman army, loaded with plunder. These incursions, however, were but a transient storm, the effects of which were soon repaired by the emperor's moderation and assiduity. He now formed and established a thousand nations, which had scarcely before amounted to 200. He had during his whole reign, a particular regard to Britain; his generals, Petilius Cerealis, and Julius Frontinus, brought the greatest part of the island into subjection; and Agricola, who succeeded soon after, completed what they had begun. See ENGLAND, § 11. In this manner, having reigned 10 years, loved by his subjects, and deserving their affection, he was surprised by an indisposition at Campania, which he at once declared would be fatal, crying out, in the spirit of Paganism, "Methinks I am going to be a god." Removing from thence to the city, and afterwards to a country seat near Reate, he was there taken with a flux, which brought him to the last extremity. However, perceiving his end approach, and just going to expire, he cried out, that an emperor ought to die standing; wherefore raising himself upon his feet, he expired in the hands of those that sustained him.

(51.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF TITUS VESPASIAN. Titus, being joyfully received as emperor, began his reign with every virtue that became an emperor and a man. During the life of his father there had been many imputations against him; but upon his exaltation to the throne he seemed entirely to take leave of his former vices, and became an example of the greatest moderation and humanity. He had long loved Berenice, sister to Agrippa king of Judea, a woman of the greatest beauty and allurements. But knowing that the connection with her was disagreeable to the people of Rome, he sent her away, notwithstanding their mutual passion and the many arts she used to induce him to change his resolution. He next discarded all those who had been the former ministers of his pleasures, and forbore to countenance the companions of his looser recreations, though he had formerly taken great pains in the selection. This moderation, added to his justice and generosity, procured him the love of all good men, and the appellation of the *delight of mankind*, which all his actions seemed calculated to ensure. As he came to the throne with all the advantages of his father's popularity, he was resolved to use every method to increase it. He therefore took particular care to punish all informers, false witnesses, and promoters of dissension, condemning them to be scourged in public, dragged through the theatre, and banished to the uninhabited parts of the empire, and sold as slaves.

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ſlaves. His courteſy and readineſs to do good have been celebrated even by Chriſtian writers; his principal rule being, never to ſend any petitioner diſſatisfied away. One night, recollecting that he had done nothing beneficial to mankind the day preceding, he ſaid, "my friends, to-day I have loſt a day." In this reign, an eruption of mount Veſuvius did conſiderable damage, overwhelming many towns, and ſending its aſhes into countries more than 100 miles diſtant. Upon this memorable occaſion, Pliny the naturaliſt loſt his life; for, being impelled by too eager a curioſity to obſerve the eruption, he was ſuffocated in the flames. There happened alſo about this time a fire at Rome, which continued 3 days and nights ſucceſſively, which was followed by a plague, in which 10,000 men were buried in a day. The emperor, however, did all that lay in his power to repair the damage ſuſtained by the public; and, with reſpect to the city, declared that he would take the whole loſs of it upon himſelf. Theſe diſaſters were in ſome meaſure counterbalanced by the ſucceſſes in Britain, under Agricola. This excellent general having been ſent into that country towards the end of Veſpaſian's reign, ſhowed himſelf equally expert in quelling the refractory, and civilizing thoſe who had formerly ſubmitted to the Roman power. The Ordovices, or inhabitants of N. Wales, were the firſt that were ſubdued. He then made a deſcent upon Mona, or the iſland of Angleſea; which ſurrendered at diſcretion. Having thus rendered himſelf maſter of the whole country, he took every method to reſtore diſcipline to his army, and to introduce ſome politeneſs among thoſe whom he had conquered. He exhorted them, both by advice and example, to build temples, theatres, and ſtately houſes. He cauſed the ſons of their nobility to be inſtructed in the liberal arts; he had them taught the Latin language, and induced them to imitate the Roman modes of dreſſing and living. Thus, by degrees, this barbarous people began to aſſume the luxurious manners of their conquerors, and in time even outdid them in all the refinements of ſenſual pleaſure. For the ſucceſs in Britain, Titus was ſaluted emperor the 15th time; but he did not long ſurvive his honours, being ſeized with a violent fever at a little diſtance frome Rome. Perceiving his death approach, he declared, that during the whole courſe of his life he knew but of one action which he repented of; but that action he did not think proper to expreſs. Shortly after, he died (not without ſuſpicion of treachery from his brother Domitian, who had long wiſhed to govern) in the 41ſt year of his age, having reigned 2 years, 2 months and 20 days.

(52.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF DOMITIAN. The love which all ranks of people bore to Titus, facilitated the election of his brother Domitian, notwithſtanding the ill opinion many had already conceived of him. His ambition was already but too well known, and his pride ſoon appeared upon his coming to the throne; having declared, that he had given the empire to his father and brother, and now received it again as his due. The beginning of his reign was univerſally acceptable to the people, as he appeared remarkable for clemency, liberality, and juſtice. He carried his abhorrence of cruelty ſo far, once to forbide the ſacrificing of oxen. His liberality was ſuch, that he would not accept of legacies that were left him by ſuch as had chil His juſtice was ſuch, that he would ſit days and reverſe the partial ſentences of the nary judges. He was very liberal in repair libraries which had been burnt, and rec copies of ſuch books as had been loſt, ſend purpoſe to Alexandria to tranſcribe them. ſoon began to ſhow the natural deformity mind. No emperor before him entertai people with ſuch various and expenſive During theſe diverſions he diſtributed re ſitting as preſident himſelf, adorned with a rope and crown, with the prieſts of Jupi the college of Flavian prieſts about him. meanneſs of his occupations in ſolitude juſt contraſt to his exhibitions in public. ally ſpent his hours of retirement in catchi and ſticking them through with a bodki vices ſeemed every day to increaſe with th tion of his reign. His ungrateful treatme gricola, ſeemed the firſt ſymptom of his natu levolence. Domitian was always particula of obtaining a military reputation, and t jealous of it in others. He had marche time before into Gaul, upon a pretended tion againſt the Catti, a people of Germa without ever ſeeing the enemy, reſolved the honour of a triumph upon his return For that purpoſe he purchaſed a number whom he dreſſed in German habits; a head of this miſerable proceſſion entered amidſt the apparent acclamations and contempt of all his ſubjects. The ſucceſſ fore, of AGRICOLA in Britain affected an extreme degree of envy. This admi neral routed the Caledonians; overcame cus, the Britiſh chief, at the head of 30, and afterwards ſending out a fleet to coaſt, firſt diſcovered Great Britain to be (See SCOTLAND.) He likewiſe diſcovered dued the Orkneys, and thus reduced t into a civilized province of the Roman When the account of theſe ſucceſſes was to Domitian, he received it with a ſeem ſure, but real uneaſineſs. He thought A riſing reputation a reproach upon his o tivity; and, inſtead of attempting to em reſolved to ſuppreſs the merit of his ſervic ordered him, therefore, the external mar approbation, and took care that triump naments, ſtatues, and other honours, ſh decreed him; but at the ſame time he him from his command, under a pretence pointing him to the government of Syria. cola ſurrendered up his government to Lucullus, but ſoon found that Syria wa wiſe diſpoſed of. Upon his return to which was privately and by night, he w received by the emperor; and dying ſo after in retirement, it was ſuppoſed that was haſtened by Domitian's direction. D ſoon after found the want of ſo experi commander in the many irruptions of the rous nations that ſurrounded the empire. Sarmatians in Europe, joined with thoſe

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made a formidable invasion; at once destroying a whole legion, and a general of the Romans. The Dacians, under Decebalus their king, made an irruption, and overthrew the Romans in several engagements, so that every season became memorable for some remarkable overthrow. At last after making a vigorous exertion of its interior power, the barbarians were repelled, partly by force and partly by money, which enabled them to make invasions afterwards to greater advantage. But Domitian was resolved not to lose the honour of a triumph, and not contented with having triumphing twice without a victory, he took the name of *Germanicus*, for his conquest over a people with whom he never contended. In proportion as he merited ridicule, his pride every day demanded greater homage. He would permit his statues to be made only of gold and silver; assumed to himself divine honours; and ordered that men should treat him with the same appellations which they gave to the divinity. His cruelties not behind his arrogance; he caused numbers of illustrious senators and others to be put to death upon the most trifling pretences. Salustius Lucullus, his lieutenant in Britain, was destroyed for having given his own name to a new sort of lances of his own invention. Junius Rusticus for publishing a book, in which he commended Thrasea and Priscus, two philosophers who had foretold Vespasian's coming to the throne. Such actions as these naturally produced rebellion. Saturnius Antonius, governor in Upper Germany, assumed the ensigns of imperial dignity. As he was at the head of a formidable army, his success was for long doubtful; but a sudden overflowing of the Rhine dividing his army, he was set upon at that juncture by Normandus, the emperor's lieutenant, and totally routed. Domitian's severity was greatly increased by this success. To discover those who were accomplices with the adverse party he invented new tortures. During these years, he never pronounced sentence without a countenance full of gentleness and mercy. He was particularly terrible to the senate, the whole body of whom he frequently threatened entirely to destroy. At one time, he surrounded the senate-house with his troops, to the great consternation of the senators. At another, he resolved to entertain himself with their terrors in a different manner. Having invited them to a public entertainment, he received them all very formally at the entrance of his palace, and conducted them into a spacious hall, hung round with black, and illuminated by a few melancholy lamps, that diffused light only sufficient to show the horrors of the place. All around were to be seen nothing but tombs, with the names of each of the senators written upon them, together with other objects of terror, and instruments of execution. While the company beheld all the preparations of silent agony, several men, having their bodies painted black, each with a drawn sword in one hand and a flaming torch in the other, entered the room and danced round them. After some time, when the guests expected nothing less than instant death, the doors were set open, and a servant informed them, that the emperor gave all the company leave to withdraw. These cruelties were rendered still more odious by his lust and avarice. Frequently after presiding at an execution, he would retire with the lewdest prostitutes, and use the same baths. His avarice, the consequence of his profusion, knew no bounds. He seized upon the estates of all against whom he could find the smallest pretensions. He particularly exacted large sums from the rich Jews. He was excited against them, not only by avarice, but by jealousy. A prophecy had been long current in the east, that a person of the line of David should rule the world. Whereupon, this suspicious tyrant commanded all the Jews of the lineage of David to be diligently sought out, and put to death. Two Christians, of that line, grandsons of St Jude the apostle, were brought before him; but finding them poor, and no way ambitious, he dismissed them, considering them as too mean for his jealousy. Yet his persecution of the Christians was more severe than even that of Nero. By his letters and edicts they were banished and put to death with tortures. The predictions of astrologers also, concerning his death, kept him in the most tormenting disquietude. Every omen and prodigy gave him fresh anxiety. But a period was soon put to this monster's cruelty. Among those whom he at once caressed and suspected, was his wife Domitia, whom he had taken from Ælius Lama, her former husband. This woman, however, was become obnoxious to him, for having placed her affections upon one Paris, a player; and he resolved to dispatch her, with several others. It was his custom to put down the names of all such as he intended to destroy in his tablets. Domitia, fortunately happening to get a sight of them, was struck at finding her own name in the catalogue of those fated to destruction. She showed the fatal list to Norbanus and Petronius, præfects of the prætorian bands, who were also set down; as well as to Stephanus, the comptroller of the household, who joined in the conspiracy, along with Parthenius the chief chamberlain. These, after many consultations, fixed on the 18th of September for their attempt. Domitian, was apprehensive of that day, and was now more particularly upon his guard. He had some time before secluded himself in the most secret recesses of his palace; and at midnight was so affrighted as to leap out of his bed, inquiring of his attendants what hour of the night it was. Upon their falsely assuring him that it was an hour later than that which he was taught to apprehend, quite transported, as if all danger was past, he prepared to go to the bath. Just then, Parthenius his chamberlain came to inform him that Stephanus desired to speak to him upon an affair of importance. The emperor having ordered his attendants to retire, Stephanus entered with his left hand in a scarf, which he had worn thus for some days, to conceal a dagger. He began by giving information of a pretended conspiracy, and exhibited a paper in which the particulars were specified. While Domitian was reading the contents with eager curiosity, Stephanus drew his dagger, and struck him in the groin. Domitian caught hold of the assassin, and threw him upon the ground, calling out for assistance. He demanded also his sword, but a boy running to fetch it, found only the scabbard, for Parthe-

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nius had removed the blade. The ſtruggle with Stephanus continued: Domitian ſtill kept him under, and at one time attempted to wreſt the dagger from his hand, at another to tear out his eyes. But Parthenius, with his freed man, a gladiator, and two ſubaltern officers, coming in, ran at furiouſly upon the emperor, and diſpatched him. In the mean time, ſome of the officers of the guard being alarmed, came to his aſſiſtance, but too late; however, they ſlew Stephanus on the ſpot.

(53.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF NERVA. When it was publicly known that Domitian was ſlain, the joy of the ſenate was ſo great, that being aſſembled with the utmoſt haſte, they began to load his memory with every reproach. His ſtatues were commanded to be taken down; and a decree was made, that all his inſcriptions ſhould be eraſed, his name ſtruck out of the regiſters of fame, and his funeral omitted. The people looked on his death with indifference; the ſoldiers alone, whom he had enriched by largeſſes, regretted his death. The ſenate, therefore, reſolved to provide a ſucceſſor before the army could have an opportunity of appointing one; and Cocceius Nerva was choſen the very day on which the tyrant was ſlain. Nerva was of an illuſtrious family, by birth a Spaniard, and above 65 years old when called to the throne. He was, at that time, the moſt remarkable man in Rome, for his virtues, moderation, and reſpect to the laws; and he owed his exaltation to the blameleſs conduct of his former life. When the ſenate went to pay him their ſubmiſſions, he received them with his accuſtomed humility; while Arius Antonius, his moſt intimate friend, congratulated him on his acceſſion to the empire: and indeed no emperor had ever ſhown himſelf more worthy of the throne than Nerva; his only fault being that he was too indulgent to his inſidious courtiers. However, an exceſs of indulgence and humanity were faults that Rome could eaſily pardon, after ſuch a tyrant as Domitian. Being long accuſtomed to tyranny, they regarded Nerva's gentle reign with rapture. Upon coming to the throne, he ſolemnly ſwore that no ſenator of Rome ſhould be put to death by his command, during his reign. He conferred great favours upon his particular friends. His liberality was ſo extenſive, that, upon his promotion to the empire, he was conſtrained to ſell his gold and ſilver plate, with other rich moveables, to enable him to continue his liberalities. He releaſed the cities of the empire from many ſevere impoſitions, which had been laid upon them by Veſpaſian; took off a rigorous tribute upon carriages; and reſtored thoſe to their property who had been unjuſtly diſpoſſeſſed by Domitian. During his ſhort reign he made ſeveral good laws. He prohibited the caſtration of male children; which had been condemned by his predeceſſor, but not wholly removed. He put all thoſe ſlaves to death who had during the laſt reign, informed againſt their maſters. He permitted no ſtatues to be erected to honour him, and converted into money ſuch of Domitian's as had been ſpared by the ſenate. He ſold many rich robes, and much of the ſplendid furniture of the palace, and retrenched ſeveral unreaſonable expences at court. Yet he had ſo little regard for money, that when Herodes Atticus had found a large treaſure, and wrote to him how to diſpoſe of it, he received for anſwer, that he might *uſe it*, but the finder ſtill informing the emperor that it was a fortune too large for a private perſon, Nerva, admiring his honeſty, wrote him that then he might *abuſe it*. A life of ſuch generoſity and mildneſs was not, however, without enemies. Calpurnius Craſſus, with ſome others formed a dangerous conſpiracy to deſtroy him; but Nerva would uſe no ſeverity; he reſted ſatisfied with baniſhing thoſe who were culpable, while the ſenate were for inflicting more rigorous puniſhments. But the moſt dangerous inſurrection againſt his intereſts was from the prætorian band, who, headed by Caſparius Olianus, inſiſted upon revenging the late emperor's death. Nerva, whoſe kindneſs to good men rendered him ſtill more obnoxious to the vicious, did all in his power to ſtop the progreſs of this inſurrection; he preſented himſelf to the mutinous ſoldiers, and, opening his boſom, deſired them to ſtrike there, rather than be guilty of ſo much injuſtice. The ſoldiers however, paid no regard to his remonſtrance, but, ſeizing upon Petronius and Parthenius, ſlew them in the moſt ignominious manner; and then compelled the emperor to approve of their ſedition, and to make a ſpeech to the people; in which he thanked the cohorts for their fidelity. So diſagreeable a conſtraint upon the emperor's inclination was, in the end, attended with one good effect, as it cauſed the adoption of Trajan. Nerva perceived that in the turbulent diſpoſition of the times he ſtood in need of an aſſiſtant in the empire, who might contribute to keep the licentious in awe. For this purpoſe, ſetting aſide all his own relations, he fixed upon Ulpius Trajan, an utter ſtranger, who was then governor in Upper Germany, to ſucceed him. He then ſent off ambaſſadors to Cologne, where Trajan reſided, intreating his aſſiſtance in puniſhing thoſe from whom he had received ſuch an inſult. The adoption of this admirable man, proved ſo great a curb to the ſeditiouſneſs of the ſoldiery, that they continued in perfect obedience during the reſt of this reign; and Caſparius being ſent to him, was either baniſhed or put to death. The adopting Trajan was the laſt public act of Nerva. In about two months after, having put himſelf in a violent paſſion with one Regulus a ſenator, he was ſeized with a fever, of which he ſoon after died, after a ſhort reign of one year 4 months and 9 days. He was the firſt foreign emperor who reigned in Rome, and juſtly reputed a prince of great generoſity and moderation. He is alſo celebrated for his wiſdom, one great inſtance of which he gave in the choice of his ſucceſſor.

(54.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF TRAJAN. Trajan's family was originally from Italy, but he himſelf was born in Seville in Spain. He very early accompanied his father, who was general of the Romans, in his expeditions along the Euphrates and the Rhine; and while yet very young, acquired conſiderable reputation for military accompliſhments. He enured his body to fatigue; he made long marches on foot; and labored to acquire all that ſkill in war which was

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ſſary for a commander. When he was made neral of the army in Lower Germany, which is one of the moſt conſiderable employments in e empire, it made no alteration in his way of ing; and the commander no-way differed from private tribune, except in his ſuperior wiſdom d virtues. The great qualities of his mind were mpanied with all the advantages of perſon. body was majeſtic and vigorous; he was at middle period of life which is happily tem- d with the warmth of youth and the caution e, being 42 years old. To theſe qualities added, a modeſty that ſeemed peculiar to Upon the whole, Trajan is diſtinguiſhed as greateſt and the beſt emperor of Rome. O- s might have equalled him in war, and ſome t have been his rivals in clemency and good- ; but he ſeems the only prince who united e talents in the greateſt perfection, and who ars equally to engage our admiration and re- Upon being informed of the death of Nerva, repared to return to Rome, whither he was d by the united intreaties of the ſtate. He his march with a diſcipline that was long own in the armies of the empire. The coun- through which he paſſed were neither ravaged ned; and he entered the city, not in a triumphant manner, though he had deſerved it often, on foot, attended by the civil officers of the and followed by his ſoldiers in ſilence. It is unneceſſary to enter into a detail of this monarch's merits. His application to buſi- his moderation to his enemies, his modeſty ſtation, his liberality to the deſerving, and ngality in his own expences; have all been ubject of panegyric among his contempora- and continue to be the admiration of ages. giving the prefect of the pretorian band the according to cuſtom, he made uſe of this kable expreſſion, "Take this ſword, and uſe I have merit, for me; if otherwiſe, againſt After which he added, That he who gave was the firſt who was bound to obſerve them. ilings were his love of women, which, how- ever hurried him beyond the bounds of de- and his paſſion for war, to which he had ed up from his childhood. The firſt war engaged in after his coming to the throne with the Dacians, who, during the reign of ian, had committed numberleſs ravages u- the provinces. He raiſed a powerful army, marched rapidly into thoſe barbarous coun- where he was vigorouſly oppoſed by Dece- s, the Dacian king, who long withſtood his eſt efforts; but was at laſt entirely reduced, his kingdom made a Roman province. See ta. At his return to Rome, he entered the in triumph; and the rejoicings for his victo- laſted 120 days. Having thus given peace proſperity to the empire, Trajan continued gn, loved, honoured, and almoſt adored, by ſubjects. He adorned the city with public dings; he freed it from ſuch men as lived by r vices; he entertained perſons of merit with utmoſt familiarity; and ſo little feared his e- mies, that he could ſcarcely believe he had any. had been happy for this great prince's memory, if he had ſhown equal clemency to all his ſubjects; but, about the 9th year of his reign, he was perſuaded to look upon the Chriſtians with a ſuſpicious eye. The veneration which he profeſſed for the Pagan religion, led him to oppoſe every innovation, and the progreſs of Chriſtianity alarmed him. A law had been paſſed, in which all *Heteriæ*, or ſocieties diſſenting from the eſtabliſhed religion, were conſidered as illegal, and as nurſeries of ſedition. Under this law, the Chriſtians were perſecuted in all parts of the empire. Great numbers of them were put to death, as well by popular tumults as by edicts and judicial proceedings. But Trajan receiving advice from Pliny, the proconſul in Bithynia, of the innocence and ſimplicity of the Chriſtians, and of their inoffenſive and moral way of living, he ſuſpended their puniſhments. But a total ſtop was put to them upon Tiberianus the governor of Paleſtine's ſending him word, That he was wearied out with executing the laws againſt the Galileans, who crouded to execution in ſuch multitudes, that he was at a loſs how to proceed. Upon this information, the emperor gave orders, that the Chriſtians ſhould not be ſought after; but if any offered themſelves, that they ſhould ſuffer. Thus the rage of perſecution ceaſed, and the emperor turned the force of his arms againſt the Armenians and Parthians, who began to throw off all ſubmiſſion to Rome. While he was employed in theſe wars, there was a dreadful inſurrection of the Jews in all parts of the empire. This wretched people, ever expecting ſome ſignal deliverer, took the advantage of Trajan's abſence to maſſacre all the Greeks and Romans whom they got into their power. This rebellion began in Cyrene, a Roman province in Africa; thence extended to Egypt, and next to the iſland of Cyprus. Theſe places they in a manner diſpeopled. Their barbarities were ſuch, that they eat the fleſh of their enemies, wore their ſkins, ſawed them aſunder, caſt them to wild beaſts, made them kill each other, and ſtudied new torments to deſtroy them. But, theſe cruelties were ſoon reverſed: the governors of the reſpective provinces making head againſt their tumultuous fury, treated them with a retaliation of cruelty, and put them to death, not as human beings, but as wild beaſts. As the Jews had practiſed their cruelties in Cyprus particularly, a law was enacted, by which it was made criminal for any Jew to ſet foot on the iſland. During theſe bloody tranſactions, Trajan was proſecuting his ſucceſſes in the eaſt. His firſt march was into Armenia, the king of which country had diſclaimed all alliance with Rome, and received the enſigns of royalty and dominion from the monarch of Parthia. However, upon the news of Trajan's expedition, he abandoned his country to the invaders; while the moſt of his governors and nobility came ſubmiſſively to the emperor, acknowledging themſelves his ſubjects, and making him the moſt coſtly preſents. Having thus taken poſſeſſion of the country, and gotten the king into his power, he marched into the dominions of the king of Parthia. There entering the opulent kingdom of Meſopotamia, he reduced it into the form of a Roman province. Thence he

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great against the Parthians, marching on foot at the head of his army; crossing the rivers, and conforming to all the severities of discipline imposed on the meanest soldier. His successes against the Parthians were great and numerous. He conquered Syria and Chaldea, and took the famous city of Babylon. Here, attempting to cross the Euphrates, he was opposed by the enemy, who were resolved to stop his passage: but he secretly caused boats to be made upon the adjoining mountains; and bringing them to the water side, passed his army with great expedition, not, however, without great slaughter on both sides. From thence he traversed tracts of country which had never before been invaded by a Roman army, and pursued the same march which Alexander the Great had formerly traced. Having passed the Tigris, he advanced to the city Ctesiphon, which he took, and opened a passage into Persia, where he made many conquests. After subduing all the country on the Tigris, he marched S. to the Persian gulph, where he subdued a monarch who possessed a considerable island made by the divided streams of that river. Here, winter coming on, he was in danger of losing the greatest part of his army by the inclemency of the climate and the inundations of the river. He therefore, with indefatigable pains, fitted out a fleet, and sailing down the Persian gulph, entered the Indian ocean, conquering, even to the Indies, and subduing a part of them to the Roman empire. He was prevented from pursuing further conquests, by the revolt of many of the provinces he had already subdued, and by the scarcity of provisions. Increasing age also contributed to damp the ardour of his enterprise. Returning, therefore, along the Persian gulph, and sending the senate an account of all the nations he had conquered, the names of which alone composed a long catalogue, he prepared to punish those countries which had revolted. He began by laying the famous city of Edessa, in Mesopotamia, in ashes; and soon not only retook such places as had thrown off subjection, but conquered many other provinces, so as to make himself master of the most fertile kingdoms of all Asia. In this train of successes he scarce met with a repulse, except before the city Atra, in the deserts of Arabia. Wherefore he resolved to give a master to the countries he had subdued. With this resolution he repaired to the city Ctesiphon, in Persia: and there, with great ceremony, crowned PARTHASPATES king of Parthia, to the great joy of all his subjects. (See PARTHIA, § 10.) He established another king also over Albania, near the Caspian sea. Then placing governors and lieutenants in other provinces, he resolved to return to his capital in a more magnificent manner than any of his predecessors had done. He accordingly left Adrian general of all his forces in the east; and continued his journey towards Rome, where the most magnificent preparations were made for his arrival. However, he had not got farther than the province of Cilicia, when he found himself too weak to proceed in his usual manner. He therefore caused himself to be carried on ship board to the city of Selencia, where he died of the apoplexy. During his indisposition, his wife Plotina constantly attended him; and knowing his dislike to Adrian, forged the will, by which he succeeded. Trajan died in the 63d year of his age, after a reign of 19 years, 6 months, and 15 days. How highly he was esteemed by his subjects appears by their manner of blessing his successors, wishing them the fortune of Augustus and the goodness of Trajan. His military virtues, however, produced no real advantages to his country; and all his conquests disappeared, when the power was withdrawn that enforced them.

(55.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNDER ADRIAN. Adrian was by descent a Spaniard, and his ancestors were of the same city where Trajan was born. He was nephew to Trajan, and married to Sabina his grand-niece. When Trajan was adopted by Nerva, Adrian was a tribune of the army in Mysia, and was sent by the troops to congratulate the emperor on his advancement. His brother-in-law, who desired to congratulate Trajan himself, supplied Adrian with a carriage that broke down on the way. But Adrian was resolved to lose no time, and performed the rest of the journey on foot. This assiduity was very pleasing to the emperor; but he disliked Adrian for other reasons. He was expensive, involved in debt; inconstant, capricious, and envious. These faults, in Trajan's opinion, could not be compensated either by his learning or his talents. His great skill in the Greek and Latin languages, his intimate acquaintance with the laws of his country, and the philosophy of the times, were no inducements to Trajan, who, being bred a soldier, wished a military man to succeed him, and therefore would not appoint a successor. His death, therefore, was concealed for some time by Plotina his widow, till Adrian had sounded the inclinations of the army, and found them firm in his interests. They then produced a forged instrument, importing that Adrian was adopted to succeed in the empire. By this artifice he was elected by all orders of the state, though then general at Antioch. Adrian's first care was to write the senate, excusing himself for assuming the empire without their previous approbation; imputing it to the hasty zeal of the army. He then began to pursue a course quite opposite to that of Trajan, declining war, and promoting the arts of peace. He was satisfied with preserving the limits of the empire, and by no way ambitious of extensive conquest. He therefore abandoned all the conquests which Trajan had made, judging them to be no advantage to the empire; and made the Euphrates its boundary, placing the legions along its banks to prevent the incursions of the enemy. Having thus settled the affairs of the east, and leaving Severus governor of Syria, he took his journey by land to Rome, sending the ashes of Trajan thither by sea. Upon his approach to the city, he was informed of a magnificent triumph that was preparing for him; but this he modestly declined, desiring that the honours might be paid to Trajan's memory which they had designed for him. In consequence of this, a most superb triumph was decreed, in which Trajan's statue was carried as a principal figure in the procession, who thus was *the only man that ever triumphed after he was dead!* His ashes were placed in a golden urn, upon the top of a column 140 feet high. On this were engraven the par-

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ars of all his exploits in baſſo relievo; a work immenſe labour, and which is ſtill remain-. Theſe teſtimonies of reſpect to the memory his predeceſſor did great honour to the heart of jan. His virtues, however, were contraſted a ſtrange mixture of vices. He wanted ſtrength mind to preſerve his general rectitude of cha-ter. As an emperor, however, his conduct was admirable, as all his public tranſactions ap-dicated by the ſoundeſt policy, and the moſt ereſted wiſdom. See ADRIAN.

ROME, HISTORY OF, UNDER ANTONINUS AND ANTONINUS PHILOSOPHUS. Adrian ceeded by Marcus Antoninus, afterwards ed the *Pious*, whom he had adopted ſome before his death. See ANTONINUS PIUS. the beginning of his reign, we may date the e of the Roman empire. From the time of to that of Trajan, ſcarce any of the empe-had either abilities or inclination to extend ts of the empire, or even to defend it a-the barbarous nations who ſurrounded it. all this ſpace, only ſome inconſiderable es to the N. of Italy, and part of the iſland ain, had been ſubjugated. However, as othing was loſt; but the degeneracy and ion of the people had ſown thoſe ſeeds of ion which the empire quickly began to he diſorders were grown to ſuch an height, n Trajan himſelf could not cure them. In-eaſtern conqueſts could ſcarce have been d, though the republic had been exiſting in ory. Dacia, being nearer to the centre rument, was more eaſily preſerved; and d long ſubject to Rome. During the 23 of the reign of Antoninus, few remarkable happened. Hiſtorians are exceſſive in their of his juſtice, generoſity, and other virtues, ublic and private. He put a ſtop to the tion of the Chriſtians, and reduced the s, a tribe of Britons, who had revolted. r, during his reign, ſeveral calamities be-empire. The Tiber, overflowing its banks, lower part of Rome under water. The ion was followed by a fire, and this by a which ſwept off great numbers, though eror took the utmoſt care to ſupply the m the moſt diſtant provinces. At the time the cities of Narbonne in Gaul, and ch in Syria, with the great ſquare in Car-were deſtroyed by fire; however, the em-ſoon reſtored them. He died in the year much lamented by his ſubjects, and was ſuc-d by Marcus Aurelius, ſurnamed the *Philo-*, whom he had adopted towards the latter of his reign. For the tranſactions of this em-ſee ANTONINUS PHILOSOPHUS. Nerva, n, Adrian, and the Antonines, are ſtiled by ans, *the five good emperors*.

ROME, HISTORY OF, UNDER COMMODUS. the death of Marcus Aurelius, his ſon Com-ſucceeded to the imperial throne without ition. He was in every reſpect unworthy his father; and ſo prone to vice, that he was really believed to have been the ſon, not of us Aurelius, but of a celebrated gladiator, whom the empreſs Fauſtina was ſaid to be mate. According to Mr Gibbon, however, "Commodus was not, as has been repreſented, a tiger born with an inſatiate thirſt of human blood, and capable from his infancy of the moſt inhuman actions. Nature had formed him of a weak, rather than a wicked diſpoſition. His ſimplicity and timidity rendered him the ſlave of his attendants, who gradually corrupted his mind. His cruelty, which at firſt obeyed the dictates of others, degenerated into habit, and at length became the ruling paſſion of his ſoul." But it is certain that the actions of this emperor were flagitious almoſt beyond a parallel. Many ſtrange inſtances of his cruelty are related by the ancients. He is ſaid to have cut aſunder a corpulent man whom he ſaw walking along the ſtreet; partly, to try his own ſtrength, in which he excelled; and partly out of curioſity, to ſee his entrails drop out at once. He took pleaſure in cutting off one of the feet, and putting out one of the eyes, of ſuch as he met in his rambles through the city; telling the former, after he had thus maimed them, that now they belonged to the nation of *Monopodii*, one-footed; and the latter, that they were now become *Luſcinii*, one-eyed. Some he murdered becauſe they were negligently dreſſed; others, becauſe they ſeemed to be trimmed with too much nicety. He pretended to great ſkill in ſurgery, eſpecially at letting blood: but ſometimes, inſtead of curing thoſe whom he viſited, or who were prevailed upon to recur to him, he cut off, by way of diverſion, their ears and noſes. His lewdneſs and debaucheries were equally remarkable, and infamous. He is ſaid to have been exceedingly well ſkilled in archery, and to have performed incredible feats in that art. He excelled all men in ſtrength; and is ſaid to have run an elephant through with his ſpear, and to have killed in the amphitheatre 100 lions, one after another, and each of them at one blow. He entered the liſts with the common gladiators, and came off conqueror 735 times; whence he ſubſcribed himſelf, *the conqueror of* 1000 *gladiators*. The public tranſactions of this reign were few. Commodus concluded a peace with the Marcommanni, Quadi, &c. on the following conditions. 1. That they ſhould not ſettle within five miles of the Danube. 2. That they ſhould deliver up their arms, and ſupply the Romans with troops when required. 3. That they ſhould aſſemble but once a-month, in one place only, and that in preſence of a Roman centurion. 4. That they ſhould not make war upon the Jazyges, Buri, or Vandals, without the conſent of the people of Rome. On the other hand, Commodus promiſed to abandon all the caſtles and fortreſſes held by the Romans in their country, excepting ſuch as were within 5 miles of the Danube. With the other German nations, whom his father had reduced, he concluded a very diſhonourable peace; nay, of ſome he purchaſed it with money. Soon after his return to Rome, his ſiſter Lucilla, perceiving that he was univerſally abhorred for his cruelty, formed a conſpiracy againſt his life. Among the conſpirators were many ſenators. It was agreed that they ſhould fall upon the emperor while he was going to the amphitheatre through a narrow and dark paſſage; and that Claudius Pompeianus, to whom Lucilla had betrothed

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trothed her daughter, ſhould give the firſt blow. But he, inſtead of ſtriking at once, ſhowed him the naked dagger, and cried out, "This preſent the ſenate ſends you:" ſo that the guards had time to reſcue the emperor, and to ſeize the conſpirators, who were ſoon after put to death. He baniſhed his ſiſter to the iſland of Capreæ, where he ſoon after cauſed her to be murdered. The favourite miniſter of Commodus was one Perennis; who in cruelty ſeems to have been nothing inferior to thoſe of the moſt tyrannical emperors. During the firſt part of the reign of Commodus, he ruled with an abſolute ſway; but at laſt was torn in pieces by the enraged ſoldiery, whom he had offended by his ſeverity. He was ſucceeded by a freed man named *Cleander*; for the emperor was much taken up with his pleaſures. The new miniſter abuſed his power more flagrantly than even his predeceſſor. All things were openly ſet to ſale; offices, provinces, public revenues, juſtice, and the lives of men both innocent and guilty. The miniſter, who ruled the emperor without controul, infuſed ſuch terrors into his mind, that he changed the captains of his guards almoſt continually. One Niger enjoyed the dignity only ſix hours; another only five days; and others a ſtill ſhorter ſpace. Moſt of thoſe officers loſt their lives with their employments; being accuſed of treaſon by Cleander, who continually ſolicited, and at laſt obtained, that important poſt for himſelf. In the year 187 happened a remarkable revolt. One Maternus, a common ſoldier, having fled from his colours, and being joined by many other deſerters, grew in a ſhort time ſo powerful, that he over-ran and plundered great part of Gaul and Spain; ſtormed the ſtrongeſt cities; and ſtruck the emperor and people of Rome with ſuch terror, that troops were raiſed, and armies diſpatched againſt him. Peſcennius Niger was ſent againſt him in Gaul, where he became very intimate with Severus, then governor of Lyons, who wrote a letter to the emperor, commending the prudent and gallant behaviour of Niger in purſuing the rebels. Maternus, being reduced to great ſtraits, divided his men into ſeveral ſmall bands, and marched them by different roads into Italy; with intent to murder the emperor during the feſtival of Cybele; and to ſeize upon the empire. They all arrived at Rome undiſcovered; and ſeveral of his men had already mixed with the emperor's guards, when others of his own party betrayed him. He was immediately ſeized and executed; and his death put an end to the diſturbances which ſome of his followers had begun to raiſe in other provinces. In the ſame year broke out the moſt dreadful plague, ſays Dio Caſſius, that had been known. It laſted two or three years; and raged with the greateſt violence at Rome, where it often carried off 2000 perſons a-day. The following year a dreadful fire, which conſumed a great part of the city, was kindled by lightning; and a dreadful famine followed, occaſioned, it was ſaid, by Cleander, who, having now in view nothing leſs than the ſovereignty itſelf, bought up underhand all the corn, to raiſe the price of it, and gain the affections of the ſoldiery and people by diſtributing it among them. Others ſay, that Papirius Dionyſius, whoſe duty it was to ſupply the city with proviſions, contributed towards the famine to make the people riſe againſt Cleander. The populace aſcribed all their calamities to this hated miniſter; and one day, while they were celebrating the Circaſſian games, a troop of children, having at their head a young woman of an extraordinary ſtature and fierce aſpect, entering the circus, began to utter many bitter invectives and dreadful curſes againſt Cleander; which being anſwered by the people in the ſame ſtyle, they roſe, and flew to the place where Cleander ſided with the emperor, demanding his head. Upon Cleander ordered the prætorian cavalry charge the multitude; which they did, diſperſing them with great ſlaughter into the city. But the populace diſcharging ſhowers of ſtones, bricks, &c. from the tops of houſes and windows, and the city-guards at the ſame time taking part with the people, the prætorian horſe were put to flight; nor was the ſlaughter ended till the emperor conſented the head of Cleander to be ſtruck off, and thrown out to the enraged populace. The emperor himſelf did not long ſurvive Cleander, being cut off by a conſpiracy of Marcia his favourite concubine, Lætus captain of the guards, and Eclectus his chamberlain.

(58.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNDER HELVIUS PERTINAX. No ſooner was the death of Commodus known, than the ſenate aſſembled, and declared him a public enemy, loading his memory with curſes, ordering his ſtatues to be broken to pieces, and his name to be raſed out of all public inſcriptions; and demanded his body, that it might be dragged through the ſtreets, and thrown into the Tiber. But Helvius Pertinax, whom the conſpirators had previouſly deſigned for the emperor, and who had already aſſumed it, prevented the outrage, by telling the ſenators, that Commodus was already buried. This extraordinary perſon's age had paſſed through many changes of fortune. He was the ſon of an enfranchiſed ſlave, called Helvius, who gave him as much learning as to qualify him for a ſhopkeeper. He then became a ſchool-maſter, afterwards ſtudied the law, and at laſt became a ſoldier; in which ſtation his bravery raiſed him to be captain of a cohort againſt the Parthians. After this he went through the whole gradation of military preferment in Britain, Mœſia, until he became the commander of a legion under Aurelius. In this ſtation he performed ſuch ſervices againſt the barbarians, that he was made conſul, and ſucceſſively governor of Dacia, Syria, and Aſia Minor. In the reign of Commodus he was baniſhed; but ſoon after recalled, and ſent into Britain to reform the diſcipline in the army. In this employment, he was expoſed by a ſedition among the legions, and left for dead among many that were ſlain. How he got over this danger, ſeverely puniſhed the mutineers, and eſtabliſhed diſcipline among the troops he was ſent to command. Thence he was removed into Africa, where the ſedition of the ſoldiers had like to have been again fatal to him. Removing from Africa, and fatigued with an active life, he betook himſelf to retirement: but Commodus made him prefect of the city; which office he poſſeſſed, when the conſpirators fixed upon him to be emperor. His being advan-

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Commodus only made him dread falling as an
ject of his ſuſpicions. When therefore the con-
irators repaired to his houſe by night, he confi-
ed them as meſſengers of death. Upon Læ-
entering his apartment, Pertinax ſaid, That
had long expected to end his life in that man-
and wondered that the emperor had defer-
it ſo long. But he was agreeably ſurpriſed
informed of the real cauſe of their viſit; and
urged to accept of the empire, he complied
their offer. Being carried to the camp, Per-
was proclaimed emperor: ſoon after the
s and ſenate conſented; the joy for the é-
of a new ſovereign not being ſuperior to that
death of the old. The provinces follow-
example of Rome; ſo that he began his
with univerſal ſatisfaction, in the 68th year
age. Nothing could exceed the wiſdom
fice of this monarch's reign. He puniſhed
ſe who had ſerved to corrupt the late em-
and diſpoſed of his ill-got poſſeſſions to
uſes. He attempted to reſtrain the licen-
s of the prætorian bands, and put a ſtop
injuries and inſolences they committed a-
the people. He ſold moſt of the buffoons
ers of Commodus ſlaves; particularly ſuch
obſcene names. He frequented the ſenate
as it ſat, and never refuſed an audience
the meaneſt of the people. His ſucceſs in
affairs was equal to his internal policy.
the barbarous nations abroad had certain
ace that he was emperor, they immedi-
d down their arms, well knowing what
re to expect from ſo experienced a com-
. His great fault was avarice; and that
d his ruin. The prætorian guards, whoſe
s he had attempted to reform, having been
rrupted by the profuſion of their former
chs, began to hate him for the parſimony
ſcipline he had introduced among them.
herefore reſolved to dethrone him; and for
rpoſe declared Maternus, an ancient ſena-
peror. Maternus, however, was too juſt
erits of Pertinax, to concur in their ſe-
deſigns; wherefore he fled out of the ci-
y then nominated Falco, another ſena-
om the ſenate would have ordered for
n, had not Pertinax interpoſed. The præ-
oldiers then reſolved to ſeize upon the em-
and empire at once. They accordingly, in
ſtuous manner, marched through the ſtreets
me, and entered the palace without oppo-
The greateſt part of the emperor's at-
nts forſook him; while thoſe who remained
ly intreated him to fly to the body of the
e. However, he rejected their advice; de-
g, that it was unworthy of his imperial dig-
and all his paſt actions, to ſave himſelf by
. Having thus reſolved to face the rebels, he
ſome hopes that his preſence only would awe
. But what could his virtues or dignity, a-
ainſt a tumultuous rabble, nurſed up in
and the miniſters of former tyranny? Not
the emperor, but Eclectus, and ſome of his
dants, who attempted to defend him, were
, (ſee PERTINAX,) his ſon and daughter e-
ed, happening to be lodged out of the pa-
. Thus, after an excellent reign of three
months, Pertinax fell a ſacrifice to the licentious
fury of the prætorian army. From his adven-
tures, he was called the *tennis-ball of Fortune*;
and certainly no man ever experienced a greater
variety of ſituations, with ſo blameleſs a charac-
ter. The ſoldiers having committed this outrage,
retired with great precipitation; and getting out
of the city, quickly fortified their camp, expect-
ing to be attacked by the citizens. Two days
having paſſed without any attempt of this kind,
they became more inſolent; and to make uſe of
the power they poſſeſſed, made proclamation,
that they would *ſell* the empire to any who would
purchaſe it at the higheſt price. In conſequence
of this proclamation, ſo infamous and unjuſt, on-
ly two bidders were found, viz. Sulpicianus and
Didius Julianus: The former præfect of the city,
and ſon-in-law to Pertinax; the latter, a great
lawyer, and the wealthieſt man in the city; both
conſular perſons. Didius was ſitting with ſome
friends at dinner when the proclamation was pub-
liſhed; and being charmed with the proſpect of un-
bounded power, immediately roſe from the table
and haſtened to the camp. Sulpicianus was there
before him; but as he had more promiſes than
treaſure to beſtow, the offers of Didius, who
produced immenſe ſums of ready money, pre-
vailed.

(59.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNDER JULIAN I.
Didius Julianus was received into the camp by a
ladder, and they inſtantly ſwore to obey him as
emperor. From the camp he was attended by
his electors into the city; the whole body of his
guards, which conſiſted of 10,000 men, ranged
around him in ſuch order as if they had prepared
for battle. The citizens, however, refuſed to con-
firm his election; and curſed him as he paſſed.
Upon being conducted to the ſenate houſe, he ad-
dreſſed the few ſenators that were preſent in a
very laconic ſpeech: "Fathers, you want an em-
peror; and I am the fitteſt perſon you can chooſe."
Even this was unneceſſary, as the ſenate durſt not
refuſe their approbation. His ſpeech being back-
ed by the army, to whom he had given about a
million of our money, ſucceeded. The choice of
the ſoldiers was confirmed by the ſenate, and Di-
dius was acknowledged emperor, in the 57th year
of his age. It ſhould ſeem by this weak mo-
narch's conduct when ſeated on the throne, that
he thought the government of an empire rather a
pleaſure than a toil. He gave himſelf up to eaſe
and inactivity, utterly regardleſs of the duties of
his ſtation. He was mild and gentle indeed; nei-
ther injuring any nor expecting to be injured.
But that avarice, by which he became opulent,
ſtill followed him in his exaltation; ſo that the
very ſoldiers who elected him, began to deteſt
him for thoſe qualities, ſo very oppoſite to a mi-
litary character. The people alſo, againſt whoſe
conſent he was choſen, were no leſs inimical.
Whenever he iſſued from his palace, they poured
forth their imprecations againſt him; crying out,
that he was *a thief*, and had *ſtolen* the empire. Di-
dius, however, patiently bore it all. While Ju-
lian was thus contemptuouſly treated at home,
two valiant generals, in different parts of the em-
pire, diſclaimed his authority, and reſolved to
ſeize the throne. Theſe were, Peſcennius Niger,

governor

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governor of Syria; and Septimius Severus, commander of the German legion. Niger was beloved by the people for his clemency and valour; and his proposing Pertinax for his model, and resolving to revenge his death, gained him universal esteem. He easily induced his army in Syria to proclaim him emperor; and his title was, soon after, acknowledged by all the kings and potentates in Asia, who sent their ambassadors to him. The pleasure of being thus treated as a monarch, retarded his endeavours to secure his title. Satisfied with the homage of those about him, he neglected the opportunity of suppressing his rivals; and gave himself up to luxury and feasting at Antioch. The conduct of Severus, an African by birth, was very different. Being proclaimed by his army, he began by promising to revenge the death of Pertinax, and took upon him his name. He next secured all the strong places in his province; and then resolved to march with his whole force directly to Rome. In the mean time Didius Julianus, who disregarded the attempts of Niger, was greatly alarmed at those of Severus. He first procured the senate to proclaim him a traitor. He then attempted to make the necessary provisions to oppose him, but found nothing but disappointment. The cohorts that elected him were enervated by vice and luxury; the people detested his cause; and the cities of Italy had long been disused to the arts of war. The unfortunate Didius, unequal to the task of empire, and confounded with the multiplicity of counsels, could take no other resolution but that of awaiting his rival's coming at Rome. Accordingly, soon after being informed of his approach, he obtained the consent of the senate to send his ambassadors, offering to make him a partner of the empire. But Severus rejected this offer, conscious of his own strength, and of the weakness of the proposer. The senate soon appeared of the same sentiments; alleging, that he who could not defend the empire was not worthy to govern it. Didius vainly endeavoured to reduce them to their duty, first by intreaties, and then by threats; but these served only to hasten his destruction. The senate being called together, as was formerly practised, by the consuls, they unanimously decreed, That Severus should be proclaimed. They then commanded Didius to be slain; and sent assassins to the palace, where they found him disarmed, and weeping among a few friends that still adhered to his interest. When they began to prepare for their fatal errand, he expostulated with them, demanding what crime he had committed? The executioners, neither able nor willing to enter into the merits of the cause; led him into the secret baths of the palace, and obliging him to stretch his neck forwards, struck off his head, and placed it up in those courts where he had formerly pleaded with great success.

(60.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNDER SEVERUS. The senate then sent ambassadors to Severus, yielding him obedience; granting him the ensigns and the usual titles of empire, and informing him of the death of Didius. Severus, who was now about 47 years of age, received them with all proper respect; and entertaining them honourably, continued his march towards Rome. As he c near the city, his first exertion of power, w have all the prætorian soldiers who had sold empire come forth unarmed to meet him. T though sensible of their danger, had no other source but compliance; and accordingly c forward with branches of laurel, to welcom approach. Severus soon showed how little able their submission was to atone for the offences: after upbraiding them with their c he commanded them to be stripped of the tary habits, deprived of the honour of s and banished 100 miles from Rome. He t tered the city in a military manner, took p sion of the palace, and promised the senate t duct himself with clemency and justice. though he united great vigour with the m fined policy, his African cunning was not re He is celebrated for wit, learning, and prud but blamed for infidelity and cruelty. He s equally disposed to the greatest acts of virtu the most bloody severities. He seized a children of such as had employments or rity in the east, and detained them as p for their fathers loyalty. He next suppl city with corn; and then with all possible dition marched against Niger, who was fi sidered as emperor of the east. One ch stacle to his march was, the leaving behi Clodius Albinus, commander of the legi Britain, whom he wished to secure in his i For this end, he gave him hopes of succ to the empire; insinuating, that he himse declining, and his children were but infant wrote in the same style to the senate, ga the title of *Cæsar*, and ordered money to b ed with his image. These artifices serving Albinus into false security, Severus marc gainst Niger with all his forces. After se decisive conflicts, the last great battle fou tween these extraordinary men was on plains of Issus, on the very spot where Al had formerly conquered Darius. The neig ing mountains were covered with vast of people, who wished to be spectators of gagement that was to determine the em the world. Severus was conqueror; and h head, being struck off, was insultingly c through the camp on the point of a lance. victory secured Severus in the throne. B Parthians, Persians, and some neighbour tions, took up arms, under pretence of vin ing Niger's cause. The emperor marched them in person, had many engagements them, and obtained such signal victories over as enlarged the empire, and established pe the east. Severus now turned his views a Albinus, whom he resolved to destroy. Fo purpose he sent assassins into Britain, under tence of bringing him letters, but in reality t patch him. Albinus, apprised of their de recurred to open force, and proclaimed hi emperor. Nor was he without a powerfu my to support his pretensions; of which Se being sensible, bent his whole force to op him. From the east he continued his cou cross the straits of Byzantium, into the mos tern parts of Europe, without intermission.

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...n went over to meet him with his forces into ...ul; the campaign on both ſides was carried ...with great vigour. Fortune ſeemed variable; ...t laſt a deciſive engagement was fought, one ...e moſt deſperate recorded in the Roman hiſ...y. It laſted from morning till night, without ...ſeeming advantage on either ſide; at length ...troups of Severus began to fly, and he him...ſappearing to fall from his horſe, the army of ...n cried out, *Victory*. But the engagement ...renewed with vigour by Lætus, one of Se...'s commanders, who came up with a body ...ſerve, deſigning to deſtroy both parties and ...himſelf emperor. This attempt turned out ...y to the advantage of Severus. He charged ...ch fury and exactneſs, that he ſoon obtain...victory; and purſuing them into the city of ..., took Albinus priſoner, and cut off his ...treating his dead body with inſults that ...only flow from a mean and revengeful tem...All the ſenators who were ſlain in battle he ...d to be quartered, and ſuch as were taken ...ere immediately executed. Having thus ...d himſelf in the empire, upon his return to ...he loaded his ſoldiers with rewards and ho...; giving them ſuch privileges as ſtrengthen...own power, while they deſtroyed that of ...ic. For the ſoldiers, who had hitherto ...d the ſtrongeſt inclination to an abuſe of ...were now made arbiters of the fate of em...Being thus ſecure of his army, he re...to give way to his natural turn for con...and to oppoſe his arms againſt the Par...who were then invading the frontiers. Ha...reſore previouſly given the government ...ſtic policy to one Plautianus, a favourite, ...r daughter he married his ſon Caracalla, he ...for the eaſt, and proſecuted the war with ...al expedition and ſucceſs. He forced ſub...from the king of Armenia, deſtroyed ſe...ties in Arabia Felix, landed on the Par...ſts, took and plundered the famous city ..., marched back through Paleſtine and ...and at length returned to Rome in tri...During this interval Plautianus, who was ...ſted the affairs of Rome, began to think ...g to the empire himſelf. Upon the em...eturn, he employed a tribune of the prætorians to aſſaſſinate him and his ſon Ca... The tribune informed Severus of his fa...'s treachery. He at firſt received it as an ...dable ſtory, and as the artifice of ſome who ...d his favourite. But he was at laſt per...d to permit the tribune to conduct Plauti...to the emperor's apartments. The tribune ...and amuſed him with a pretended account ...ſtuling the emperor and his ſon, deſiring ...if he wiſhed to ſee them dead, to come with ...to the palace. As Plautianus ardently de...their deaths, he gave credit to this relation; ...llowing the tribune, he was conducted at ...ght into the innermoſt receſſes of the pa... But what muſt have been his diſappoint...when, inſtead of finding the emperor mur...d, as he expected, he beheld the room lighted ...ith torches, and Severus, ſurrounded by ...ends, prepared in array to receive him. Be...ing aſked by the emperor, with a ſtern countenance, what had brought him there at that unſeaſonable time? he was utterly confounded, and not knowing what excuſe to make, confeſſed the whole, intreating forgiveneſs. The emperor ſeemed inclined to pardon him, but Caracalla ſpurned him away in the midſt of his ſupplications, and with his ſword ran him through the body. After this Severus ſpent a conſiderable time in viſiting ſome cities in Italy, permitting none of his officers to ſell places of truſt or dignity, and diſtributing juſtice with the ſtricteſt impartiality. He took ſuch an exact order in managing his exchequer, that, notwithſtanding his great expences, he left more money behind him than any of his predeceſſors. His armies alſo were kept upon the moſt reſpectable footing; ſo that he feared no invaſion. Being equally attentive to the preſervation of all parts of the empire, he reſolved to make his laſt expedition into BRITAIN, where the Romans were in danger of being deſtroyed. Wherefore, after appointing his ſons Caracalla and Geta, joint ſucceſſors in the empire, and taking them with him, he landed in Britain, to the great terror of ſuch as had incurred his reſentment. Upon his progreſs into the country, he left Geta in the S. part of the province, which had continued in obedience, and marched with Caracalla againſt the CALEDONIANS. In this expedition, his army ſuffered prodigious hardſhips in purſuing the enemy; they were obliged to hew their way through intricate foreſts, to drain extenſive marſhes and form bridges over rapid rivers: ſo that he loſt 50,000 men by fatigue and ſickneſs. However, he ſupported all theſe inconveniences with the greateſt bravery; and proſecuted his ſucceſſes with ſuch vigour, that he compelled the enemy to ſue for peace, which, it is ſaid, they obtained upon the ſurrender of a conſiderable part of their country. We muſt here obſerve, however, that the *Picts* and *Caledonians* are ſo often confounded together by hiſtorians, that many miſtakes have thence ariſen, concerning the progreſs and conqueſts of the Romans in the north of Britain. But from the boundary formed by the famous wall of Severus, (ſee SEVERUS's WALL,) we muſt conclude, that no part of Caledonia, properly ſo called, had been either on this or any other occaſion ceded to him; and there is reaſon to believe, that he rather received checks from the people of that territory, than was ever able to make any conſiderable impreſſion upon them. Be this as it may, after having made peace, and built this wall, he retired to York; where partly through age and fatigue, partly through grief at the vices of Caracalla, he found himſelf faſt declining, having already loſt the uſe of his feet. To add to his diſtreſs, he was told that the ſoldiers had revolted, and declared his ſon emperor. In this exigence, he ſeemed once more to recal his natural vigour; he got himſelf immediately put into his litter, and commanded the new emperor, with the tribunes and centurions, to be brought before him. Tho' all were willing to court the favour of the young emperor, ſuch was the authority of Severus, that none dared to diſobey. They appeared before him

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him confounded and trembling, and implored pardon upon their knees. Upon which, putting his hand to his head, he cried out, "Know, that it is the head that governs, and not the feet." However, ſoon perceiving his diſorder to increaſe, and knowing that he could not outlive it, he called for poiſon; which being refuſed him, he loaded his ſtomach with food; which not being able to digeſt, it ſoon brought him to his end, in the 56th year of his age, after an active though cruel reign of about 18 years.

(61.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF CARACALLA. Caracalla and Geta being acknowledged as emperors by the army, began to ſhow a mutual hatred to each other even before their arrival at Rome. Their only agreement was, in reſolving to deify Severus their father; but ſoon after, each ſought to attach the ſenate and army to his own intereſt. They were of very oppoſite diſpoſitions: Caracalla was fierce and cruel to an extreme; Geta was mild and merciful; ſo that the people ſoon found the dangerous effects of being governed by two princes of equal power and contrary inclinations. But this oppoſition was ſhort, for Caracalla, reſolved to govern alone, furiouſly entered Geta's apartment, and, followed by ruffians, ſlew him in his mother's arms. Having committed this deteſtable murder, he iſſued with great haſte from the palace, crying out, That his brother would have ſlain him; and that he was obliged, in ſelf-defence, to retaliate the intended injury. He then took refuge among the prætorian cohorts, and in a pathetic tone began to implore their aſſiſtance, ſtill making the ſame excuſe for his conduct. To this he added a much more prevailing argument, promiſing to beſtow upon them the largeſſes uſually given upon the election of new emperors, and diſtributing among them almoſt all the treaſures, which had been amaſſed by his father. By ſuch perſuaſives the ſoldiers did not heſitate to proclaim him ſole emperor, and to ſtigmatize the memory of his brother Geta as a traitor. The ſenators were induced, through favour or fear, to approve what had been done by the army: Caracalla wept for the death of his brother whom he had ſlain; and, to carry his hypocriſy to the utmoſt extreme, ordered him to be adored as a god. After this he continued to mark his courſe with blood. Whatever was done by Domitian or Nero fell ſhort of this monſter's barbarities. Lætus, who firſt adviſed him to murder his brother, was the firſt who fell a ſacrifice to his jealouſy. His own wife Plautina followed. PAPINIAN, the renowned civilian, was beheaded for refuſing to write in vindication of his cruelty; anſwering the emperor's requeſt, by obſerving, "That it was much eaſier to commit a parricide than to defend it." He commanded all governors to be ſlain, whom his brother had appointed; and deſtroyed no leſs then 2000 perſons who had adhered to his party. Whole nights were ſpent in the execution of his bloody decrees; and the dead bodies of people of all ranks were carried out of the city in carts, where they were burnt in heaps, without any of the ceremonies of a funeral. He once ordered his ſoldiers to ſet upon a crowded audience in the theatre, only for diſcountenancing a charioteer whom he happened to favour. Perceiving him ſelf hated by the people, he ſaid, that he co inſure his own ſafety, ſo that he neither va their reproaches nor feared their hatred. ſafety which he ſo much truſted in, was the tection of his ſoldiers. He had exhauſted the fury, drained the provinces, and commit thouſand acts of rapacity, merely to keep ſtedfaſt in his intereſts; and being diſpoſ truſt himſelf with them particularly, he re to lead them upon a viſit through all the ces of the empire. He firſt went into Ge where he dreſſed himſelf in the habit of th try. Thence he travelled into Macedonia, he pretended to be a great admirer of Ale the Great; and among other extravagancie ed a ſtatue of that monarch to be made w faces; one of which reſembled Alexande the other himſelf. He called himſelf *Alex* walked as he was told that monarch had w and, like him, bent his head to one ſi Shortly after, arriving at Leſſer Aſia and th of Troy, as he was viewing the tomb of Ac took it into his head to reſemble that he one of his freed men happening to die time, he uſed the ſame ceremonies that w formed at the tomb of Patroclus. Paſſing into Egypt, he maſſacred in the moſt manner the inhabitants of Alexandria, on of the ſatires they compoſed on him. LEXANDRIA.) Going thence into Syri vited Artabanus king of Parthia to a co which he ended by a moſt infernal piece of ry. (See PARTHIA, § 13.) Upon his re wards Rome, his vices ſeemed inexhauſti having been guilty of parricide, he now t to marry the mother of Geta whom he h One day ſeeing her drop her veil, which ed her naked boſom, which was extreme tiful, he told her, that he would poſſ charms if it were lawful. To this unna queſt the worthleſs woman anſwered might enjoy all things who poſſeſſed all. upon, ſetting aſide all reſpect for his de ther, he celebrated his nuptials with he lic, totally diſregarding the cenſures and of mankind. However, though he di ſhame, he was not inſenſible to fear. continually conſulting aſtrologers what ſhould die. He ſent one of his confid med *Maternianus*, to conſult all the aſtro the city concerning his end. Materni ſidered this as a proper time to get rid of nus, the emperor's commander in Meſop He therefore informed him by letter, as the aſtrologers, that Macrinus had a deſig his life; and adviſed him to put the co to death. This letter was ſent ſealed, an up, amongſt many others, to be delivere emperor, as he was preparing for a chari However, he gave the packet to Macrinus over, and to inform him of the contents leiſure. In peruſing theſe letters, when nus came to that which regarded himſelf, filled with ſurpriſe and terror. He reſer letter to himſelf, and acquainted the co with the ſubſtance of the reſt. He then bout the moſt probable means of compaſſ

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ath. He applied to one Martialis, a man of great ſtrength, and a centurion of the guards, who ed the emperor on account of the death of a ther, whom Caracalla had ordered to be ſlain. nus exhorted him to revenge his brother's h by killing the tyrant. Martialis readily un- ook the dangerous taſk. Accordingly, as alla was riding out one day near a city cal- Carræ, he withdrew privately, upon a natural ſon, with only one page to hold his horſe. was the opportunity Martialis had long and ly deſired; wherefore running to him as if been called, he ſtabbed the emperor in the ſo that he died immediately. Martialis re- to his troop; but retiring, he endeavour- ecure himſelf by flight. But his companions him, and the page telling what had been he was purſued by the German horſe and pieces. During the reign of this execrable , which continued ſix years, the empire ry day declining; the ſoldiers were entire- ers of every election; and as there were armies in different parts, ſo there were as tereſts all oppoſite to each other. Cara- by ſatisfying their moſt unreaſonable ap- deſtroyed all diſcipline among them, and ordination in the ſtate.

ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH CRINUS. The ſoldiers, after a ſuſpenſe of ys, fixed upon Macrinus, who took care cal his being privy to Caracalla's mur- The ſenate confirmed their choice, and that of his ſon Diadumenus whom he a partner. Macrinus was 53 years old entered upon the government. He was ure parentage; ſome ſay by birth a Moor, the mere rotation of office, being firſt made of the prætorian bands, was now, by trea- accident, called to fill the throne. Little ded of this emperor, except his engaging ody though undecided battle with Arta- ing of Parthia, who finding his real ene- d, made peace, and returned into Parthia. RTHIA, § 23.) Something is alſo ſaid of nty of this emperor's diſcipline; for to pitch of licentiouſneſs was the Roman ar- arrived, that the moſt ſevere puniſhments able to reſtrain the ſoldiers; and yet the gentle inflictions were looked upon as ſeve- It was this rigorous diſcipline, with the arti- of Mæſa, grandmother to Heliogabalus the ful ſon of Caracalla, that cauſed the empe- ruin. Heliogabalus was prieſt of a temple ated to the Sun, in Emeſa, a city of Phœni- and though but 14 years old was greatly by the army for the beauty of his perſon, the memory of his father, whom they ſtill dered as their benefactor. This was ſoon ived by the grandmother; who being very in gold and jewels, gave liberal preſents a- them, while they frequently repaired to emple, both from the garriſon in the city the camp of Macrinus. This intercourſe ing every day more frequent, the ſoldiers, fted with the ſeverities of Macrinus began to of placing Heliogabulus in his ſtead. Ac- ingly ſending for him to their camp, he was diately proclaimed; and ſuch were the hopes of his virtues, that all men began to affect his intereſts. Macrinus, who was purſuing his pleaſures at Antioch, gave but little attention to the firſt report; only ſending his lieutenant Julian, with ſome legions, to quell the inſurrection. However, theſe, like the reſt, ſoon declared for Heliogabalus, and ſlew their general. Macrinus found he had treated the rebellion too ſlightly; he therefore reſolved, with his ſon, to march directly againſt the ſeditious legions, and force them to their duty. Both parties met on the confines of Syria: the battle was for ſome time furious and obſtinate; but at laſt Macrinus was overthrown, and obliged to fly. His principal aim was to get to Rome, where he knew his preſence was deſired; wherefore he travelled through the provinces of Aſia Minor with the utmoſt expedition and privacy, but unfortunately fell ſick at Chalcedon. There thoſe who were ſent in purſuit, overtook and put him to death, together with his ſon Diadumenus, after a ſhort reign of one year and two months.

(63.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF HELIOGABALUS. The ſenate and citizens of Rome being obliged to ſubmit to the appointment of the army as uſual, Heliogabalus aſcended the throne at the age of 14. One at ſo early an age, inveſted with unlimited power, and ſurrounded with flatterers, could act only as they directed. This young emperor having it in his power to indulge all his appetites, he ſtudied only their gratification. As he is deſcribed by hiſtorians, he appears a monſter of ſenſuality. His ſhort life is a tiſſue of effeminacy, luſt, and extravagance. He married, in 4 years, ſix wives, and divorced them all. He built a temple to the ſun; and willing that his god ſhould have a wife as well as himſelf, he married him to Pallas, and ſhortly after to the moon. His palace was a place of rendezvous for all the proſtitutes of Rome, whom he frequently met naked, calling them *his fellow ſoldiers, and companions in the field.* He was ſo fond of the ſex, that he carried his mother with him to the ſenate houſe, and demanded that ſhe ſhould always be preſent when matters of importance were debated. He even went ſo far as to build a ſenate houſe for women, with ſuitable orders, habits, and diſtinctions, of which his mother was made preſident. They met ſeveral times; all their debates turning upon the faſhions of the day, and the different formalities to be uſed in giving and receiving viſits. To theſe follies, he added great cruelty and boundleſs prodigality: He ſaid that ſuch diſhes as were cheaply obtained were ſcarce worth eating. His ſuppers therefore generally coſt 6000 crowns, and often 60,000. He was always dreſſed in cloth of gold and purple, enriched with precious ſtones, and yet never wore the ſame habit twice. His palace, his chambers, and his beds, were all furniſhed of the richeſt ſtuffs, covered with gold and jewels. Whenever he took horſe, all the way between his apartment and the place of mounting was covered with gold and ſilver duſt ſtrewn at his approach. Theſe exceſſes were ſoon perceived by his grandmother Mæſa, whoſe intrigues had firſt raiſed him to the throne; ſo that ſhe thought to leſſen his power by dividing it. For this purpoſe, under a

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pretence of freeing him from the cares of public buſineſs, ſhe perſuaded him to adopt his couſin-german, Alexander Severus, as his ſucceſſor; and likewiſe to make him his partner in the conſulſhip. Heliogabalus, having thus raiſed his couſin, had ſcarce given him his power, when he wiſhed again to take it away; but the virtues of this young prince had ſo greatly endeared him to the people and the army, that the attempt had like to have been fatal to the tyrant. The prætorian ſoldiers mutinying, attempted to kill him as he was walking in his gardens; but he eſcaped, by hiding himſelf from their fury. However, upon returning to their camp, they continued the ſedition; requiring that the emperor ſhould remove ſuch perſons from about him as oppreſſed the ſubject, and contributed to contaminate him. They required alſo the being permitted to guard the young prince themſelves, and that none of the emperor's favourites or familiars ſhould be permitted to converſe with him. Heliogabalus was reluctantly obliged to comply; and conſcious of the danger he was in, made preparations for death, when it ſhould arrive, in a manner truly whimſical and peculiar. He built a lofty tower with ſteps of gold and pearl, from whence to throw himſelf headlong in caſe of neceſſity. He alſo prepared cords of purple ſilk and gold to ſtrangle himſelf with; he provided golden ſwords and daggers to ſtab himſelf with; and poiſon to be kept in boxes of emerald, in order to obtain what death he choſe beſt. Thus fearing all things, but particularly ſuſpicious of the deſigns of the ſenate, he baniſhed them all out of the city: he next attempted to poiſon Alexander, and ſpread a report of his death; but perceiving the ſoldiers begin to mutiny, he immediately took him in his chariot to the camp, where he experienced a freſh mortification, by finding all the acclamations of the army directed only to his ſucceſſor. This not a little raiſed his indignation, and excited his deſire of revenge. He returned towards the city, threatening the moſt ſevere puniſhments againſt thoſe who had diſpleaſed him, and meditating freſh cruelties. However, the ſoldiers were unwilling to give him time to put his deſigns in execution: they followed him directly to his palace, purſued him from apartment to apartment, and at laſt found him concealed in a privy; a ſituation very different from that in which he expected to die. Having dragged him thence through the ſtreets, with the moſt bitter invectives, and having diſpatched him, they attempted once more to ſqueeze his pampered body into a privy; but not effecting this, they threw it into the Tiber, with heavy weights, that none might afterwards find or give it burial. This was the miſerable and ignominious death of Heliogabalus, in the 18th year of his age, after a deteſtable reign of four years. His mother alſo was ſlain at the ſame time by the ſoldiers; as were alſo many of the opprobrious aſſociates of his criminal pleaſures.

(64.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE MURDER OF ALEXANDER SEVERUS. Alexander being, without oppoſition, declared emperor, the ſenate, with their uſual adulation, were for conferring new titles upon him; but he modeſtly declined them all, alleging, that titles were only honourable when given to virtue. This outſet was an happy omen of his future virtues; and few princes in hiſtory have been more commended by his contemporaries, or indeed more deſerved commendation. To the moſt rigid juſtice he added the greateſt humanity. He loved the good and was a ſevere reprover of the lewd and infamous. His accompliſhments were equal to his virtues. He was an excellent mathematician, geometrician, and muſician; he was ſkilled in painting and ſculpture; and in poetry few of his time could equal him. In ſhort, ſuch were his talents and ſuch the ſolidity of his judgment, that though but 16 years of age, he was conſidered as a grown man. The firſt part of his reign was ſpent in the reformation of the abuſes of his predeceſſor. He reſtored the ſenators to their rank; nothing was undertaken without the moſt ſage adviſers, and moſt mature deliberation. Among the number of his adviſers was his mother MAMMÆA; a woman eminent for her virtues and accompliſhments, and who made uſe of her power to ſecure to herſelf the affections of his ſubjects, and to procure him the moſt juſt adminiſtration. He was a rigid puniſher of ſuch magiſtrates as took bribes, ſaying, That it was not enough to deprive ſuch of their places; for their truſts being great, their loſs in moſt caſes, ought to pay for a breach of them. On the contrary, he thought he could never ſufficiently reward ſuch as had been remarkable for their juſtice and integrity, keeping a regiſter of their names, and ſometimes aſking ſuch of his friends as appeared modeſt and unwilling to appear before him, why they were ſo backward in demanding their reward, and why they ſuffered him to remain in their debt? His clemency extended even to the Chriſtians, who had been puniſhed in the former reigns with unrelenting barbarity. Upon a conteſt between them and a company of cook-victuallers, about a piece of public ground, which the one claimed as a place for public worſhip, and the other for exerciſing their reſpective trade, he decided the point by his reſcript, in theſe words; "It is better that God be worſhipped there in any manner, than that the place ſhould be put to uſes of drunkenneſs and debauchery." His abilities in war were equal to his affection for peace. The empire, which from the remiſſneſs and debauchery of the preceding reigns began to be attacked on every ſide, wanted a perſon of vigour and conduct to defend it. Alexander faced the enemy wherever the invaſion was moſt formidable, and for a ſhort time defered their ruin. His firſt expedition, in the 10th year of his reign, was againſt the Parthians and Perſians, whom he oppoſed with a powerful army. The Perſians were routed in a deciſive engagement with great ſlaughter; the cities of Cteſiphon and Babylon, were once more taken, and the Roman empire was reſtored to its former limits. In his return to Antioch, his mother Mammæa ſent for the famous Origen, to be inſtructed by him in the principles of Chriſtianity; and after diſcourſing with him for ſome time upon that ſubject, diſmiſſed him, with a proper ſafeguard to his native city of Alexandria. About the ſame time that Alexander was victorious in the Eaſt

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Celſus, his general, obtained a ſignal victory over the Mauritanians in Africa. Varius Germanus was ſucceſsful in Germany, and Junius Planctus returned conqueror from Armenia. However, theſe victories only haſtened the decline of the empire, which was waſted by the exertion of its own ſtrength. About the 13th year of his reign, the Upper Germans, and other northern nations, began to pour down immenſe ſwarms of people upon the more ſouthern parts of the empire. They paſſed the Rhine and the Danube with ſuch fury, that all Italy was thrown into conſternation. The emperor made what levies he could, and went in perſon to ſtem the torrent; which he ſpeedily effected. It was in the courſe of his ſucceſſes againſt the enemy, that he was cut off by a mutiny among his ſoldiers. The legions encamped about Moguntia, having been abominably corrupted during the reign of Heliogabalus, and trained up in all kinds of rapine and debauchery, required the moſt ſtrict command; which Severus could neither endure their tumultuary practice, nor they his regular diſcipline. They complained, That they were governed by an avaricious woman, and a mean ſpirited boy; and reſolved upon electing an emperor capable of ruling the ſtate. In this general revolt, Maximinus, an officer commander, held frequent conferences with the ſoldiers, and enflamed the ſedition. At length, ſending an executioner into Alexander's tent; he immediately ſtruck off his head, and, ſhortly after, that of his mother. He died in the 29th year of his age, after a proſperous reign of 13 years and 9 days.

ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE MURDER OF GORDIAN I. AND II. The tumults occaſioned by the death of Alexander being appeaſed, Maximinus, who had been the chief promoter of the ſedition, was choſen emperor. This extraordinary man was born of very obſcure parentage, being the ſon of a herdſman of Thrace. At firſt he followed his father's profeſſion, and only exerciſed his perſonal courage againſt robbers. Soon after, he liſted in the Roman army; where he became remarkable for his great ſtrength, diſcipline, and courage. He was no leſs than 8 feet and a half high; he had a body and ſtrength correſponding to his ſize, being not leſs remarkable for the magnitude than the ſymmetry of his perſon. His mother's bracelet ſerved him for a thumb ring; and his ſtrength was ſo great, that he was able to draw a carriage which two oxen could not move. He could ſtrike out an horſe's teeth with a blow of his fiſt, and break its thigh with a kick. His diet was as extraordinary as the reſt of his endowments; he generally eat 40 lb. of fleſh every day, and drank ſix gallons of wine, without any detriment. With a frame ſo athletic, he was poſſeſſed of a mind undaunted in danger, neither fearing nor regarding any man. The firſt time he was taken known to the emperor Severus, was upon that prince's celebrating games on the birth-day of his ſon Geta. Maximinus was then a rude countryman, and requeſted the emperor to be permitted to contend for the prizes which were diſtributed to the beſt runners, wreſtlers, and boxers, of the army. Severus, unwilling to infringe the military diſcipline, would not permit him to combat, except with ſlaves, againſt whom his ſtrength appeared aſtoniſhing. He overcame 16 in running, one after the other: he then kept up with the emperor on horſeback; and having fatigued him in the courſe, he was oppoſed to 7 of the moſt active ſoldiers, and overcame them with the greateſt eaſe. From that time he was noticed, and taken into the emperor's body-guards, in which his aſſiduity and prompt obedience were remarked. In the reign of Caracalla, he was made a centurion, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf in this ſtation by his ſtrict attention to the morals and diſcipline of thoſe he commanded. When made a tribune, he ſtill retained the hard ſimplicity of his life; eat as the meaneſt centinel; ſpent whole days in exerciſing his troops; and now and then wreſtled with 8 or 10 of the ſtrongeſt men in the army, whom he threw with little effort. Being thus become remarkable for courage, diſcipline, and perſonal activity, he gave a very high inſtance of his unſhaken fidelity: for when Macrinus was made emperor, he refuſed to ſerve under a prince that had betrayed his ſovereign; and retired to Thrace, his native country, where he followed commerce, and purchaſed ſome lands. Upon the acceſſion of Heliogabalus, this bold veteran once more returned to the army; but was diſguſted at the effeminacy of the emperor; who, hearing amazing inſtances of his ſtrength, aſked him, if he were equally capable in combats of another nature? This queſtion was ſo little ſuited to the temper of Maximinus, that he left the court. Upon the death of Heliogabalus, he again returned to Rome, and was received with great kindneſs by Alexander, who recommended him to the ſenate, and made him commander of the 4th legion, which conſiſted of new-raiſed ſoldiers. Maximinus performed his duty with great exactneſs and ſucceſs, ſetting an example of virtue and diſcipline to all the commanders of the army. Nor was his valour leſs apparent againſt the Germans; ſo that he was unanimouſly reckoned the boldeſt, braveſt, moſt valiant, and moſt virtuous ſoldier in the empire. He ſoon, however, forfeited all theſe juſtly merited titles, when raiſed to the throne; and, from being the moſt beloved commander in the army, became the moſt cruel tyrant upon earth. Maximinus began his reign, by endeavouring to force obedience from all ranks of people, and vindicating his authority by violence. The ſenate and people of Rome were the firſt that incurred his reſentment. They abſolutely refuſing to confirm the election made by the army, he was the firſt emperor who reigned without their concurrence. However, he ſeemed regardleſs of their oppoſition, proceeding to ſecure his election by putting all ſuch to death as had been raiſed by his predeceſſor. The Chriſtians alſo felt the weight of his reſentment; and were perſecuted in ſeveral parts of the empire. His cruelty extended to the rich, whoſe lives and eſtates became a frequent ſacrifice to avarice and ſuſpicion. Being aſhamed of the meanneſs of his extraction, he commanded all ſuch as were acquainted with him and his parentage to be ſlain, although ſome among them had relieved him in his low condition. In the midſt of theſe cruelties

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cruelties his military operations were carried on with a ſpirit becoming a better monarch. He overthrew the Germans in ſeveral battles, and waſted their country with fire and ſword for 400 miles together. In theſe expeditions, to attach the ſoldiers firmly to him, he increaſed their pay; and in every duty of the camp, he himſelf took as much pains as the meaneſt centinel in his army. In every engagement, where the conflict was hotteſt, Maximinus was always ſeen fighting in perſon, and deſtroying all before him: for, being bred a barbarian, he conſidered it his duty to combat as a common ſoldier, while he commanded as a general. In the mean time, his cruelties had ſo alienated the minds of his ſubjects, that ſeveral conſpiracies were formed againſt him. Magnus, a conſular perſon, and ſome others, had agreed in a plot to break down a wooden bridge, as ſoon as the emperor had paſſed it, and thus to abandon him to the enemy. But this being diſcovered, gave Maximinus an opportunity of indulging his natural ſeverity, upon this pretext alone cauſing above 4000 to be ſlain. Shortly after, ſome of Alexander's old ſoldiers withdrawing themſelves from the camp, proclaimed one Quartianus emperor, who had been lately diſguſted at Maximinus for being diſmiſſed from employment. The ſoldiers conſtrained him to accept of the dangerous ſuperiority; but ſhortly after, in the ſpirit of the times, the perſon who had been the promoter of his advancement, murdered him in his bed, and carried his head to Maximinus; who received him kindly, but ſoon put him to a cruel death, for his complicated guilt of treaſon and treachery. Theſe partial inſurrections were ſoon after followed by a ſpirit of general diſcontent throughout all the empire. The provinces of Africa were the firſt that ſhowed their deteſtation of the tyrant, whoſe extortions and cruelties among them were become inſupportable. They firſt ſlew his procurator; and afterwards conſidering how dangerous a crime they had committed, they reſolved to throw off all expectations of pardon, and create a new emperor. Gordian was then proconſul of Africa, a perſon of great fame for his virtues, and highly reverenced for a blameleſs life of near 80. Him, therefore, they determined to elect; and accordingly the ſoldiers and natives aſſembling together, tumultuouſly entered his houſe, reſolved to put their deſign in execution. Gordian, who at firſt ſuppoſed they were come to kill him, being made ſenſible of their intentions, refuſed their offer, alleging his great age, and Maximinus's power. But they conſtrained him to accept of the dignity; and he, with his ſon Gordian, who was 46 years of age, were declared emperors. Being thus raiſed contrary to his inclination, the old man immediately wrote to the ſenate, declaring that he had unwillingly accepted of the empire, and would only keep his authority till he had freed it from the tyranny of its preſent oppreſſor. The ſenate very joyfully confirmed his election, adjudging Maximinus an enemy and traitor to the ſtate. The citizens alſo ſhowed an equal zeal in the cauſe: they flew upon ſuch as were the reputed friends of Maximinus, and tore them in pieces. So great an alteration being made in the city againſt Maximinus, the ſenate were reſolved to drive the oppoſition to the extreme; and accordingly made all neceſſary preparations for their ſecurity, ordering Maximinus's governors to be diſplaced, and commanding all the provinces to acknowledge Gordian for emperor. This order was differently received in different parts; in ſome provinces the governors were ſlain; in others the meſſengers of the ſenate ſo that all parts of the empire felt the civil war. In the mean time, when Maximinus was informed of theſe charges againſt him, his rage appeared ungovernable. He roared like a ſavage beaſt, and violently ſtruck his head againſt the wall, ſhowing every inſtance of ungovernable diſtraction. At length his fury being ſomewhat ſubſided, he called his whole army together; and in a ſet ſpeech, exhorted them to revenge his cauſe, giving them the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that they ſhould poſſeſs the eſtates of all ſuch as had offended. The ſoldiers unanimouſly promiſed to be faithful; they received his harangue with their uſual acclamations; and, thus encouraged, he led them forwards Rome, breathing ſlaughter and revenge. However, he found many obſtacles to his impoſity; and, though he deſired nothing ſo much as diſpatch, his marches were incommodious and ſlow. The tumultuous and diſobedient armies of the empire were at preſent very different from the legions that were led on by Sylla or Cæſar; they were loaded with baggage, and followed by boys and women, rather reſembling an eaſtern caravan than a military battalion. To theſe inconveniences was added the hatred of the cities through which he paſſed, the inhabitants abandoning their houſes upon his approach, and ſecuring their proviſions in proper hiding places. However, his affairs began to wear a favourable appearance in Africa for Capelianus, governor of Numidia, raiſed a body of troops in his favour, and marched againſt Gordian, towards Carthage; where he fought the younger Gordian, ſlew him, and deſtroyed his army. The father, hearing of the death of his ſon, together with the loſs of the battle, ſtrangled himſelf in his own girdle.

(66.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE MURDER OF MAXIMINUS. Capelianus purſuing his victory, entered Carthage; where he gave a looſe to ſlaughter and ſlaughter, under a pretence of revenging the cauſe of Maximinus. The news of theſe ceſſes was ſoon brought to the emperor, who increaſed his diligence, and flattered himſelf with a ſpeedy opportunity of revenge. He led on a large army by haſty journeys into Italy, threatening deſtruction to all his oppoſers, and ardently wiſhing for freſh opportunities of ſlaughter. Nothing could exceed the conſternation of the ſenate upon the news of this defeat. They now found themſelves not only deprived of the aſſiſtance of Gordian and his ſon, but alſo oppoſed by two formidable tyrants, each commanding a victorious army, directly marching towards Rome, and dictating nothing but vengeance. In this affliction exigence, they, with great ſolemnity, met at the temple of Jupiter, and after the moſt mature deliberations, choſe Pupienus and Balbinus emperors conjointly. Theſe were men who had acquired the eſteem of the public both in war and peace, having commanded armies, and governed provinces

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provinces, with great reputation; and being now appointed to oppose Maximinus, they made what levies they could, both in Rome and the country. With these, Pupienus marched to stop the progress of the invaders, leaving the city to a fresh and unlooked for calamity. This was occasioned by two of Maximinus's soldiers, who, entering the senate-house, were slain by two senators. This highly gave offence to the body of the prætorian army, who instantly resolved to take revenge, but were opposed by the citizens; so that nothing was seen throughout Rome, but tumult, slaughter, and cruelty. In this universal confusion, the calamity was increased by the soldiers setting the town on fire, while the wretched inhabitants were fighting each other in the midst of the flames. Nevertheless, Maximinus himself was not more successful. Being informed of the new election of emperors, his fury was again renewed, and having passed the Alps, expecting, upon entering Italy, to refresh his fatigued and famished army in that rich country. But in this he was disappointed; Aquileia had taken such care to remove all kinds of provisions to fortified places, that he found himself reduced to his former necessities, while his army began to murmur for want. Approaching the city of Aquileia, he was astonished to find it prepared for the most obstinate resistance, and resolved to hold out a regular siege. This city was well fortified and populous, and the inhabitants were true to Maximinus; but what added to its strength, it was commanded by two excellent generals, Crispinus and Menophilis, who had so well supplied it with men and ammunition, that Maximinus found no small resistance, in investing the place. He attempted to take the city by storm; but the besieged threw down such quantities of burning pitch and sulphur upon his soldiers, that they were unable to continue the assault. He then determined upon a blockade; but the inhabitants were so resolute, that even the old men and children were seen combating upon the walls, while the women cut off their hair to furnish the soldiers with bow-strings. Maximinus's rage at this unexpected opposition was now ungovernable, having no enemy to wreck his resentment upon, he turned it against his own commanders. He put many of his generals to death, as if they had held out through their neglect or incapacity, while famine made great depredations upon the rest of his army. Nothing now appeared on either side to terminate the contest, except the total destruction of either. But a mutiny in Maximinus's own army rescued the declining empire from destruction, and saved the lives of thousands. The soldiers being long harassed by famine and fatigue, and hearing of revolts on every side, resolved to terminate their calamities by the tyrant's death. His great strength, and his being always guarded, were the principal motives to deter any from assassinating him; but having made his guards accomplices in their design, they set upon him, while he slept at noon in his tent, and slew both him and his son, whom he had made his partner in the empire, after an usurpation of about three years, in the 65th year of his age.

(67.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE MURDER OF PUPIENUS AND BALBINUS. The tyrant being dead, and his body thrown to dogs and birds of prey, Pupienus and Balbinus continued emperors without opposition. But the prætorian soldiers, notorious for mutiny and treason, resolved on further change. The dissensions between the new made emperors themselves also contributed to their downfal: for though both were remarkable for wisdom and age, yet they could not restrain their mutual jealousy. Pupienus claimed the superiority from his great experience; while Balbinus was equally aspiring upon account of his family and fortune. In this ill-judged contest, the prætorian soldiers, who were enemies to both, set upon them in their palace, at a time when their guards were amused with seeing the Capitoline games. Pupienus perceiving their tumultuous approach, sent with the utmost speed for assistance from his colleague: but he, out of a culpable suspicion that something was designed only against himself, refused to send such of the German guards as were next his person. Thus the seditious soldiers found an easy access to both the emperors; and dragging them from the palace to the camp, slew them both, leaving their dead bodies in the streets.

(68.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE MURDER OF GORDIAN III. In the midst of this sedition, as the mutineers were proceeding along, they met Gordian, the grandson of him who was slain in Africa, and declared him emperor on the spot. The senate and people had been long reduced to the necessity of suffering their emperors to be nominated by the army; so that all they could do in this instance was to confirm their choice. This prince was but 16 years old, when he began his reign, but his virtues seemed to compensate for his want of experience. His principal aims were, to unite the opposing members of the government, and to reconcile the soldiers and citizens. His learning was equal to his virtues; and he had 62,000 books in his library. His respect for Misithæus, his governor and instructor, was such, that he married his daughter, and profited by his counsels in all the critical circumstances of his reign. The first 4 years of his reign were attended with the utmost prosperity; but in the 5th he was alarmed with accounts from the east, that Sapor, king of Persia, had furiously invaded the confines of the Roman empire, and having taken Antioch, had pillaged Syria and all the adjacent provinces. The Goths also invaded the empire on their side, pouring down like a flood from the north, and attempting to fix their residence in the kingdom of Thrace. To oppose both, Gordian prepared an army; and having gained some victories over the Goths, whom he obliged to retire, he turned his arms against the Persians, whom he defeated upon several occasions, and forced to return home with disgrace. In gaining these advantages, Misithæus, whom he had made prætorian præfect, had the principal share; but he dying soon after (being poisoned by Philip an Arabian, who was appointed his successor,) the fortune of Gordian died with him. The army began to be in want of provisions; murmurs prevailed, and these were artfully fomented by Philip. Things thus proceeding from bad to worse, Philip was at first made his equal in the empire; shortly after, invested with the sole power; and, at length, finding himself capable of perpetrating his

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long meditated cruelty, Gordian was, by his order, ſlain, in the 22d year of his age, after a ſucceſsful reign of near ſix years.

(69.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DESERVED DEATH OF PHILIP. Philip having thus murdered his benefactor, was acknowledged emperor by the army. The ſenate alſo confirmed his election, and gave him the title of *Auguſtus*. Philip was about 40 years old when he came to the throne; being the ſon of an obſcure Arabian, who had been captain of a band of robbers. He aſſociated his ſon, a boy of ſix years of age, as his partner in the empire; and to ſecure his power at home, made peace with the Perſians, and marched his army towards Rome. On his way, having conceived a deſire to viſit his native country of Arabia, he built there a city called *Philippopolis*: and thence returning to Rome, he was received as emperor, and treated with all the uſual marks of ſubmiſſion. To put the people in good humour, he cauſed the ſecular games to be celebrated, with a magnificence ſuperior to any of his predeceſſors, it being juſt 1000 years from the building of the city. Upon occaſion of theſe games, it is ſaid that both Philip and his ſon were converted to Chriſtianity. However this be, a murderer and ungrateful uſurper can do no honour to any opinion. The Goths having invaded the empire, Marinus, Philip's lieutenant, who was ſent againſt them, revolted, and cauſed himſelf to be declared emperor. This revolt, however, was of ſhort duration; the army, which had raiſed him, depoſed him with equal levity, and put him to death. Decius was appointed by Philip to command in his room. The chief merit of Decius with the emperor was, that when Marinus had rebelled, he averred in the ſenate, That the traitor's preſumption would be very ſhortly his ruin; which, when it happened accordingly, Philip appointed him to ſucceed in the command of the rebellious army. Decius, who was a man of great ſubtlety, being thus entruſted with ſo much power, upon arriving at the army found that the ſoldiers were reſolved on inveſting him with the imperial authority. He therefore ſuffered their importunities, as if through conſtraint; and, in the mean time, ſent Philip word, that he had unwillingly aſſumed the title of emperor, the better to ſecure it for the rightful poſſeſſor; adding, that he only looked for a convenient opportunity of giving up his pretenſions and title together. Philip knew mankind too well, to rely upon ſuch profeſſions: he therefore got together what forces he could from the ſeveral provinces, and led them forward towards the confines of Italy. However, the army was ſcarce arrived at Verona, when it revolted in favour of Decius, and ſetting violently upon Philip, a centinel, with one blow, cleaved his head aſunder, ſeparating the under jaw from the upper. Such was the deſerved death of Philip, in the 45th year of his age, after a reign of about 5 years; Decius being univerſally acknowledged as his ſucceſſor, A. D. 248.

(70.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF DECIUS, AND HIS SON. The activity and wiſdom of Decius in ſome meaſure ſtopped the haſtening decline of the Roman empire. The ſenate ſeemed to think ſo highly of his merits, that they voted him not inferior to Trajan; and indeed he ſeemed in every inſtance to conſult their dignity, and the welfare of all ranks of people. He permitted them to chooſe a cenſor, as in the flouriſhing times of Rome; and Valerian, his general, a man of ſuch ſtrict morals, that his life was ſaid to be a continual cenſorſhip, was choſen to that dignity.—But no virtues could now prevent the approaching downfal of the ſtate: the obſtinate diſputes between the Pagans and Chriſtians within the empire, and the unceaſing irruptions of barbarous nations from without, had feebled it beyond remedy. To ſtop theſe, a proſecution of the Chriſtians, who were now the moſt numerous body of the people, was impolitically and cruelly begun; in which thouſands were put to death, and all the arts of cruelty tried in vain, to leſſen their growing number. This proſecution was ſucceeded by dreadful devaſtations from the Goths, in Thrace and Moeſia. To the irruptions Decius went to oppoſe in perſon; and coming to an engagement, ſlew 30,000 of the barbarians in one battle. But, in purſuing the victory, he was, by the treachery of Gallus his own general, led into a defile, where the king of the Goths had ſecret information to attack him. In this diſadvantageous ſituation, Decius firſt ſaw his ſon killed with an arrow, and ſoon after his whole army put to the rout. Wherefore, diſdaining not to ſurvive his loſs, he put ſpurs to his horſe, and inſtantly plunging into a quag, was ſwallowed up. He died in the 50th year of his age, after a ſhort reign of two years and ſix months; leaving the character of an excellent prince, capable of averting the deſtruction of the empire, if human means could have effected it.

(71.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF GALLUS, WITH HIS SON, AND ÆMILIANUS. Gallus, who had thus betrayed the Roman army, had the addreſs to get himſelf declared emperor by that part of it which had ſurvived the diſaſter. He was 45 years old when he began to reign. He was deſcended from an honourable family in Italy. He bought a diſhonourable peace from the enemies of the ſtate, agreeing to pay a conſiderable annual tribute to the Goths, whom it was his duty to have repreſſed. Having thus purchaſed a ſhort ceſſation from war, he returned to Rome, to give looſe to his pleaſures, regardleſs of the wretched ſituation of the empire. Nothing could be more deplorable than the ſtate of the Roman provinces at this time. The Goths and other barbarous nations, not ſatisfied with their late bribes, broke upon the eaſtern parts of Europe. On the other ſide, the Perſians and Scythians committed the heard of ravages in Meſopotamia and Syria. The emperor, regardleſs of every national calamity, was loſt in debauch and ſenſuality at home; while the Pagans were allowed a power of perſecuting the Chriſtians through all parts of the ſtate; but calamities were ſucceeded by a peſtilence, which ſeemed to have ſpread over the earth, and continued raging for ſeveral years; and all theſe by a civil war, which followed ſoon after, between Gallus and his general Æmilianus, who having gained a victory over the Goths, was proclaimed emperor by his army. Gallus, hearing this, prepared to oppoſe his dangerous rival. Both armies met in Moeſia, and a battle enſued, in which the

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illianus was victorious, and Gallus, with his son, ere slain. His death was merited, and his vices re detestable. He died in the 47th year of his e, after an unhappy reign of two years and four nths, in which the empire suffered inexpressible lamities. Æmilianus, after his victory over Gal- expected to be acknowledged emperor; but miserably disappointed. The senate refused acknowledge him; and an army stationed near Alps chose Valerian, their own commander, succeed to the throne. Æmilianus's soldiers n to consider their general as an obstacle to public tranquillity, and slew him to avoid a war.

(2.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH VALERIAN. Valerian being thus universally knowledged as emperor, although arrived at the of 70, set about reforming the state with a that seemed to mark a good mind and una- vigour. But reformation was then grown impracticable. The disputes between the and Chillians divided the empire as be- ed a dreadful persecution of the latter en- The northern nations over-ran the Roman ions in a more formidable manner than ever; the empire began to be usurped by a multi- of petty leaders, each of whom, neglecting neral state, set up for himself. To add to alamities the Persians, under Sapor, invaded and coming into Mesopotamia, took the nate Valerian prisoner, as he was preparing ose them. Nothing can exceed the indigni- cruelties, practised upon this unhappy mo- by his enemies. Sapor always used him as stool for mounting his horse; he added the ts of ridicule to his insults, and observed, an attitude like that to which Valerian was ed, was the best statue that could be erected our of his victory. This horrid life of in- sufferance continued for 7 years, and was h terminated by the cruel Persian's com- g his prisoner's eyes to be plucked out, and ed causing him to be flead alive.

(3.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE REIGN THIRTY TYRANTS. The news of the of the Roman army by the Persians, and the of Valerian, no sooner reached the bar- ians at war with Rome, than they pour- d ides into the Roman territories in incre- multitudes, threatening the empire, and f, with destruction. The Goths and ns ravaged Pontus and Asia, committing where dreadful devastation; the Alemanni ank having over-run Rhætia, advanced as Ravenna; putting all to fire and sword; the and Sarmatians seized on great part of Da- Pannonia; while other barbarous nations, g Spain, made themselves masters of Tar- and other places in that province. In the time Gallienus, the son of Valerian, having ed to revenge his father's captivity, and re- the barbarians, was chosen emperor with ut him. He was then in Gaul; but hastened Italy, whence he drove out the barbarians. cia and Pannonia, also, they were driven by Regillianus, who gained several victories day. But in the mean time, one Ingenuus, of great reputation in war, and universally

beloved both by the people and soldiery, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor in Pannonia, where he was generally acknowledged as well as in Mœsia. Gallienus no sooner heard of his revolt, than he marched from the neighbourhood of Ravenna, where he then was, into Illyricum, engaged Ingenuus, and put him to flight. Some say, that Ingenuus was killed after the battle by his own soldiers; others affirm, that he put an end to his own life to avoid falling into the hands of Gallienus, who used his victory with a cruelty hardly paralleled. The following letter to Verianus Celer, one of his officers, will show his disposition; "I shall not be satisfied (says he) with your putting to death only such as have born arms against me, and might have fallen in the field: you must in every city destroy all the males, old and young; spare none who have wished ill to me; none who have spoken ill of me the son of Valerian, the father and brother of princes. Ingenuus emperor! Tear, kill, cut in pieces without mercy: you understand me; do then as you know I would do, who have written to you with my own hand." In consequence of these cruel orders, a most dreadful havock was made among that unhappy people; and, in several cities, not one male child was left alive. The troops who had formerly served under Ingenuus, and the inhabitants of Mœsia, who had escaped the general slaughter, provoked by these cruelties, proclaimed Regillianus emperor. He was a Dacian by birth, descended from king Decebalus whom Trajan had conquered; and had, by several gallant actions, gained reputation in the Roman armies. After he was proclaimed emperor, he gained great advantages over the Sarmatians; but was soon after murdered by his own soldiers. These revolts were quickly followed by many others. Indeed it is not surprising, at a time when the reins of government were held with so loose a hand, that a crowd of usurpers should start up in every province of the empire. The great number of usurpers who pretended to the empire about this time have been distinguished by the name of the *thirty tyrants*. However, there were only 20; viz. Cyriades, Macrinus, Balista, Odenatus, and Zenobia in the east: in Gaul, and the western provinces, Posthumus, Lollianus, Victorinus and his mother Victoria, Marius, and Tetricus; in Illyricum, and on the confines of the Danube, Ingenuus, Regillianus, and Aureolus; in Pontus, Saturninus; in Illyria, Trebellianus; in Thessaly, Piso; in Achaia, Valens; in Egypt, Æmilianus; and in Africa, Celsus. Several of these pretenders to the empire, however, though branded with the opprobrious appellation of tyrants, were eminent for virtue, and almost all of them were possessed of a considerable share of vigour and ability. The principal reason assigned for their revolt was, the infamous character of Gallienus, whom neither officers nor soldiers could bear to serve. Many of them, however, were forced by the soldiers to assume the imperial dignity much against their will. "You have lost," said Saturninus to his soldiers, when they invested him with the purple, "a very useful commander, and have made a very wretched emperor." The apprehensions of Saturninus were justified by the event. Of the 20 usurpers above mentioned, not

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one died a natural death; and in Italy and Rome Gallienus alone continued to be acknowledged emperor. That prince indeed honoured Odenatus prince of Palmyra with the title of *Augustus*, who continued to poſſeſs an independent ſovereignty in the eaſt all his lifetime, and on his death tranſmitted it to his wife Zenobia. See PALMYRA, § 4.

(74.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE MURDER OF GALLIENUS. The conſequences of theſe numerous uſurpations were the moſt fatal that can be conceived. The elections of theſe precarious emperors, their life and death, were equally deſtructive to their ſubjects and adherents. The price of their elevation was inſtantly paid to the troops by an immenſe donative drawn from the exhauſted people. However virtuous their character, and however pure their intentions might be, they found themſelves reduced to the neceſſity of ſupporting their uſurpation by frequent acts of rapine and cruelty. When they fell, they involved armies and provinces in their fall. Whilſt the forces of the ſtate were diſperſed in private quarrels, the defenceleſs provinces lay expoſed to every invader. The braveſt uſurpers were compelled, by the perplexity of their ſituation, to conclude diſhonourable treaties with the barbarians, and even to ſubmit to ſhameful tributes, and introduced ſuch numbers of barbarians into the Roman ſervice as ſeemed ſufficient at once to overthrow the empire. But when the empire ſeemed thus ready to ſink at once, it ſuddenly revived on the death of Gallienus, who was murdered by Martian, one of his own generals, while he beſieged Aureolus, in Milan. His death gave general ſatisfaction to all, except his ſoldiers, who hoped to reap the reward of their treachery by the plunder of Milan. But being in ſome meaſure kept within bounds by the largeſſes of Martian, Flavius Claudius was nominated to ſucceed, and joyfully accepted by all orders of the ſtate, and his title confirmed by the ſenate and the people.

(75.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH OF CLAUDIUS II. Claudius, ſome ſay, was born in Dalmatia, and deſcended from an ancient family there; others aſſert that he was a Trojan; and others, that he was ſon to the emperor Gordian. But, whatever might have been his deſcent, his merits were by no means doubtful. He was a man of great valour and conduct, having performed the moſt eminent ſervices againſt the Goths, who had long continued to make irruptions into the empire. He was now about 55 years old, equally remarkable for the ſtrength of his body and the vigour of his mind; he was chaſte and temperate, a rewarder of the good, and a ſevere puniſher of tranſgreſſors. Thus endowed, he in ſome meaſure put a ſtop to the decline of the empire, and once more ſeemed to reſtore the glory of Rome. His firſt ſucceſs, upon being made emperor, was againſt Aureolus, whom he defeated near Milan. His next expedition was to oppoſe the Goths, againſt whom he led a very numerous army. Theſe barbarians had made their principal and moſt ſucceſsful irruptions into Thrace and Macedonia, ſwarmed over all Greece, and had pillaged the famous city of Athens, which had long been the ſchool of all the polite arts to the Romans. The Goths, however, deſtroyed all monuments of taſte and learning with the moſt ſavage alacrity. It was upon one of theſe occaſions, that, having heaped together a large pile of books to burn them, one of the commanders diſſuaded them from the deſign, alleging, that the time which the Grecians waſted on books would only render them more unqualified for war. The empire trembled not only on that ſide, but on every quarter. Above 300,000 of theſe barbarians (the Heruli, the Trutangi, the Viturgi, many other uncivilized nations) came down Danube, with 2000 ſhips, fraught with men, ammunition, ſpreading terror and devaſtation every ſide. In this ſtate of univerſal diſ Claudius alone continued unſhaken. He marched his diſproportioned army againſt the ſavage raiders; and though but ill prepared for ſuch an engagement, as the forces of the empire were employed in different parts of the world, he came off victorious, and made an incredible ſlaughter of the enemy. The whole of their great army either cut to pieces or taken priſoners: the ſeas were filled with their arms; and ſcarce a province of the empire, that was not furniſhed with ſlaves from thoſe that ſurvived the defeat. The ſucceſſes were followed by many others in different parts of the empire; ſo that the Goths, for a conſiderable time after, made but a feeble oppoſition. He ſome time after marched againſt the revolted Germans, and overthrew them with conſiderable ſlaughter. His laſt expediton was to oppoſe Tetricus and Zenobia, his two puiſſant rivals for the empire. But on his march, as he approached near Sirmium, in Pannonia, he was ſeized with a peſtilential fever, of which he died in a few days, to the great regret of his ſubjects, and the irreparable loſs of the Roman empire. His reign, which was not quite two years continuance, was ſhort and ſucceſsful; and ſuch is the character given him by hiſtorians, that he is ſaid to have united in himſelf the moderation of Auguſtus, the valour of Trajan, and the piety of Antoninus.

(76.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE MURDER OF AURELIAN. Immediately after the death of Claudius, the army made unanimous choice of Aurelian, who was maſter of the horſe, and ſeemed the moſt valiant commander of his time. However, his promotion was not without oppoſition on the part of the ſenate, as Quintillus, brother of the deceaſed emperor, put in his claim, and was for a while acknowledged at Rome; but his authority was of very ſhort duration; for finding himſelf abandoned by thoſe who at firſt ſuggated him to declare for the throne, he choſe to prevent the ſeverity of his rival by a voluntary death, and cauſing his veins to be opened, bled, after having reigned but 17 days. Aurelian being thus univerſally acknowledged by all the ſtates of the empire, aſſumed the command with a greater ſhow of power than his predeceſſors had enjoyed for ſome time before. This active monarch was born of obſcure parentage in Dacia, and was about 55 years old at his coming to the throne. He had ſpent the early part of his life in the army, and had riſen through all the gradations of military duty. He was of unſhaken courage and amazing ſtrength; he in one engagement

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s of the enemy with his own hand, and above
at ſeveral different times. In ſhort, his va-
and expedition were ſuch, that he was com-
d to Julius Cæſar; and only wanted mildneſs
clemency to be every way his equal. The
t of his reign was ſpent in repreſſing the ir-
ons of the northern nations, in humbling e-
pretender to the empire, and puniſhing the
ous irregularities of his ſubjects. He de-
d the Marcomanni, that had invaded Italy,
ſeveral engagements, and totally deſtroy-
r army. He was not leſs ſucceſsful againſt
ia, the queen of the Eaſt, a woman of the
eroic qualifications, who had long diſclaim-
Roman power, and eſtabliſhed an empire
own. (See PALMYRA, § 4.) Aurelian ha-
thus brought peace to the empire, endea-
d, by the rigours of juſtice, to bring back
alſo. He was very ſtrict in puniſhing the
of the ſoldiery: in his orders to his lieute-
he inſiſted that the peaſants ſhould not be
ed upon any pretences; that not even
a grain of ſalt, or a drop of oil, ſhould be
unjuſtly. He cauſed a ſoldier, who had
ted adultery with his hoſteſs, to have his
to the tops of two trees, forcibly bent at
meet each other; which being let looſe,
denly recoiling, tore the criminal in two.
a ſeverity that might take the name of
; but the vices of the age, in ſome mea-
quired it. In theſe puniſhments inflicted
guilty, the Chriſtians, who had all along
wing more numerous, were ſharers. A
theſe he drew up ſeveral letters and edicts,
ſhowed that he intended a very ſevere per-
; but if we may believe the hiſtorians of
es, he was diverted juſt as he was going to
en by a thunderbolt, which fell ſo near his
that all the people judged him to be de-
. But, however Heaven might have inter-
on this occaſion, it is certain that his ſeve-
at laſt were the cauſe of his deſtruction.
ius, his principal ſecretary, having been
ed by him for ſome fault which he had
ted, began to conſider how he might pre-
e meditated blow. For this purpoſe, he
a roll of the names of ſeveral perſons, whom
tended the emperor had marked out for
, adding his own to ſtrengthen him in the
dence of the party. The ſcroll thus contri-
was ſhown with an air of the utmoſt ſecrecy
ne of the perſons concerned; and they, to
re their ſafety, immediately agreed with him
troy the emperor. This reſolution was ſoon
execution; for, as the emperor paſſed with
all guard from Uraclea, in Thrace, towards
ntium, the conſpirators ſet upon him, and
him with little reſiſtance; in the 60th, or 63d
of his age, after a very active reign of almoſt
years.

(77.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE DEATH
TACITUS. The number of pretenders to the
e, which had formerly infeſted the empire,
, by the laſt monarch's activity, ſo entirely
ved, that there now ſeemed to be none that
ld venture to declare himſelf a candidate. The
; referred the choice to the ſenate; and, on
other ſide, the ſenate declined it; ſo that a
ſpace of near eight months elapſed in theſe nego-
ciations. At length, the ſenate made choice of
TACITUS, a man of great merit, and no way am-
bitious of the honour. Upon being ſolicited to
accept the empire, he at firſt refuſed, and retired
to his country-houſe in Campania, to avoid their
importunities; but being at length prevailed up-
on, he accepted the reins of government, being
at that time 75 years old. One of the firſt acts of
his government was the puniſhment of thoſe who
had conſpired againſt the late emperor. Meneſ-
thus was impaled alive, his body being thrown to
be devoured by wild beaſts; his eſtate alſo was
confiſcated to the exchequer; and his ready mo-
ney, which was conſiderable, applied towards
paying the army. During this ſhort reign, the
ſenate ſeemed to have a large ſhare of authority,
and the hiſtorians of the times are liberal of their
praiſes to ſuch emperors as were thus willing to
divide their power.—Upon endeavouring to ob-
tain the conſulſhip for his brother Probus, he was
refuſed it by the ſenate; at which he ſeemed no
way moved, but calmly remarked that the ſenate
beſt knew whom to chooſe. This moderation
prevailed in all his conduct: he was extremely
temperate; his table was plain, and furniſhed
with nothing expenſive; he even prohibited his
empreſs from wearing jewels, and forbad the uſe
of gold and embroidery. He was fond of learn-
ing, and the memory of ſuch men as had deſer-
ved well of their country. He particularly eſteem-
ed the works of his nameſake *Tacitus* the hiſtorian;
commanding that they ſhould be placed in every
public library throughout the empire, and that
many copies of them ſhould be tranſcribed at the
public charge. A reign begun with ſuch modera-
tion and juſtice, only wanted continuance to have
made the empire happy; but after enjoying the
empire about ſix months, he died of a fever in
his march to oppoſe the Perſians and Scythians,
who had invaded the eaſtern parts of the empire.

(78.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTIL THE MUR-
DER OF PROBUS. Upon the death of Tacitus the
army was divided; one part of it choſe Florianus,
brother to the deceaſed; but the majority were
for ſome time undetermined. They alleged the
neceſſity of chooſing one eminent for valour, ho-
nour, piety, clemency, and probity; but the laſt
virtue being that chiefly inſiſted upon, the whole
army cried out that Probus ſhould be emperor.
He was accordingly confirmed in this dignity with
the uſual ſolemnities; and Florianus finding him-
ſelf deſerted, even by thoſe legions who had pro-
miſed to ſtand up in his ſupport, opened his ar-
teries and bled himſelf to death. Probus was 44
years old when he aſcended the throne, being
born of noble parentage at Sirmium in Pannonia,
and bred up a ſoldier from his youth. He began
early to diſtinguiſh himſelf for his valour; being
often the firſt man, who in beſieging towns ſcaled
the walls, or burſt into the enemy's camp. He
was no leſs remarkable for ſingle combats, and
ſaving the lives of many eminent citizens. Nor
was his activity and courage, when elected to the
empire, leſs apparent, than in his private ſtation.
He firſt repreſſed the Germans in Gaul, of whom
he ſlew 400,000. He then marched into Dalma-
tia, to ſubdue the Sarmatians. Thence he led

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his forces into Thrace, and forced the Goths to sue for peace. He after that turned his arms towards Asia; subdued the province of Isauria; and marching onward, conquered a people called the *Blemyes*; who, leaving their native forests of Ethiopia, had possessed themselves of Arabia and Judea, and had continued in a state of rebellion since the reign of Gallienus. Narses also, king of Persia, submitted; and upon his return into Europe, he divided the depopulated parts of Thrace among its barbarous invaders, which however produced great calamities afterwards. His diligence was not less conspicuous in suppressing intestine commotions. Saturninus, being compelled by the Egyptians to declare himself emperor, was defeated and slain. Proculus also a person remarkable only for his great attachment to women, and who boasted that, having taken 100 Sarmatian virgins prisoners, he deprived ten of that name in one night, and all the rest within a fortnight) set up against the emperor; but was compelled to fly, and at length delivered up by the Germans. At the same time Conosus, (a remarkable votary of Bacchus, being able to drink as much wine as ten could do,) rebelled and being overcome hanged himself in despair. Probus, when he saw him immediately after, said "There hangs not a man but a cork." Still, however, notwithstanding every effort to give quiet to the empire, the barbarians kept it in continual alarms. They were often repulsed into their native wilds, but they returned with fresh rage and increased ferocity. The Goths and Vandals, finding the emperor engaged in quelling domestic disputes, renewed their accustomed inroads, but were conquered in several engagements; and Probus returned in triumph to Rome. His active temper, however, would not suffer him to continue at rest whilst a single enemy was left to conquer. In his last expedition he led his soldiers against the Persians; and going through Sirmium, the place of his nativity, he there employed several thousands of his soldiers in draining a fen that was incommodious to the inhabitants. The fatigues of this undertaking, and the great restraint that was laid upon the soldiers licentious manners produced a conspiracy, which ended in his ruin: for taking the opportunity as he was marching into Greece, they set upon and slew him, after he had reigned six years and four months with general approbation.

(79.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEATH OF CARUS, NUMERIAN, AND CARINUS. Carus, who was prætorian prefect to the deceased emperor, was chosen by the army to succeed him; and he, to strengthen his authority, named his two sons Carinus and Numerian with him in command; the former of whom was as much sullied by his vices, as the youngest was by his virtues. Carus had scarce time to punish the murderers of the late monarch, when he was alarmed by a fresh irruption of the Sarmatians; over whom he gained a signal victory. The Persian monarch also made some attempts upon the empire; but Carus assured his ambassadors, that if their master persisted in his obstinacy, all his fields should shortly be as bare as his own bald head. In consequence of this threat, he marched to the very walls of Ctesiphon, and a dreadful battle ensuing, he soon gained a complete victory. But he shortly after struck dead by lightning in his tent with many others around him. Numerian was inconsolable for his death; and brought on a disorder upon his eyes with weeping, that was obliged to be carried along with the army shut up in a close litter. The peculiarity of his situation, after some time, excited the envy of Aper, his father-in-law, who supposed that he could now, without danger, aim at the empire himself. He therefore hired a villain to murder the emperor in his litter; and to conceal the fact gave out that he was still alive, but unable to endure the light. In this manner was the dead body carried about for some days, Aper continuing to attend it with the utmost appearance of respect, and to take orders as usual. The offensiveness, however, of its smell at length discovered the treachery and excited an universal uproar throughout the army. In the midst of this tumult, Diocletian one of the most noted commanders of his time was chosen emperor, and with his own hand slew Aper; having thus, as it is said, fulfilled a prophecy, that he should be emperor after he had slain a boar; alluding to the name of his rival which signifies *a boar*. Carinus did not long survive his father and brother; for giving himself up to his vices, and opposing the new made emperor, the competitors led their forces into Mœsia where Diocletian being victorious, Carinus was slain by a tribune of his own army, whose wife he had formerly abused.

(80.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEATH OF DIOCLESIAN, AND MAXIMIAN. Diocletian was a person of mean birth; being the son of a scrivener, or of a slave. He received his name from Diocles, the town in which he was born, and was about 40 years old when he was elected emperor. He pardoned all who had joined Carinus, without injuring either their fortunes or honours. Conscious also that the weight of empire was too heavy for one alone to sustain, he took in Maximian; his general, as a partner in the fatigues of duty, making him his equal and companion on the throne. Thus mutually aiding each other, these two continued to live in the strictest friendship; and though somewhat different in temper, (as Maximian was rather a man of violent inclinations,) yet they concurred in promoting the general good, and humbling their enemies. And there never was a period in which there were more numerous or formidable enemies to oppose. The peasants and labourers in Gaul, made a dangerous insurrection, under Amandus and Elianus, but were subdued by Maximian. Achilleus, who commanded in Egypt, proclaimed himself emperor; and it was not without many bloody engagements that he was overcome, and condemned by Diocletian to be devoured by wild beasts. In Africa, the Roman legions, joined with numbers of the natives, seized upon the public revenues and plundered those who continued in their duty. These were also subdued by Maximian; and, after a long dubious war, constrained to sue for peace. About the same time, a principal commander in Britain, named CARAUSIUS, proclaimed himself emperor, and possessed himself of [illegible]

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iſland. To oppoſe this general, Maximian made choice of Conſtantius Chlorus, whom he created Cæſar, and married to Theodora his daughter-in-law. He, upon his arrival in Britain, finding Carauſius very ſtrong, and continually reinforced from Germany, came to an accommodation; ſo that this uſurper continued for 7 years in quiet poſſeſſion of the whole iſland, till he was ſlain by Allectus, his friend. About this time alſo, Narſes king of Perſia, began a dangerous war, and obliged Diocleſian to ſtop his progreſs upon this quarter, Diocleſian made choice of Galerius, (ſurnamed *Armentarius*,) and he likewiſe created Cæſar. His ſucceſs, alſo, was in the end determinated to his wiſhes. The Perſians were overcome in a deciſive engagement, their camp plundered and taken, and their king's wives and children made priſoners. There only remained, of all the enemies of the Roman empire, thoſe that lay to the northward unſubdued, Theſe were utterly invincible, as well upon account of their ſavage fierceneſs, as the inhoſpitable ſeverity of the climate and ſoil. Ever at war with the Romans, they iſſued forth, when the armies that came to repreſs their invaſions were called away; but upon their return, they as ſuddenly withdrew into cold, barren, and inacceſſible places, which the themſelves could endure. In this manner the Goths, Sarmatians, Alani, Quadi, &c. poured down in incredible numbers; while every deſerted but to increaſe their ſtrength and perſeverance. Of theſe, multitudes were taken priſoners, and ſent to people the more ſouthern parts of the empire; ſtill greater numbers were deſtroyed; and though the reſt were driven back into their native forefts, yet they perſevered in their deſperate enmity, and only continued inactive, till they got ready for a new encounter. During this interval, as if the external miſeries of the empire had not been ſufficient, the tenth and laſt general perſecution was renewed againſt the Chriſtians. This exceeded all the former in ſeverity; ſo much ſo was the zeal with which it was purſued, that, in an ancient inſcription, we are informed that they had effaced the name and ſuperſtition of the Chriſtians, and had reſtored the worſhip of the gods. Their attempts, however, were but the malicious efforts of an expiring party; for Chriſtianity ſoon after was eſtabliſhed by law, and triumphed over the malice of all its enemies. In the midſt of the troubles raiſed by this perſecution, and of the conteſts that ſtruck at the internal parts of the ſtate, Diocleſian and Maximian ſurprized the world by reſigning their dignities on the ſame day, and both retiring into private ſtations. Hiſtorians are much divided concerning the motives that thus induced them to give up ſuch honours which they had purchaſed with ſo much danger. Some aſcribe it to the philoſophical turn of Diocleſian; and others, to his being diſguſted with the obſtinacy of his Chriſtian ſubjects: but Lactantius aſſerts, that he was compelled to it, together with his partner, by Galerius, who coming to Nicomedia, upon the emperor's recovery from a great ſickneſs, threatened him with a civil war in caſe he refuſed to reſign. However, he ſtill preſerved ſuch a dignity of ſentiment in his retirement, that might induce us to believe he had no other motive for reſignation than the love of quiet, and the conſciouſneſs of his inability to diſcharge on a ſick-bed the duties of a ſovereign. Having retired to his birth-place, he ſpent his time in cultivating his garden, aſſuring his viſitors that then only he began to enjoy the world, when he was thought by the reſt of mankind to forſake it. When ſome attempted to perſuade him to reſume the empire, he replied, That if they knew his preſent happineſs, they would rather endeavour to imitate than diſturb it. In this contented manner he lived ſome time, and at laſt died either by poiſon or madneſs. His reign, which continued 20 years, was active and uſeful; and his authority, tinctured with ſeverity, was well adapted to the depraved ſtate of morals at that time. Maximian, his partner in the empire, and in reſignation, was by no means ſo contented. He longed once more for power, and diſturbed the two ſucceeding reigns with various efforts to reſume it. Being obliged to leave Rome, where he had bred great confuſion, he went over into Gaul, where he was kindly received by Conſtantine, then acknowledged emperor of the weſt. But here alſo continuing his intrigues, and endeavouring to force his own daughter and deſtroy her huſband, he was detected, and condemned to die by whatever death he ſhould think proper; and Lactantius tells us that he choſe hanging.

(81.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEATH OF CONSTANTIUS CHLORUS. Upon the reſignation of the two emperors, the two Cæſars were univerſally acknowledged as their ſucceſſors, Conſtantius Chlorus, ſo called from the plainneſs of his complexion, was virtuous, valiant, and merciful. Galerius was brave, but brutal, incontinent, and cruel. As there was ſuch a diſparity in their tempers, they agreed to divide the empire; Conſtantius being appointed to govern the weſtern parts; namely, Italy, Sicily, the greateſt part of Africa, together with Spain, Gaul, Britain, and Germany: Galerius had the eaſtern parts; to wit, Illyricum, Pannonia, Thrace, Macedonia, all the provinces of Greece, and the Leſſer Aſia with Egypt, Syria, Judea, and all the countries eaſtward. The greatneſs of the diviſion, however, ſoon induced the emperors to take in two partners more, Severus and Maximin, who were made Cæſars, and aſſiſted in the conducting of affairs; ſo that the empire now was under the guidance of four perſons, all inveſted with ſupreme authority. We are informed but of few particulars of the reign of Conſtantius except a detail of his character, which appears in every light moſt amiable. (See CONSTANTIUS I.) In the 2d year of his reign he went over into Britain; and leaving his ſon Conſtantine as a kind of hoſtage in the court of his partner in the empire, took up his reſidence at York. He there continued in the practice of his uſual virtues; till falling ſick, he began to think of appointing his ſon for his ſucceſſor. He accordingly ſent for him with all ſpeed; but he was paſt recovery before his arrival: however, he received him with marks of the utmoſt affection, and raiſing himſelf in his bed, gave him ſeveral uſeful inſtructions. He then bequeathed the empire

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pire to his care; and crying out, that none but the pious Conſtantine ſhould ſucceed him, he expired in his arms.

(82.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEATH OF GALERIUS. In the mean time, Galerius, Conſtantius's partner in the empire, being informed of Conſtantine's advancement, teſtified the moſt ungovernable rage, and was even going to condemn the meſſenger who brought him the account: but being diſſuaded, he ſeemed to acquieſce in what he could not prevent, and ſent him the marks of royalty; but at the ſame time declared Severus emperor, in oppoſition to his intereſts. About this time alſo, another pretender to the empire ſtarted up. This was Maxentius, who was very much favoured by the ſoldiers, whom he permitted to pillage at diſcretion. To oppoſe Maxentius, Severus led a numerous army towards the gates of Rome; but his ſoldiers conſidering againſt whom they were to fight, immediately abandoned him; and ſhortly after he put an end to his own life, by opening his veins. To revenge his death, Galerius marched into Italy, reſolving to ruin the inhabitants, and to deſtroy the whole ſenate. His ſoldiers, however, upon approaching the capital began to waver in their reſolutions: wherefore he had recourſe to intreaties, imploring them not to abandon him; and, retiring, made Licinius, the ſon of a poor labourer in Dacia, Cæſar, in the room of Severus. Soon after, he was ſeized with a very extraordinary diſorder in his privities, which baffled all the ſkill of his phyſicians, and carried him off, after he had languiſhed in torments for near a year. His cruelty to the Chriſtians was one of the many crimes alleged againſt him; but he abated much of his ſeverities againſt them on his deathbed; and revoked all his edicts tending to their perſecution, a little before his death.

(83.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEATH OF MAXENTIUS. Conſtantine, being thus delivered from his greateſt opponent, now poſſeſſed more power than any of his rivals. The empire was at that time divided between him and three others: Maxentius, who governed in Rome, a perſon of a cruel diſpoſition, and a ſtedfaſt ſupporter of paganiſm; Licinius, who was adopted by Galerius, and commanded in the eaſt; and Maximin, who had formerly been declared Cæſar with Severus, and who alſo governed ſome of the eaſtern provinces. For ſome time all things ſeemed to wear a peaceful appearance: till either ambition, or the tyrannical conduct of Maxentius, induced Conſtantine to engage in an expedition to expel that commander from Rome, and to make the proper preparations for marching into Italy. Upon this occaſion he formed a reſolution which produced a mighty change in the politics as well as the morals of mankind, and gave a new turn to the councils of the wiſe, and the purſuits of ambition. One evening, as we are told by Euſebius, the army being upon its march toward Rome, Conſtantine was taken up with various conſiderations upon the fate of ſublunary things, and the dangers of his approaching expedition: ſenſible of his own incapacity to ſucceed without divine aſſiſtance, he employed his meditations upon the opinions that then were chiefly agitated among mankind, and ſent up his ejaculations to heaven to inſpire him with wiſdom to chooſe the path he ought to purſue. It was then, as the ſun was declining, that there ſuddenly appeared a pillar of light in the heavens, in the form of a croſs, with this inſcription, ΤΟΤΤΩ ΝΙΚΗ, *In this overcome*. So extraordinary an appearance aſtoniſhed the emperor and his whole army, who conſidered it as their diſpoſitions led them to believe. The who were attached to paganiſm, prompted their auſpices, pronounced it a moſt inauſpicious omen, portending the moſt unfortunate event. But it made a different impreſſion on the emperor's mind; who was farther encouraged by viſions the ſame night. He therefore, the following, cauſed a royal ſtandard to be made like that which he had ſeen in the heavens; and commanded it to be carried before him in wars, as an enſign of victory and celeſtial protection. After this, he conſulted with ſeveral the principal teachers of Chriſtianity, and made a public avowal of that ſacred perſuaſion. Conſtantine having thus attached his ſoldiers to intereſt, who were moſtly Chriſtians, loſt no in entering Italy with 90,000 foot and 8000 h and ſoon advanced to the very gates of Rome. Maxentius, who had long given himſelf up eaſe and debauchery, now began to make preparations when it was too late. He firſt put in practice all the ſuperſtitious rites which paganiſm taught to be neceſſary; and then conſulted the Sibylline books; from whence he was informed that on that great day the enemy of Rome ſhould periſh. This prediction, which was equivocal, he applied to Conſtantine; wherefore, leaving things in the beſt poſture, he advanced from the city with an army of 190,000 foot and 18,000 horſe. The engagement was for ſome time long and bloody, till his cavalry being routed, victory declared upon the ſide of his opponent, and himſelf was drowned in his flight by the breaking down of a bridge as he attempted to croſs the river Tiber.

(84.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEATH OF MAXIMIN. Conſtantine, in conſequence of this victory, entering the city, diſclaimed the praiſes which the ſenate and people were ready to offer; aſcribing his ſucceſs to a ſuperior power. He even cauſed the croſs, which he was ſaid to have ſeen in the heavens, to be placed at the head of all his ſtatues, with this inſcription: "This under the influence of that victorious croſs, Conſtantine had delivered the city from the yoke of tyrannical power, and had reſtored the ſenate and people of Rome to their ancient authority." He afterwards ordained, that no criminal ſhould for the future ſuffer death by the croſs; which had formerly been the moſt uſual way of puniſhing ſlaves convicted of capital offences. Edicts were ſoon after iſſued, declaring that the Chriſtians ſhould be eaſed from all their grievances, and received into places of truſt and authority. Thus the new religion at once prevailed over the whole Roman empire. Things continued in this ſtate for ſome time, Conſtantine all the while contributing what was in his power to the intereſt of religion, and the revival of learning, which had long been on the decline, and was almoſt wholly extinct

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the empire. But in the midſt of theſe aſſiduities, the peace of the empire was again diſturbed by the preparations of Maximin, who governed in the eaſt, and who, deſirous of a full participation of power, marched againſt Licinius with a very numerous army. In conſequence of this ſtep, after many conflicts, a general engagement enſued, in which Maximin ſuffered a total defeat; many of his troops were cut to pieces, and thoſe that ſurvived ſubmitted to the conqueror. Maximin, however, having eſcaped the general carnage, once more put himſelf at the head of another army, reſolving to try the fortune of the field; but death prevented his deſign. As he died by a very extraordinary fit of madneſs, the Chriſtians, of whom he was the declared enemy, aſcribed his end to a judgment from heaven.

(85.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEFEAT AND DEATH OF LICINIUS. Conſtantine and Licinius thus remaining undiſputed poſſeſſors and partners in the empire, all things promiſed a peaceable continuance of friendſhip and power. However, it was ſoon found, that ambition would be content with nothing leſs than the whole. Pagan writers aſcribe the rupture between theſe two potentates to Conſtantine; while the Chriſtians, on the other hand, impute it wholly to Licinius. Both, perhaps, might have concurred; for Licinius perſecuted Chriſtianity, which was ſo highly favoured by his rival; and Conſtantine was the more to prepare for an open rupture. Both ſides exerted all their power to make oppoſition; and at the head of very formidable armies, came to an engagement near Cybalis, in Pannonia. Conſtantine, previous to the battle, in the midſt of his Chriſtian biſhops, begged the aſſiſtance of heaven; while Licinius, with equal zeal, called on the pagan prieſts to intercede with the gods for his favour. Conſtantine, after an obſtinate reſiſtance from the enemy, became victorious; took the camp; and, after ſome time, compelled Licinius to ſue for a truce, which was agreed upon. But this was of no long continuance; for ſoon after the war breaking out afreſh, and the rivals coming once more to a general engagement, it proved deciſive. Licinius was entirely defeated, and purſued by Conſtantine into Nicomedia, where he ſurrendered himſelf up to the victor; having firſt obtained an oath that his life ſhould be ſpared, and that he ſhould be permitted to paſs the remainder of his days in retirement. He, however, Conſtantine ſhortly after broke; either fearing his deſigns, or finding him actively engaged in freſh conſpiracies, he commanded him to be put to death, together with Martian his general, who ſome time before had been created Ceſar.

(86.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE REMOVAL OF THE SEAT OF EMPIRE TO CONSTANTINOPLE. Conſtantine being now ſole monarch of the empire, without a rival to divide his power, and any perſon from whoſe claims he could have the leaſt apprehenſions, reſolved to eſtabliſh Chriſtianity on ſo ſure a baſis, that no new regulations could ſhake it. He commanded that in all the provinces of the empire the orders of the biſhops ſhould be exactly obeyed; a privilege of which, in ſucceeding times, theſe fathers made a very bad uſe. He called alſo a general council of theſe, to meet at Nicea, to repreſs the hereſies that had already crept into the church, particularly that of Arius. To this place repaired about 318 biſhops, beſides a multitude of preſbyters and deacons, together with the emperor himſelf; who all, to about 17, concurred in condemning the tenets of Arius; who, with his aſſociates, was baniſhed into a remote part of the empire. Having thus reſtored univerſal tranquillity to the empire, he was not able to ward off calamities of a more domeſtic nature. As the hiſtories of that period are entirely at variance with each other, it is not eaſy to tell the motives which induced him to put his wife Fauſta and his ſon Criſpus to death. The moſt plauſible account is this: Fauſta the empreſs, who was a woman of great beauty, but of extravagant deſires, had long, though ſecretly, loved Criſpus, Conſtantine's ſon by a former wife. She had tried every art to inſpire this youth with a mutual paſſion; but, finding her more diſtant efforts ineffectual, had even the impudence to make him an open confeſſion of her deſires. Criſpus received her addreſſes with deteſtation; and ſhe, in revenge accuſed him to the emperor. Conſtantine, fired at once with jealouſy and rage, ordered him to die without a hearing; nor did his innocence appear till it was too late for redreſs. The only reparation therefore that remained, was the putting Fauſta, the wicked inſtrument of his former cruelty, to death; which was accordingly executed upon her, with ſome others who had been accomplices in her falſehood and treachery. But the private misfortunes of a few were not to be weighed againſt the evils of a more general nature, which the Roman empire ſoon after experienced. Theſe aroſe from a meaſure which this emperor conceived and executed, of transferring the ſeat of the empire from Rome to CONSTANTINOPLE. (See that article.) The empire had long before been in the moſt declining ſtate; but this gave precipitation to its downfal. After this it never reſumed its former ſplendour.

(87.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEATH OF CONSTANTINE THE GREAT. This removal produced no immediate alteration in the government of the empire; the inhabitants of Rome, though with reluctance, ſubmitted to the change; nor was there for ſeveral years any diſturbance in the ſtate, until the Goths, finding that the Romans had withdrawn all their garriſons along the Danube, renewed their inroads, and ravaged the country with unheard of cruelty. Conſtantine, however, ſoon repreſſed their incurſions, and ſo ſtraitened them, that near 100,000 of their number periſhed by cold and hunger. Theſe and ſome other inſurrections being ſuppreſſed, the government of the empire was divided as follows. Conſtantine, the emperor's eldeſt ſon, commanded in Gaul and the weſtern provinces; Conſtantius governed Africa and Illyricum; and Conſtans ruled in Italy. Dalmatius, the emperor's brother, was ſent to defend thoſe parts that bordered upon the Goths; and Annibalianus, his nephew, had the charge of Cappadocia and Armenia Minor. This diviſion of the empire ſtill farther contributed to its downfal: for the united ſtrength of the ſtate being no longer brought to repreſs

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repreſs invaſions, the barbarians fought with ſuperior numbers; and conquered at laſt, though often defeated. Conſtantine, however, did not live to feel theſe calamities. The latter part of his reign was peaceful and ſplendid; ambaſſadors from the remoteſt Indies came to acknowledge his authority; the Perſians, who were ready for freſh inroads, upon finding him prepared to oppoſe, ſent humbly to deſire his friendſhip and forgiveneſs. He was above 60 years old, and had reigned above 30 years, when he found his health began to decline. To obviate the effects of his diſorder, which was an intermitting fever, he made uſe of the warm baths of the city; but receiving no benefit from thence, he removed for change of air to Helenopolis, a city which he had built to the memory of his mother. His diſorder increaſing, he chanced again to Nicomedia; where finding himſelf without hopes of recovery, he cauſed himſelf to be baptized; and having ſoon after received the ſacrament, he expired, after a memorable and active reign of 32 years. This monarch's character is repreſented to us in very different lights, the Chriſtian writers of that time all praiſe it, with every ſtrain of panegyric; the heathens, on the contrary, load it with all the invectives of invective. He eſtabliſhed a religion that confounds the underſtanding of mankind; but purſued a ſcheme of politics that deſtroyed the empire.

(88.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEATH OF VALENTINIAN I. From the time of Conſtantine to the diviſion of the empire between Valentinian and his brother Valens, the hiſtory of Rome is related under the article CONSTANTINOPLE, § 4—8. In the beginning of the reign of Valentinian, the province of Libya Tripolitana was grievouſly oppreſſed by the barbarians of the deſert, and almoſt equally ſo by Romanus its own governor. His conduct was ſo exceedingly oppreſſive, that the inhabitants ſent a deputation to Valentinian, complaining of their unhappy ſituation, and deſiring redreſs. Palladius was accordingly ſent to inquire into the ſtate of the province; but being gained over by Romanus, he made a falſe report to the emperor; and thus the unhappy province was left a prey to the mercileſs invaders and rapacious governor. During the reſt of this reign the barbarians continued their inroads into the empire; and among others, the Saxons put in for a ſhare of the ſpoils of the ruined empire: however, their army was at this time entirely cut off. At laſt Valentinian himſelf took the field againſt theſe northern barbarians; and entering the country of the Quadi, deſtroyed all with fire and ſword. The barbarians on this were fain to ſue for peace; but Valentinian, falling into a great paſſion while ſpeaking to them, threatened to extirpate the whole nation at once. His fury on this occaſion produced an apoplexy, for he ſuddenly fell down, and being conveyed by his attendants into his chamber, he was ſeized with violent convulſive fits and contortions of all his limbs, in the agonies of which he expired, in the year 375, the 55th of his age, and 12th of his reign.

(89.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEFEAT OF ALARIC, BY STILICHO. After the death of Valentinian, his ſon Gratian took upon him the imperial dignity; ſoon after becoming maſter of the whole empire by the death of Valens. The tranſactions of his reign, and thoſe of his partner Theodoſius, the reader will find related under the article CONSTANTINOPLE, § 8. The death of Theodoſius gave the finiſhing ſtroke to the Roman affairs; his ſon Honorius, to whom he left the weſtern empire, being poſſeſſed of no abilities whatever. The barbarians appear to have been abundantly ſenſible of the advantages offered them by the death of Theodoſius. He died in January, and before ſpring, the Goths were in arms. The barbarian auxiliaries alſo now declared their independency; and along with their countrymen, aſſiſted the declining empire. The Goths were now headed by an experienced commander, the celebrated king ALARIC; who would have proved formidable even in better times of the empire. He firſt over-ran Greece, which he accompliſhed without oppoſition, through the treachery of the governor, who commanded the troops that guarded the paſs at Thermopylæ to retire at the approach of the enemy. Athens, Corinth, Argos, Sparta, yielded without reſiſtance; and the whole country was ravaged and deſtroyed by the blood-thirſty barbarians. At laſt, in the year 397, he was oppoſed by Stilicho, the general of Honorius, a man of great valour and experience in war. The Goths were defeated with great loſs, and ſurrounded beſieged in their camp; but through the want of vigilance in the Roman commanders they were ſuffered to eſcape, and make themſelves maſters of the province of Epirus. Alaric there having found means to conclude a treaty with the miniſters of Conſtantinople, Stilicho was obliged to retire. Not long after this, Alaric invaded Italy itſelf. The emperor, ſtruck with terror, was about to have abandoned the country and fled into Gaul; but this deſigned and pernicious meaſure was oppoſed by Stilicho; who propoſed to the emperor Honorius, at that time at Milan, that if he would maintain their ground during his abſence, he would ſoon return with an army capable of oppoſing the barbarians. This being agreed to, Stilicho immediately ſet out for Rhætia, where the moſt conſiderable body of the Roman forces at the time was, and collected his troops with the utmoſt diligence. But in the mean time Honorius was in the greateſt danger; having been obliged to take refuge in the town of Aſta in Piedmont. To this place the Goths inſtantly laid ſiege, and a capitulation had been propoſed, when the drooping ſpirits of Honorius were at once revived by the arrival of Stilicho, whom he had ſo long expected. The Goths were now beſieged in their turn, and obliged to come to a deciſive battle at Pollentia. The engagement laſted the whole day; but at laſt the Goths were compelled to retire. Their camp was inſtantly inveſted; their entrenchments forced with great ſlaughter; the wife of Alaric was taken, with all the wealth which he had been amaſſed in plundering Greece; while many thouſands of the Roman priſoners were releaſed from the moſt deplorable ſlavery. The victory, however, was not ſo deciſive but that Alaric continued ſtill extremely formidable; and Stilicho choſe rather to conclude a treaty with him, and allow him an annual penſion, than to continue the war with vigour. Alaric, who was not leſs ſcrupulous

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ſcrupulous in his obſervance of this treaty, in his retreat attempted to make himſelf maſter of the city of Verona: but Stilicho coming up with him near that place, gave him a terrible defeat, in which the loſs was little leſs than it had been at Pollentia; after which he effected a retreat out of Italy, but not without the greateſt difficulty and danger.

(90.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEFEAT OF RADAGAISUS, BY STILICHO. Italy being thus happily delivered, Honorius entered Rome in triumph, having Stilicho along with him in the triumphal chariot. On his entry into the city, he aboliſhed the ſhows of gladiators; which, tho' forbidden by Conſtantine, had been tolerated by his ſucceſſors, and even by Theodoſius himſelf, out of complaiſance to the people, who were beyond meaſure fond of that inhuman diverſion. However, ſoon after, the emperor was obliged to leave the metropolis and retire to Ravenna, to ſecure himſelf from the barbarians, who now broke in upon the empire on all ſides. Such multitudes now made their appearance, that it is difficult to account for their ſudden emigration. Mr Gibbon accounts for it from a ſuppoſed revolution in the NE. parts of China; for which we refer the inquiſitive reader to his work. We ſhall only note what relates to the invaſion of Italy. "The inhabitants of thoſe regions, (ſays he,) which the Romans have aſſigned to the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Burgundians, might embrace the reſolution of abandoning to the fugitives of Sarmatia the woods and moraſſes; or at leaſt of diſcharging their ſuperfluous numbers on the provinces of the Roman empire. About 4 years after the victorious Toulun had aſſumed the title of *khan of khans*, Geougen another barbarian, the haughty Rhodagaſt, or Radagaiſus, marched from the northern extremities of Germany almoſt to the gates of Rome, and left the remains of his army to attend the deſtruction of the weſt. The Vandals, the Suevi, and the Burgundians, formed the ſtrength of this mighty hoſt: but the Alani, who had found an hoſpitable reception in their new ſeats, added their active cavalry to the heavy infantry of the Germans: and the Gothic adventurers crowded ſo eagerly to the ſtandard of Radagaiſus, that by ſome hiſtorians he has been ſtyled *the king of the Goths*: 12,000 warriors, diſtinguiſhed above the vulgar by their noble birth or their martial deeds, glittered in the van; and the whole multitude, which was not leſs than 200,000 fighting men, might be increaſed by the acceſſion of women, of children, and of ſlaves, to the amount of 400,000 perſons. This formidable emigration iſſued from the ſame coaſt of the Baltic which had poured forth the myriads of the Cimbri and Teutones to aſſault Rome and Italy in the vigour of the republic. After the departure of thoſe barbarians, their native country, which was marked by the veſtiges of their greatneſs, long ramparts, and gigantic moles, remained during ſome ages a deſert and dreary ſolitude; till the human ſpecies was renewed by the powers of generation, and the vacancy was filled up by the influx of new inhabitants. The ſafety of Rome was intruſted to the counſels and the ſword of Stilicho; but ſuch was the feeble and exhauſted ſtate of the empire, that it was impoſſible to reſtore the fortifications of the Danube, or to prevent, by a vigorous effort, the invaſion of the Germans. The hopes of the vigilant miniſter of Honorius were confined to the defence of Italy. He once more abandoned the provinces; recalled the troops; preſſed the new levies, which were rigorouſly exacted, and puſillanimouſly eluded; employed the moſt efficacious means to arreſt or allure the deſerters; and offered the gift of freedom, and of two pieces of gold, to all the ſlaves who would enliſt. By theſe efforts he painfully collected from the ſubjects of a great empire an army of 30,000 or 40,000 men; which, in the days of Scipio or Camillus, would have been inſtantly furniſhed by the free citizens of the territory of Rome. The 30 legions of Stilicho were reinforced by a large body of barbarian auxiliaries; the faithful Alani were perſonally attached to his ſervice; and the troops of Huns and of Goths, who marched under the banners of their native princes, Hulden and Sarus, were animated by intereſt and reſentment to oppoſe the ambition of Radagaiſus. The king of the confederate Germans paſſed, without reſiſtance, the Alps, the Po, and the Appennines, leaving on one hand the inacceſſible palace of Honorius, ſecurely buried among the marſhes of Ravenna; and on the other, the camp of Stilicho, who had fixed his head-quarters at Ticinum, or Pavia, but who ſeems to have avoided a deciſive battle till he had aſſembled his diſtant forces. Many cities of Italy were pillaged, or deſtroyed; and the ſiege of Florence by Radagaiſus is one of the earlieſt events in the hiſtory of that celebrated republic, whoſe firmneſs checked and delayed the unſkilful fury of the barbarians. The ſenate and people trembled at their approach within 180 miles of Rome; and anxiouſly compared the danger which they had eſcaped with the new perils to which they were expoſed. Alaric was a Chriſtian, and a ſoldier, the leader of a diſciplined army; who underſtood the laws of war, who reſpected the ſanctity of treaties, and who had familiarly converſed with the ſubjects of the empire in the ſame camps and the ſame churches. The ſavage Radagaiſus was a ſtranger to the manners, the religion, and even the language, of the civilized nations of the ſouth. The fierceneſs of his temper was exaſperated by cruel ſuperſtition; and it was univerſally believed, that he had bound himſelf by a ſolemn vow to reduce the city into a heap of ſtones and aſhes, and to ſacrifice the moſt illuſtrious of the Roman ſenators on the altars of thoſe gods who were appeaſed by human blood. Florence was reduced to the laſt extremity. On a ſudden they beheld from their walls the banners of Stilicho, who advanced with his united forces to the relief of the faithful city; and who ſoon marked that fatal ſpot for the grave of the barbarian hoſt. The apparent contradictions of thoſe writers who variouſly relate the defeat of Radagaiſus, may be reconciled without offering much violence to their reſpective teſtimonies. Their extravagant aſſertion, that not a ſingle ſoldier of the Chriſtian army was killed, or even wounded, may be diſmiſſed; but the reſt of the narrative of

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Auguſtin and Oroſius is conſiſtent with the ſtate of the war and the character of Stilicho. Conſcious that he commanded the laſt army of the republic, his prudence would not expoſe it in the open field to the headſtrong fury of the Germans. The method of ſurrounding the enemy with ſtrong lines of circumvallation, which he had twice employed againſt the Gothic king, was repeated on a larger ſcale, and with more conſiderable effect. The example of Cæſar muſt have been familiar to the moſt illiterate of the Roman warriors; and the fortifications of Dyrrhachium, which connected 24 caſtles by a perpetual ditch and rampart of 15 miles, afforded the model of an intrenchment, which might confine and ſtarve the moſt numerous hoſt of barbarians. The impriſoned multitude of horſes and men was gradually deſtroyed by famine, rather than by the ſword; but the Romans were expoſed, during the progreſs of ſuch an extenſive work, to the frequent attacks of an impatient enemy. The deſpair of the hungry barbarians would precipitate them againſt the fortifications of Stilicho; the general might ſometimes indulge the ardour of his brave auxiliaries, who eagerly preſſed to aſſault the camp of the Germans; and theſe various incidents might produce the ſharp and bloody conflicts which dignify the narrative of Zoſimus, and the Chronicles of Proſper and Marcellinus. A ſeaſonable ſupply of men and proviſions had been introduced into the walls of Florence; and the famiſhed hoſt of Radagaiſus was in its turn beſieged. The proud monarch of ſo many warlike nations, after the loſs of his braveſt warriors, was reduced to confide either in the faith of a capitulation, or in the clemency of Stilicho. But the death of the royal captive, who was ignominiouſly beheaded, diſgraced the triumph of Rome and of Chriſtianity; and the ſhort delay of his execution was ſufficient to brand the conqueror with the guilt of cool and deliberate cruelty. The famiſhed Germans who eſcaped the fury of the auxiliaries were ſold as ſlaves, at the contemptible price of as many ſingle pieces of gold: but the difference of food and climate ſwept away great numbers of thoſe unhappy ſtrangers; and it was obſerved, that the inhuman purchaſers, inſtead of reaping the fruit of their labours, were ſoon obliged to add to it the expence of interring them. Stilicho informed the emperor and the ſenate of his ſucceſs; and deſerved a 2d time the glorious title of *Deliverer of Italy.*"

(91.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO THE DEATH OF STILICHO. "The fame of Stilicho's victory (continues Mr Gibbon) has encouraged a vain perſuaſion, that the whole army, or rather nation, of Germans, who migrated from the ſhores of the Baltic, miſerably periſhed under the walls of Florence. Such indeed was the fate of Radagaiſus himſelf, of his brave and faithful companions, and of more than one third of the various multitude of Sueves and Vandals, of Alani and Burgundians, who adhered to the ſtandard of their general. The union of ſuch an army might excite our ſurpriſe, but the cauſes of ſeparation are obvious and forcible; they were the pride of birth, the inſolence of valour, the jealouſy of command, the impatience of ſubordination, and the obſtinate conflict of opinions, of intereſts, and of paſſions, among ſo many kings and warriors, who were untaught to yield or to obey. After the defeat of Radagaiſus, two parts of the German hoſt, which muſt have exceeded the number of 100,000 men, ſtill remained in arms between the Apennines and the Alps, or between the Alps and the Danube. It is uncertain whether they attempted to revenge the death of their general; but their irregular fury was ſoon diverted by the prudence and firmneſs of Stilicho, who oppoſed their march, and facilitated their retreat; who conſidered the ſafety of Rome and Italy as the great object of his care, and who ſacrificed without too much indifference the wealth and tranquillity of the diſtant provinces. The barbarians accordingly, from the junction of ſome Pannonian deſerters, the knowledge of the country and of the roads, and the invaſion of Gaul, which Alaric had deſigned, was executed by the remains of the great army of Radagaiſus. The Alemanni preſerved a ſtate of inactive neutrality; and the Franks diſtinguiſhed their zeal and courage in the defence of the empire. In the rapid progreſs down the Rhine, which was the firſt act of the adminiſtration of Stilicho, he had applied himſelf with particular attention to ſecure the alliance of the Franks, and to remove the irreconcilable enemies of peace and of the republic. Within the limits of Gaul and Germany were ſtill left by the northern emigration, the Franks firſt boldly encountered the ſingle force of the Vandals, who had again ſeparated their troops from the ſtandard of their barbarian allies. They paid the penalty of their raſhneſs: and 20,000 Vandals, with their king Godegiſelus, were ſlain in the field of battle. The whole people muſt have been extirpated, if the ſquadrons of the Alani, advancing to their relief, had not trampled down the victory of the Franks; who, after an honourable reſiſtance, were compelled to relinquiſh the unequal conteſt. The victorious confederates purſued their march; and on the laſt day of the year, a ſeaſon when the waters of the Rhine were probably frozen, they entered without oppoſition the defenceleſs provinces of Gaul. This memorable paſſage of the Suevi, the Vandals, the Alani, and the Burgundians, who never afterwards retreated, may be conſidered as *the fall of the German empire* in the countries beyond the Alps and the barriers, which had ſo long ſeparated the ſavage and the civilized nations of the earth, were from that fatal moment levelled with the ground. While the peace of Germany was ſecured by the attachment of the Franks and the neutrality of the Alemanni, the ſubjects of Rome, unconſcious of their approaching calamities, enjoyed a ſcene of quiet and proſperity, which had ſeldom bleſſed the frontiers of Gaul. This ſcene of peace and plenty was ſuddenly changed into a deſert, and the proſpect of the ſmoking ruins could alone diſtinguiſh the ſolitude of nature from the deſolation of man. The flouriſhing city of Mentz was ſurpriſed and deſtroyed; and many thouſand Chriſtians were inhumanly maſſacred in the church. Worms periſhed after a long and obſtinate ſiege. Straſburg, Spires, Rheims, Tournay, Arras, Amiens, experienced the moſt cruel oppreſſion. The

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the German yoke; and the conſuming flames of war ſpread from the banks of the Rhine over the greateſt part of the 17 provinces of Gaul. That rich and extenſive country, as far as the Ocean, the Alps, and the Pyrenees, was delivered to the barbarians, who drove before them in a promiſcuous crowd, the biſhop, the ſenator, and the virgin, laden with the ſpoils of their houſes and farms. In the midſt of theſe calamities a revolt happened in Britain, where one CONSTANTINE, a common ſoldier, was raiſed to the imperial throne, merely for the ſake of his name. However, he ſeems to have been a man of conſiderable abilities, and by no means unfit for the high dignity to which he was raiſed. He governed Britain with great proſperity; paſſed over into Gaul and Spain, the inhabitants of which ſubmitted without oppoſition, being glad of any protector whatever from the barbarians. Honorius, incapable of defending the empire, or repreſſing the uſurper, was obliged to acknowledge him for his partner in the empire. In the mean time, Alaric, with his Goths, threatened a new invaſion unleſs he was paid a certain ſum of money. Stilicho is ſaid to have occaſioned this demand, and to have inſiſted upon ſending him the money he demanded; and this was the cauſe of his diſgrace and death, which happened ſoon after, with the exile of his family and friends. Nay, ſuch was the general hatred of this unfortunate miniſter, that the ſoldiers quartered in the cities of Italy no ſooner heard of his death, than they murdered the wives and children of the barbarians whom Stilicho had taken into the ſervice of Honorius. The enraged huſbands went over to Alaric, who made a new demand of money; which being readily ſent, he laid ſiege to Rome, and would have taken it, had not the emperor complied with his demand. The ranſom of the city was 5000 lb. of gold, 30,000 of ſilver, 4000 ſilk garments, 3000 ſkins dyed purple, and 3000 lb. of pepper. On this occaſion the heathen temples were ſtripped of their remaining ornaments, and among others of the ſtatue of Valour; which the Romans did not fail to interpret as a preſage of the ſpeedy ruin of the ſtate.

(92.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO ITS CAPTURE AND BURNING BY ALARIC. Alaric having received this treaſure, departed for a ſhort time: but ſoon after he again blocked up the city with a numerous army; and again an accommodation with Honorius was ſet on foot. However, for ſome reaſons which do not clearly appear, the treaty was broken off, Rome was a third time beſieged, and at laſt taken and plundered. Alaric, when upon the point of breaking into the city, addreſſing his ſoldiers, told them, that all the wealth in it was theirs, and therefore he gave them full liberty to ſeize it; but at the ſame time ſtrictly enjoined them to ſhed the blood of none but ſuch as they ſhould find in arms; and above all, to ſpare thoſe who ſhould take ſanctuary in the holy places, eſpecially in the churches of the apoſtles St Peter and St Paul; which he named, becauſe they were moſt ſpacious, and conſequently capable of affording an aſylum to great numbers of people. Having given theſe orders, he abandoned the city to his Goths, who treated it no better, according to St Jerome, than the Greeks are ſaid to have treated ancient Troy; for after having plundered it for the ſpace of three, or, as others will have it, of ſix days, they ſet fire to it in ſeveral places; ſo that the ſtately palace of Salluſt, and many other magnificent buildings, were reduced to aſhes; nay, Procopius writes, that there was not in the whole city one houſe left entire; and both St Jerome and Philoſtorgius aſſert, that the great metropolis of the empire was reduced to an heap of aſhes and ruins. Though many of the Goths, purſuant to the orders of their general, refrained from ſhedding the blood of ſuch as made no reſiſtance; yet others, more cruel and blood-thirſty, maſſacred all they met: ſo that the ſtreets in ſome quarters of the city were ſeen covered with dead bodies, and ſwimming in blood. However, not the leaſt injury was offered to thoſe who fled to the churches; nay, the Goths themſelves conveyed thither, as to places of ſafety, ſuch as they were deſirous ſhould be ſpared. Many of the ſtatues of the gods that had been left entire by the emperors as excellent pieces of art, were on this occaſion deſtroyed, either by the Goths, who, though moſtly Arians, were zealous Chriſtians, or by a dreadful ſtorm of thunder and lightning which fell at the ſame time upon the city, as if it had been ſent on purpoſe to complete with them the deſtruction of idolatry, and aboliſh the ſmall remains of pagan ſuperſtition. However, ſome affirm that the city ſuffered very little at this time, not ſo much as when it was taken by Charles V.

(93.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO ITS CAPTURE AND PILLAGE BY GENSERIC. Alaric did not long ſurvive the taking of Rome, being cut off by a violent fit of ſickneſs in the neighbourhood of Rhegium. After his death the affairs of Honorius ſeemed a little to revive by the defeat and death of Conſtantine and ſome other uſurpers; but the provinces of Gaul, Britain, and Spain, were now almoſt entirely occupied by barbarians; in which ſtate they continued till the death of Honorius, which happened in the year 423, after an unfortunate reign of 28 years. After ſome uſurpations which took place on the death of Honorius, his nephew Valentinian III. was declared emperor of the weſt, and his mother Placidia regent during his minority. He was ſcarce ſeated on the throne, when the empire was attacked by the Huns under the celebrated Attila. The Romans, however, wretched and degenerate as they were, had they been unanimous, would even yet have been ſuperior to their enemies. The empreſs then had two celebrated generals, Bonifacius and Aetius; who by their union might have ſaved the empire: but unhappily, through the treachery of Aetius, Bonifacius was obliged to revolt; and a civil war enſued, in which he loſt his life. Aetius, however, notwithſtanding his treachery, was pardoned, and put at the head of the forces of the empire. He defended it againſt Attila with great ſpirit and ſucceſs, notwithſtanding the deplorable ſituation of affairs, till he was murdered by Valentinian with his own hand, on a ſuſpicion that he aſpired to the empire. But in the mean time, the pro-

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vinces, except Italy itself, were totally overrun by the barbarians. Genseric king of the Vandals ravaged Africa and Sicily; the Goths, Suevians, Burgundians, &c. had taken possession of Gaul and Spain; and the Britons were oppressed by the Scots and Picts, so that they were obliged to call in the Saxons to their assistance, as is related under the article ENGLAND, § 13. In the year 455, Valentinian was murdered by one Maximus, whose wife he had ravished. Maximus immediately assumed the empire; but felt such violent anxieties, that he designed to resign it and fly out of Italy, to enjoy the quiet of a private life. However, being dissuaded from this by his friends, and his own wife dying soon after, he forced the empress Eudoxia to marry him. Eudoxia, who had tenderly loved Valentinian, provoked beyond measure at being married to his murderer, invited Genseric king of the Vandals into Italy. This proved a most fatal scheme: for Genseric immediately appeared before Rome; a violent tumult ensued, in which Maximus lost his life; and the city was taken and plundered by Genseric, who carried off what had been left by the Goths. A vessel was loaded with costly statues; half the covering of the capitol, which was of brass plated over with gold; sacred vessels enriched with precious stones; and those which had been taken by Titus out of the temple of Jerusalem; all of which were lost with the vessel in its passage to Africa.

(94.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO ITS CAPTURE BY RICIMER. Nothing could now be more deplorable than the state of the Roman affairs: nevertheless, the empire continued to exist for some years longer; and even seemed to revive for a little under Majorianus, who was declared emperor in 458. He was a man of great courage, and possessed of many other excellent qualities. He defeated the Vandals, and drove them out of Italy. With great labour he fitted out a fleet, of which the Romans had been long destitute. With this he designed to pass over into Africa; but, it being surprised and burnt by the enemy, he himself was soon after murdered by one Ricimer, a Goth, who had long governed every thing with an absolute sway. After the death of Majorianus, one Anthemius was raised to the empire: but beginning to counteract Ricimer, the latter openly revolted, besieged and took Rome; where he committed innumerable cruelties, among the rest putting to death the emperor Anthemius, and raising one Olybius to the empire.

(95.) ROME, HISTORY OF, UNTO ITS TOTAL CONQUEST, BY ODOACER. The transactions of Olybius's reign were very few, as he died soon after his accession. On his death, Glycerius usurped the empire. He was deposed in 474, and Julius Nepos had the name of *emperor*. He was driven out the next year by his general Orestes, who caused his son ROMULUS AUGUSTULUS to be proclaimed emperor. But the following year, 476, the barbarians who served in the Roman armies, and were distinguished with the title of allies, demanded, as a reward for their services, the third part of the lands in Italy; pretending, that the whole country, which they had so often defended, belonged of right to them. As Orestes refused to comply with this insolent demand, they resolved to do themselves justice, as they called it; and, openly revolting, chose one Odoacer for their leader. Odoacer was, according to Ennodius, meanly born, and only a private man in the guards of the emperor Augustulus, when the barbarians revolting, chose him for their leader. However, he is said to have been a man of uncommon parts, equally capable of commanding an army and governing a state. Having left his own country when very young, to serve in Italy, as he was of a stature remarkably tall, he was admitted among the emperor's guards, and continued in that station till this year; when, putting himself at the head of the barbarians in the Roman pay, who, though of different nations, had with one consent, chosen him for their leader, he marched against Orestes and his son Augustulus, who still refused to give them any share of the lands in Italy. As the Roman troops were inferior, both in number and valour, to the barbarians, Orestes took refuge in Pavia, at that time one of the best fortified cities in Italy: but Odoacer, investing the place without loss of time, took it soon after by assault, gave it up to be plundered by the soldiers, and then set fire to it; which reduced most of the houses, and two churches, to ashes. Orestes was taken prisoner, and brought to Odoacer, who carried him to Placentia, and there caused him to be put to death, on the 28th of August, the day on which he had driven Nepos out of Ravenna, and obliged him to abandon the empire. From Placentia, Odoacer marched straight to Ravenna, where he found Paul, brother of Orestes, and the young emperor Augustulus. The former he immediately put to death; but sparing Augustulus, in consideration of his youth, he stripped him of the ensigns of the imperial dignity, and confined him to Lucullanum, a castle in Campania; where he was, by Odoacer's orders, treated with great humanity, and allowed an handsome maintenance to support himself and his relations. Rome readily submitted to the conqueror, who immediately caused himself to be proclaimed *king of Italy*, but would not assume the purple, or any other mark of the imperial dignity. Thus failed the very name of an empire in the West. Britain had been long abandoned by the Romans; Spain was held by the Goths and Suevans; Africa, by the Vandals; the Burgundians, Goths, Franks, and Alans, had erected several tetrarchies in Gaul; at length Italy itself, with its proud metropolis, which for so many ages had given law to the rest of the world, was enslaved by a contemptible barbarian, whose family, country, and nation, are not well known to this day.

(96.) ROME, MODERN HISTORY OF. From the above period, Rome has ceased to be the capital of an empire; the territories of the popes, of whom the city is now subject, being inconsiderable. The origin of the pope's temporal power and the revolutions of Italy, are related under the articles ITALIAN REPUBLIC, ITALY, and REVOLUTION, § VI, 32, 33: and a sketch of the spiritual usurpations of the popes may be seen under the articles HISTORY, *Part* II: and REFORMATION; and likewise under various historical and biographical articles in this work.

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)7.) ROME, MODERN STRUCTURES IN. The
t modern ſtructures are aqueducts and foun-
s; the Vatican, and the other palaces; the
pidolio, where the Roman ſenate reſides, &c.
Addiſon ſays, it is almoſt impoſſible for a man
am in his imagination ſuch beautiful and glo-
ſcenes as are to be met with in ſeveral of the
ſo churches and chapels.

6.) ROME, POPULATION OF. In the number
inhabitants, modern Rome is greatly infe-
to the ancient: for, in 1709, the whole of
amounted only to 138,569; among which
o biſhops, 2686 prieſts, 3559 monks, 1814
393 courteſans, about 8000 or 9000 Jews,
d Moors. In 1714, the number was increa-
to 143,000.

9.) ROME, PRESENT STATE OF. It is thought
e walls of modern Rome take in nearly the
xtent of ground as the ancient; but the
ce between the number of buildings on
t is very great, one half of modern Rome
waſte, or occupied with gardens, fields,
s, and vineyards. One may walk quite
the city in 3 or 4 hours at moſt, the cir-
nce being reckoned about 13 Italian miles.
ual ſplendor, and the beauty of its tem-
palaces, modern Rome is thought by the
dicious travellers to excel the ancient.
as nothing in ancient Rome to be com-
ith St Peter's church in the modern. That
as able to recover itſelf after ſo many ca-
s and devaſtations, is not ſurpriſing if we
the prodigious ſums that it has ſo long
drawn from all countries of the Popiſh
on. Theſe ſums, though ſtill conſidera-
re been continually decreaſing ſince the
ation. The ſurface of the ground on
ome was originally founded is ſurpriſing-
ed. At preſent it is difficult to diſtinguiſh
ms on which it was firſt built, the low
being almoſt filled up with the ruins of
ent ſtreets and houſes, and the great quan-
earth waſhed down from the hills by the
Anciently the ſuburbs extended a vaſt way
ides, and made the city appear almoſt
s; but it is quite otherwiſe now, the
about Rome being almoſt a deſert. To
other cauſes it is owing, that the air is
of the moſt wholeſome, eſpecially during
mmer heats, when few go abroad in the
e. No city at preſent in the world ſur-
, or indeed equals, Rome, for the multipli-
of fine fountains, noble edifices, antiquities,
ſties, paintings, ſtatues, and ſculptures. A
part of the city is ſeparated from the other
Tiber, and is therefore called *Traveſtere*,
yond the Tiber. There are ſeveral bridges
the river, a great number of towers on the
and 20 gates. Rome is ſaid to be well pa-
but not well lighted, nor kept very clean.
ſtards of the houſes are the property of the
ches, convents, and alms houſes. Prote-
are not obliged to kneel at the elevation of
oſt, or at meeting the euchariſt in the ſtreets;
they may have fleſh-meat always at the inns,
during Lent. Here are many academies for
noting arts and ſciences, beſides the univerſity.
carnival here is only during the 8 days before
Lent, and there are no ſuch ſcenes of riot as there were formerly at Venice: proſtitutes, however, are publicly tolerated. To maintain good order, there is a body of 300 SBIRRI, or Halberdeers, under their barigella, or colonel. There is little or no trade carried on in Rome; but a vaſt deal of money is ſpent by travellers and other ſtrangers. There is a great number of rich and well-regulated hoſpitals. Near the church of St Sebaſtiano alle Catacombe, are the moſt ſpacious of the catacombs, where the Chriſtians, who never burned their dead, and ſuch of the Pagan Romans as could not afford the expence of burning, were buried. Along the *Via Appia*, without St Sebaſtian's gate, were the tombs of the principal families of Rome, which at preſent are uſed for cellars and ſtore-houſes by the gardeners and vinedreſſers.

(100.) ROME, RELICS OF ANTIQUITY IN. Mr Addiſon ſays, that no part of the antiquities of Rome pleaſed him ſo much as the ancient ſtatues, of which there is ſtill an incredible variety. Next to the ſtatues, there is nothing more ſurpriſing than the amazing variety of ancient pillars of ſo many kinds of marble. The principal remains of antiquity are the pila miliaria of fine marble; the equeſtrian braſs ſtatue of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus; the marble monument of the emperor Alexander Severus; marble buſts of the emperors and their conſorts; three brick arches of the temple of Peace, built by the emperor Veſpaſian; the triumphal arch of Septimius Severus and of Gallienus; the circus of Antoninus Caracalla: ſome parts of the cloaca-maxima; the columna Antonina, repreſenting the principal actions of Marcus Aurelius; the columna Trajani, or Trajan's pillar; ſome fragments of the curia, or palace of Antoninus Pius, and of Nerva's forum; the mauſolæum of Auguſtus, in Strada Pontifici; the remains of the emperor Severus's tomb without St John's gate; the porphyry coffin of St Helen, and the original ſtatue of Conſtantine the Great, in the church of St John of Lateran: a font of oriental granite, in the chapel of St Giovanni in fonte, ſaid to have been erected by Conſtantine the Great; an Egyptian obeliſk near the church of St Maria Maggiore; the ſtately remains of Dioclefian's baths; the celebrated PANTHEON; the obeliſks of Seſoſtris and Auguſtus by the Clementine college; the church of St Paul fuori della Mura, ſaid to have been built by Conſtantine the Great; the Farneſe Hercules, in white marble, of a Coloſſian ſize and exquiſite workmanſhip, in a court of the Farneſe palace, and an admirable group cut out of one block of marble, in another court of the ſame palace.

(11.) ROME, a poſt town of New York, in Kerkemer county; ſeated on the Mohawk; 376 miles from Philadelphia.

ROMELIA, the general name, given by the Turks to their dominions in Europe.

ROMHILDEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Franconia; with a caſtle.

* ROMISH. *adj.* [from *Rome.*] Popiſh.—Bulls or letters of election only ſerve in *Romiſh* countries. *Ayliffe.*

(12.) ROMNEY, a town of England, in Kent, one of the cinque-port towns, ſeated on a marſh of the ſame name, famous for feeding cattle; but the

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the air is very unhealthy. It was once a large and populous place, but the retiring of the sea has reduced it very much. It sends two members to parliament. It is 17 miles SE. of London. Lon. 1. 5. E. Lat. 51. 0. N.

(2.) ROMNEY, a town of Virginia, the capital of Hampshire county. It is seated on the E. bank of the SW. branch of the Potomac: 195 miles from Richmond, and 242 W. by S. of Philadelphia.

(3.) ROMNEY MARSH, an extensive tract of rich wet ground, which occupies the most Southern part of Kent, between Dungeness and Rye Haven. Cattle are fattened to an extraordinary size in it. (See N° 1.)

ROMONT, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Friburg, on a mountain: 10 miles from Friburg, and 12 from Bern. Lon. 7. 1. E. Lat. 46. 50. N.

(1.) ROMOPACK, a river of New Jersey, in Bergen county.

(2.) ROMOPACK, a town of New Jersey, on the above river, in Bergen county.

ROMORENTIN, a town of France, in the dep. of Loire and Cher, and ci-devant prov. of Blaisois; with a castle on the Morentin, which runs into the Saudre. It is famous for its woollen manufacture. It is a very ancient place; and Cæsar built a tower here, of which there are still some considerable remains. They have a manufacture of serge and cloth, which is used for the clothing of the troops. It is 45 miles E. of Tours, and 100 S. by W. of Paris. Lon. 1. 47. E. Lat. 47. 22. N.

* ROMP. *n. s.* 1. A rude, awkward, boisterous, untaught girl.—She was in the due mean between one of your affected courtesying pieces of formality, and your *romps* that have no regard to the common rules of civility. *Arbuthnot.* 2. Rough rude play.—

Romp-loving miss
Is haul'd about in gallantry robust. *Thomson.*

* *To* ROMP. *v. n.* To play rudely, noisily, and boisterously.—In the kitchen, as in your proper element, you can laugh, squall, and *romp* in full security. *Swift.*—Men presume on the liberties taken in *romping*. *Clarissa.*

ROMPEE, or ROMPU, } in heraldry, is applied to ordinaries that are represented as broken; and to chevrons, bends, or the like, whose upper points are cut off.

ROMULEA, a town of the Samnites. *Liv.* x. 17.

ROMULIDÆ, a name given to the Romans. *Virg.* Æn. viii, 638.

(1.) ROMULUS, the founder and first king of Rome. See ROME, § 4—6.

(2.) ROMULUS, in geography, a military township of New York, in Onondago county: between lakes Seneca and Cayuga.

(3.) ROMULUS-AUGUSTULUS, the last emperor of Rome. See ROME, § 95.

(4.) ROMULUS SYLVIUS, or ALLADIUS, king of Alba. See ROME, § 3.

ROMUS, a son of Æneas by Lavinia.

(1.) RONA, one of the Hebrides, about 48 miles from the NE. point of Ness in Lewis; about a mile long, and half a mile broad. It has a hill in the west part, and is only visible from Lewis in a fair summer's day. There is a chapel dedicated to St Ronan, fenced with a stone wall round. This church the natives keep very neat and clean. There is an altar in it, on which there lies a plank of wood about 10 feet long. Every has a hole in it, and in every hole is a stone which the natives ascribe several virtues.

(2.) RONA, or RONA'S HILL, a mountain Shetland, on the Main-land, in the parish of Delaraven: 8 miles long, 4 broad, and three quarters mile in perpendicular height; 3,944 feet above the sea level. Its top affords a prospect, so in extent, and it serves as a land mark.

(1.) RONALDSAY, NORTH, an island Scotland, the most northern island in Orkney, miles long and 1 broad; 6 miles N. of Sandy. surface is flat, the soil sand and clay. The afford sea ware, from which 120 tons of kelp made annually. In 1791, it had 420 inhabitants.

(2.) RONALDSAY, SOUTH, the most southern island of Orkney, about 6 miles long, and 3 bounded by the German Ocean on the E. Pentland Frith on the S. and W. and by the of Water Sound which separates it from on the N. The climate is excellent; the is pretty level; the soil various, but fertile, duces excellent natural grass, red and white It has several good harbours, which will ships of 600 tons, as *Widewall Bay* on the *St Margaret's Hope* on the N. near which considerable village, that has one of the safest harbours in the kingdom. It is much frequ lobster smacks belonging to the Northern Fishing Society, and Selly and Co. London. population, in 1792, was 1615. This island head lands; viz. *Barfick*, *Halero*, and *Ste*

(3.) RONALDSAY, SOUTH, a parish or m parishes in the above island; distinguished names of the *South Parish of S. Ronald* taining 567 inhabitants in 1793: and *Nor* of ditto, containing 1048 souls in 179 these 2 parishes are united the islands of containing 318 inhabitants, and of Swi taining 21 souls; making the total p 1954, in 1793; which had neither increa decreased since 1755. The number of h 674; of sheep, 746; of hogs 240; and tle, 455. These parishes comprehend uninhabited islets, a mile long and half a each, called *Glemsholm*, *Horda*, and Pentha ry, lying 6 miles S. of S. Ronaldsay. T sheep and black cattle. In June the rays sun are almost constantly visible, retiring bout half an hour in the 24. At this nature is delightful. But in Sept. these isl subject to violent storms of wind. About kelp are manufactured annually. The relics of 7 chapels. There are 4 mills. barley, potatoes, turnips, pease, &c. are pro though husbandry is in a very rude state. are two inns, one sloop, several merchants, rious handicrafts in these parishes. Fish on the coast.

RONAY, an island of Scotland, in the co Inverness, and parish of Portree, between the tinent of Scotland and the isle of Sky. It is m. long and 2 broad; and lies near RAASAY. surface is level and the soil pretty fertile. a good harbour. On the coast there are

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ge caves; some of which abound with beauti- ſtalactites.

ONCALLI, Chriſtopher, an hiſtorical painter, ed alſo *Pomerancio*, from his birth-place, Po- nia. He was a diſciple of Cercignano, and in 1626.

ONCIGLIONE, a town of Italy, in the Ec- ſtic State, and Patrimony of St Peter. It is ll place, but had a pretty good trade, and ne of the richeſt in the province, while it be- t to the dukes of Parma, which was till 1649, pope Innocent X. became maſter of it, and ever ſince continued in the poſſeſſion of his rs. It is ſeated on the Tereja; 12 miles iterbo, and 24 N. of Rome. Lon. 12. 32. at. 42. 18. N.

(2.) RONCIGLIONE, a lake near the above in a diſtrict ſo named, of which the town is pital.

NDA, a handſome and ſtrong town of in Grenada, with a caſtle; ſeated on a crag- , near the Verde: 20 miles NW. of Gib- a d 62 SE. of Seville. Lon. 5. 12. W. 40. N.

NDE, or RHONDE ISLAND, one of the GRE- s; containing about 500 acres of excel- und, which is uſed for paſturage, and the on of cotton.

NDEAU. *n. ſ.* A kind of ancient poetry, ly conſiſting of 13 verſes; of which eight rhyme and five another; it is divided in- couplets, and at the end of the ſecond , the beginning of the *rondeau* is repeat- equivocal ſenſe, if poſſible. *Trevoux.*

NDELETIA, in botany, a genus of the ia order, belonging to the pentandria lants; and in the natural method rank- thoſe of which the order is doubtful. lla is funnel-ſhaped; the capſule bilocu- rior, and polyſpermous, roundiſh and .

NDLE. *n. ſ.* [from *round.*] A round maſs. *rondles* given in arms, have their names to their ſeveral colours. *Peacham.*

ONDELLO, a ſea port of Spain, in ear Vigo; famous for a victory obtain- George Rooke, over the French and eets, in 1702. See ROOKE, and VIGO.

ZBY, a populous town of Sweden, in , ſurrounded with rocks, although three m the coaſt.

ONION. *n. ſ.* [*rognon*, French, the loins. not certainly the meaning of this word.] ilky woman.—

Give me, quoth I,
t the witch; the rump fed *ronyon* cries.
Shakeſp.

SARD, Peter, DE, a French poet, born aſtle of Poiſſeniere, in Vendomois, in 1524. deſcended of a noble family, and was edu- Paris in the college of Navarre. He then page to the duke of Orleans, who reſign- to King James V. Ronſard continued in d with King James upwards of two years, rwards went to France, where he was em- by the duke of Orleans in ſeveral negocia- He accompanied Lazarus de Baif to the Spires, and ſtudied the Greek language with his ſon under Dorat. He cultivated poetry with ſuch ſucceſs, that he acquired the appellation of the *Prince of the Poets* of his time. Henry II. Francis II. Charles IX. and Henry III. loaded him with favours. Having gained the firſt prize of the *Jeux Floraux*, they thought the reward below the merit of the work, and the reputation of the poet. The city of Toulouſe cauſed a Minerva of maſſy ſilver of conſiderable value to be made and ſent to him. This preſent was accompanied with a de- cree, declaring him *The French Poet*, by way of diſtinction. Ronſard afterwards made a preſent of his Minerva to Henry II. Mary Q. of Scots gave him a very rich ſet of table plate. He wrote hymns, odes, a poem called the *Franciad*, eclogues, epigrams, ſonnets, &c. Ronſard, though it is doubtful whether he ever was in orders, held ſe- veral benefices in commendam; and he died at Saint-Coſme-les-Tours, one of theſe, December 27, 1585, being then 61 years of age. He appear- ed more ridiculous as a man than as a poet: he was particularly vain, and boaſted of his intrigues. Ronſard's poems appeared in 1567 at Paris in 6 vols 4to, and in 1604, in 10 vols 12mo.

RONSBERG, a town of Germany, in the cir- cle of Pilſen.

* RONT. *n. ſ.* An animal ſtinted in the growth: commonly pronounced *runt.*—

My ragged *ronts* all ſhiver and ſhake. *Spenſer.*

(1.) * ROOD. *n. ſ.* [from *rod.*] 1. The fourth part of an acre in ſquare meaſure.—

A terras-walk, and half a *rood*
Of land, ſet out to plant a wood. *Swift.*
No ſtately larch-tree there expands a ſhade
O'er half a *rood* of Lariſſéan glade. *Harte.*

2. A pole; a meaſure of ſixteen feet and a half in long meaſure.—

Satan,
Lay floating many a *rood*. *Milton.*

—For ſtone fences in the North, they dig the ſtones for eighteen-pence a *rood*, and make the walls for the ſame price, reckoning twenty-one foot to the *rood* or pole. *Mortim.* 3. [*Rode*, Sax.] The croſs; ſometimes an image of a ſaint.—

By the holy *rood*,
I do not like theſe ſeveral councils. *Shak.*

(2.) *A* ROOD is a quantity of land equal to 40 ſquare perches.

* ROODLOFT. *n. ſ.* [*rood* and *loft.*] A gallery in the church on which reliques or images were ſet to view.

ROODSEUS, John Albert, an eminent Dutch portrait painter, born at Hoorn in 1615. He was famous for colouring, neatneſs and ſpirit. He died in 1674.

(1.) * ROOF. *n. ſ.* [*hroſ*, Saxon.] In the plural Sidney has *rooves*: now obſolete.] 1. The cover of a houſe.—

Her ſhoulders be like two white doves,
Perching within ſquare royal *rooves*. *Sidney.*
Return to her, and fifty men diſmiſs'd?
No, rather I abjure all *roofs*. *Shak.*

2. The houſe in general.—

If time, and food, and wine enough accrue
Within your *roofe* to us. *Chapman.*

3. The vault; the inſide of the arch that covers a building.—From the magnanimity of the Jews, in caſes of moſt extreme hazard, thoſe ſtrange and unwonted

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unwonted reſolutions have grown, which no people under the *roof* of heaven did ever match. *Hooker.*—

The duſt
Should have aſcended to the *roof* of heav'n. *Shak.*

High on the burnish'd *roof*, my banner ſhall be hung. *Dryden.*

4. The palate; the upper part of the mouth.—

Swearing till my very *roof* was dry
With oaths of love. *Shak. Merch. of Venice.*

—My very lips might freeze to my teeth, my tongue to the *roof* of my mouth, ere I ſhould come by a fire to thaw me. *Shak.*—Some fiſhes have rows of teeth in the *roofs* of their mouths; as pikes, ſalmons, and trouts. *Bacon.*

(2.) *A* ROOF is the covering of a building, by which its inhabitants or contents are protected from the injuries of the weather. It is the eſſential part of a houſe, and is often uſed to expreſs the whole. To *come under a perſon's roof*, is to enjoy his protection and ſociety, to dwell with him. *Tecton* was uſed in the ſame ſenſe by the Romans. To be within our walls rather expreſſes the being in our poſſeſſion: a roof therefore is not only an eſſential part of a houſe, but it even ſeems to be its characteriſtic feature.

(3.) ROOFS, ANCIENT AND MODERN COMPARED. The Greeks, who have perhaps excelled all nations in taſte, and who have given the moſt perfect model of architectonic ordonnance within a certain limit, never erected a building which did not exhibit this part in the moſt diſtinct manner; and though they borrowed much of their model from the orientals, as is evident to any who compares their architecture with the ruins of Perſepolis, and of the tombs in the mountains of Sciras, they added that form of roof, which their own climate taught them was neceſſary for ſheltering them from the rains. The roofs in Perſia and Arabia are flat, but thoſe of Greece are without exception ſloping. It ſeems therefore a groſs violation of the true principles of taſte in architecture, (at leaſt in the regions of Europe,) to take away or to hide the roof of a houſe; and it muſt be aſcribed to that rage for novelty which is ſo powerful in the minds of the rich. Our anceſtors ſeemed to be of a very different opinion, and turned their attention to the ornamenting of their roofs as much as any other part of a building. They ſhowed them in the moſt conſpicuous manner, running them up to a great height, broke them into a thouſand fanciful ſhapes, and ſtuck them full of highly dreſſed windows. We laugh at this, and call it Gothic and clumſy; and our great architects, not to offend any more in this way, conceal the roof altogether by parapets, baluſtrades, and other contrivances. Our forefathers certainly did offend againſt the maxims of true taſte, when they enriched a part of a houſe with marks of elegant habitation, which every ſpectator muſt know to be a cumberſome garret: but their ſucceſſors no leſs offend, who take off the cover of the houſe altogether, and make it impoſſible to know whether it is not a mere ſkreen or colonnade. The architect is anxious to preſent a fine object, and a very ſimple outline diſcuſſes all his concerns with the roof. He leaves it to the carpenter, whom he frequently puzzles (by his arrangements) with coverings almoſt impoſſible to execute. Indeed it is ſeldom that the idea of roof is admitted by him into his great compoſitions. A pediment is often ſtuck up in the middle of a grand front, in a ſituation where a roof cannot perform its office; for the rain which ſuppoſed to flow down its ſides muſt be received on the top of the level buildings which flank it. This is a manifeſt incongruity. The tops of ſmall ed windows, trifling porches, and ſometimes even jecting portico, are the only ſituations in which we ſee the figure of a roof correſponding with its office. Having thus loſt ſight of the principle, not ſurpriſing that the draughtſman (for he muſt not be called architect) runs into every wild and we ſee pediment within pediment, a broken pediment, a hollow pediment, and the groſſeſt all abſurdities, a broken pediment, which as ridiculous as a hat without its crown. But when one builds a houſe, ornament alone will not We muſt have a cover; and the enormous expence and other inconveniences which attend the concealment of this cover by parapets, baluſtrades and ſcreens, have obliged architects to conſider pent roof as proper, and to regulate its ſize high pitched roof will undoubtedly ſhoot the rains and ſnows better than one of a lower The wind will not ſo eaſily blow the rain in between the ſlates, nor will it have ſo power to ſtrip them off. It will exert a thruſt on the walls, both becauſe its ſtraight horizontal, and becauſe it will admit of covering. But it is more expenſive, becauſe is more of it. It requires a greater ſize of to make it equally ſtrong, and it expoſes a ſurface to the wind. There have been changes in the pitch of roofs: our fore made them very high, and we make them low. It does not, however, appear that change has been altogether the effect of In the ſimple unadorned habitations of perſons, every thing comes to be adjuſted experience of inconveniences which have from too low pitched roofs; and their always be nearly ſuch as ſuits the climate vering. Our architects, however, go to different principles. Their profeſſed aim make a beautiful object. The ſources of the ſures ariſing from what we call *taſte* are ſo complicated, and ſo whimſical, that it is in vain to look for principle in the rules by our profeſſed architects. Much of this tice reſults from a *pedantic* veneration for the tiful productions of Grecian architecture. architects as have written on the principles art in reſpect of proportions, or what they ORDONNANCE, are much puzzled to make of reaſoning; and the moſt that they have the Greek architecture is, that it exhibits adjuſtment of ſtrength and ſtrain. But when conſider the extent of this adjuſtment, that it is wonderfully limited. The whole conſiſts of a baſement, a column, and an ture; the entablature exhibits ſomething of nection with the frame-work and roof of a bui ding; and it originated from this in the of the orientals, from whom the Greeks bor their forms and their combinations. We

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ly ſhow is the ruins of Perſepolis, and among tombs in the mountains, (which were long r to the Greek architecture,) the fluted co-n, the baſe, the Ionic and Corinthian capital, the Doric arrangement of lintels, beams, and es, all derived from unqueſtionable principle. only addition made by the Greeks was the roof; and the changes made by them in the diate forms of things are ſuch as might be ed from their exquiſite judgment of beauty. the whole of this is very limited; and the , after making the roof a chief feature of a went no further, and contented themſelves ving it a ſlope ſuited to their climate. This e followed, becauſe in the milder parts of we have no cogent reaſon for deviating ; and if any architect ſhould deviate great-a building where the outline is exhibited as ful, we ſhould be diſguſted; but the diſguſt, felt by almoſt every ſpectator, has its ori-nothing but habit. In the profeſſed archi-man of education, the diſguſt ariſes from y: for there is not ſuch a cloſe connection the form and uſes of a roof as ſhall give determinations; and the mere form is a of indifference. We ſhould not therefore e the high-pitched roofs of our anceſtors, arly on the continent. It is there where them in all the extremity of the faſhion, taſte is by no means exploded as it is with baronial caſtle in Germany and France is rebuilt in the pure Greek ſtyle, or even modern houſes in Britain; the high pitch-s are retained. We ſhould not call them Go-nd ugly becauſe Gothic, till we ſhow their le to be falſe or taſteleſs. It will be found the reverſe; and that though we cannot urſelves to think them beautiful, we ought them ſo. The conſtruction of the Greek ture is a transference of the practices that ceſſary in a wooden building to a building of To this the Greeks have adhered, in ſpite merable difficulties. Their marble quarries, r, put it in their power to retain the pro-which habit had rendered agreeable. But t to impoſſible to adhere to theſe propor-ith freeſtone or brick, when the order is of ficent dimenſions. Sir Chriſtopher Wren is; for his mechanical genius was equal to te. He compoſed the front of St Paul's h in London of two orders, and he coupled olumns; and ſtill the lintels which form the ave are of ſuch length that they could carry ditional weight, and he was obliged to truſs behind. Had he made but one order, the ave could not have carried its own weight. impoſſible to execute a Doric entablature of ze in brick. It is attempted in a very noble , the Academy of Arts in St Peterſburgh. the architect was obliged to make the mutules other projecting members of the corniche of ite, and many of them broke down by their weight. Here is ſurely an error in principle. e ſtone is the chief material of our buildings, t not the members of ornamented architec-: to be refinements on the eſſential and unaf-ed parts of a ſimple ſtone building? There is oft as much propriety in the architecture of India, where a dome is made in imitation of a lily or other flower inverted, as in the Greek imitation of a wooden building. The principles of maſonry, and not of carpentry, ſhould be ſeen in our architecture, if we would have it according to the rules of juſt taſte. Now this is the characteriſtic feature of what is called the Gothic architecture. In this no dependence is had on the tranſverſe ſtrength of ſtone. No lintels are to be ſeen; no extravagant projections. Every ſtone is preſſed to its neighbours, and none is expoſed to a tranſverſe ſtrain. The Greeks were enabled to execute their coloſſal buildings only by uſing immenſe blocks of the hardeſt materials. The Norman maſon could raiſe a building to the ſkies without uſing a ſtone which a labourer could not carry to the top on his back. The architects ſtudied the principles of equilibrium; and having attained a wonderful knowledge of it, they indulged themſelves in exhibiting remarkable inſtances. We call this falſe taſte, and ſay that the appearance of inſecurity is the greateſt fault. But this is owing to our habits; our thoughts may be ſaid to run in a wooden train, and certain ſimple maxims of carpentry are familiar to our imagination; and in the careful adherence to theſe conſiſts the beauty and ſymmetry of the Greek architecture. Had we been as much habituated to the equilibrium of preſſure, this apparent inſecurity would not have met our eye: we ſhould have obſerved the ſtrength, and we ſhould have reliſhed the ingenuity. The Gothic architecture is perhaps entitled to the name of *rational architecture*, and its beauty is founded on the characteriſtic diſtinction of our ſpecies. It deſerves cultivation: not the pitiful, ſervile, and unſkilled copying of the monuments; this will produce incongruities and abſurdities equal to any that have crept into the Greek architecture: but let us examine with attention the nice diſpoſition of the groins and ſpaundrels; let us ſtudy the tracery and knots, not as ornaments, but as uſeful members; let us obſerve how they have made their walls like honey-combs, and admire their ingenuity as we pretend to admire the inſtinct infuſed by the Great Architect into the bee. All this cannot be underſtood without mechanical knowledge; a thing which few of our profeſſional architects have any ſhare of. Thus would architectonic taſte be a mark of ſkill; and the perſon who preſents the deſign of a building would know how to execute it, without committing it entirely to the maſon and carpenter. The ſame principles of mutual preſſure and equilibrium have a place in roofs and many wooden edifices; and if they had been as much ſtudied as the Normans and Saracens ſeem to have ſtudied ſuch of them as were applicable to their purpoſes, we might have produced wooden buildings as far ſuperior to what we are familiarly acquainted with, as the bold and wonderful churches ſtill remaining in Europe are ſuperior to the timid productions of our ſtone architecture. The ceintres uſed in building the bridge of Orleans and the corn market of Paris, are late inſtances of what may be done in this way. The laſt mentioned is a dome of 200 feet diameter, built of fir planks; and there is not a piece of timber in it more than nine feet long, a foot broad, and 2 inches thick.

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The Norman architects frequently roofed with ſtone. Their wooden roofs were in general very ſimple, and their profeſſed aim was to diſpenſe with them altogether. Fond of their own ſcience, they copied nothing from a wooden building, and ran into a ſimilar fault with the ancient Greeks. The parts of their buildings which were neceſſarily of timber, were made to imitate ſtone-buildings; and Gothic ornament conſiſts in cramming every thing full of arches and ſpaundrels. Nothing elſe is to be ſeen in their timber works, nay even in their ſculpture. Look at any of the maces or ſceptres ſtill to be found about the old cathedrals; they are all ſilver ſteeples. But there appears to have been a rivalſhip in old times between the maſons and the carpenters. Many of the baronial halls are of prodigious width, and are roofed with timber: and the carpenters appeared to have borrowed much knowledge from the maſons of thoſe times, and their wide roofs are frequently conſtructed with great ingenuity. Their aim, like the maſons, was to throw a roof over a very wide building, without employing great logs of timber. We have ſeen roofs 60 feet wide, without having a piece of timber in them above 10 feet long and 4 inches ſquare. The Parliament Houſe and Tron Church of EDINBURGH, the great hall of Tarnaway caſtle near Elgin, are ſpecimens of thoſe roofs. They are very numerous on the continent. Indeed Britain retains few monuments of private magnificence. Ariſtocratic ſtate never was ſo great with us; and the rancour of our civil wars gave moſt of the performances of the carpenter to the flames. Weſtminſter-hall exhibits a ſpecimen of the falſe taſte of the No. n roofs. It contains the eſſential parts indeed, very properly diſpoſed; but they are hidden, or intentionally covered, with what is conceived to be ornamental; and this is an imitation of ſtone arches, crammed in between ſlender pillars which hang down from the principal frames, truſſes, or rafters. In a pure Norman roof, ſuch as Tarnaway-hall, the eſſential parts are exhibited as things underſtood, and therefore reliſhed. They are refined and ornamented; and it is here that the inferior kind of taſte or the want of it may appear. We do not mean to defend all the whims of our anceſtors, but we aſſert, that it is no more neceſſary to conſider the members of a roof as things to be concealed like a garret or privy, than the members of a cieling, which form the moſt beautiful part of the Greek architecture. Should it be ſaid that a roof is only a thing to keep off the rain, it may be anſwered, that a cieling is only to keep off the duſt, or the floor to be trodden under foot, and that we ſhould have neither copartments in the one, nor inlaid work or carpets on the other. The ſtructure of a roof may therefore be exhibited with propriety, and made an ornamental feature. This has been done even in Italy. The church of St Maria Maggiore in Rome and ſeveral others are ſpecimens; but the forms of the principal frames of theſe roofs, which reſemble thoſe of our modern buildings, are very unfit for agreeable ornament. Our imaginations have not been made ſufficiently familiar with the principles, and we are rather alarmed than pleaſed with the appearance of the immenſe logs of timber which form the cou of theſe roofs, and hang over our heads with very appearance of weight and danger. It quite otherwiſe with the ingenious roofs of German and Norman architects. Slender bers, interlaced with great ſymmetry, and thr by neceſſity into figures which are naturally ty, form altogether an object which no cu ter can view without pleaſure. And why the gentleman refuſe himſelf the ſame pleaſ beholding ſcientific ingenuity? The roof fact the part of the building which requir greateſt degree of ſkill, and where ſcience of more ſervice than in any other part. T chitect ſeldom knows much of the matter leaves the taſk to the carpenter. The carp conſiders the framing of a great roof as the ſtone of his art; and nothing indeed te much to ſhow his judgment and his fertility ſource. It muſt therefore be very acceptab the artiſt to have a clear view of the prin by which this difficult problem may be ſol the beſt manner, ſo that the roof may h the ſtrength and ſecurity that can be wiſh without an extravagant expence of timb iron. Mechanical ſcience can give great ance in this matter. The framing of carp whether for roofs, floors, or any other p affords one of the moſt elegant and moſt f tory applications which can be made of m cal ſcience to the arts of common life. practical artiſt is ſeldom poſſeſſed even ſmall portion of ſcience which would a ſure his practice from all riſk of failure; a our moſt experienced carpenters have ſelde more knowledge than what ariſes from th perience and natural ſagacity. The moſt ed author in our language is Price, in his *Carpenter*. Mathurin Jouſſe is in like man author moſt in repute in France: and the cations of both theſe authors are void o appearance of principle. It is not uncom ſee the works of carpenters of the greate tation tumble down, in conſequence of from which elementary knowledge wou ſaved them. Having ſpoken fully of roofs ARCHITECTURE, we ſhall here only take of what we have commended by the name *man roofs*. We call them *Norman*, becau were frequently executed by that people ter their eſtabliſhment in Italy and other p the ſouth of Europe, and became the pre taſte in all the great baronial caſtles. Their tects were rivals to the Saracens and Moor about that time built many Chriſtian chu and the architecture which we now call G ſeems to have ariſen from their joint labours. principle of a *Norman roof* is extremely ſi The rafters all butted on joggled king-poſ BG, CH, &c. (*Pl.* CCXCVI. *fig.* 1.) and bra ties were then diſpoſed in the intervals. middle of the roof HB and HD are evidently in a ſtate of extenſion, while the poſt CH is preſſed by them. Towards the walls on ſide, as between B and F, and between F they are braces, and are compreſſed. The of the poſts were generally ornamented with of flowers, embuſſed globes, and the like,

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whole texture of the truſs was exhibited and dreſſed out. This conſtruction admits of employing very ſhort timbers; and this very circumſtance gives greater ſtrength to the truſs, becauſe the angle which the brace or tie makes with the rafters is more open. We may alſo perceive that all the ſtuff may be taken off the walls. If the pieces AF, BF, LF, be removed, all the remaining diagonal pieces act as ties, and the pieces directed to the centre act as ſtruts; and it may alſo be obſerved, that the principle will apply equally to a upright or flat roof, or to a floor. A floor ſuch as *abc*, having the joiſt in two pieces *a b*, *b c*, with a ſtrut *b d*, and two ties, will require a much greater weight to break it than if it had a continued joiſt *a c* of the ſame ſcantling. And, laſtly, a piece of timber acting as a tie is much ſtronger, than the ſame piece acting as a ſtrut: for in the latter ſituation it is expoſed to bending, and when ſtrained is much leſs able to withſtand a very great force. It muſt be acknowledged, however, that this diſadvantage is balanced by the great inferiority of the joints in point of ſtrength. The joint of a tie depends wholly on the pins; for this reaſon ties are never uſed in heavy works without ſtrapping the joints with iron. In the roofs we are deſcribing, the diagonal pieces of the middle bay only act purely as ties, while thoſe towards the ends act as ſtruts or braces. Indeed they are ſeldom of ſo very ſimple conſtruction as we have repreſented, and are more generally conſtructed as the ſketch in *fig.* 2. having two ſets of rafters, *a b*, and the angles are filled up with pieces, which give great ſtiffneſs and ſtrength. We have alſo a double ſet of purlins, which conſtitute different truſſes. The roof being thus divided into ſquares, other purlins run between the middle points E of the rafters. The rafter is ſupported at E by a check put between it and the principal rafter. The middle point of each ſquare of the roof is ſupported and ſtiffened by 4 braces, one of which ſprings from *e*, and its oppoſite from the ſimilar part of the adjoining truſs. The other two braces ſpring from the middle points of the lower purlins, which go horizontally from *a* to *a* to the next truſs, and are ſupported by braces in the ſame manner as the rafters. By this arrangement the whole becomes very firm and ſtrong. Much of what has been ſaid on this ſubject may be applied to the conſtruction of wooden arches and the centres for turning the arches of ſtone bridges.

To ROOF. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To cover with a roof.—

He enter'd ſoon the ſhade
High *roof'd*, and walks beneath. *Milton.*

Large foundations may be ſafely laid,
Or houſes *roof'd*. *Creech.*

I have not ſeen the remains of any Roman building that have not been *roofed* with faults or defects. *Addiſon.* 2. To incloſe a houſe.—

Here had we now our county's honour *roof'd*.
Shak.

ROOFING, *part. a.* covering with a roof.

ROOFING. *n. ſ.* the materials of which the roof of a houſe is compoſed. See ROOF, § 2.

ROOFLESS. *adj.* [*roof* and *leſs*.] Without a roof; without a houſe.

ROOF-TILE, *n. ſ.* [*Roof* and *tile*.] A creſtile; a tile to put on the upper part of the roof. *Aſh.*

ROOF-TREE, [*Roof* and *tree*,] in ſea language, one of the timbers, which go from the half deck to the foreaſtle of a ſhip. *Aſh.*

* ROOFY. *adj.* [from *roof*.] Having roofs.—

Whether to *roofy* houſes they repair
Or ſun themſelves abroad in open air. *Dryden.*

(1.) * ROOK. *n. ſ.* [*broc*, Sax.] 1. A bird reſembling a crow: it feeds not on carrion, but grain —

'Augurs, that underſtood relations, have,
By magpies, and by choughs, and *rooks* brought forth
The ſecret'ſt man of blood. *Shak.*

Huge flocks of riſing *rooks* forſake their food,
And crying ſeek the ſhelter of the wood. *Dryd.*

The jay, the *rook*, the daw
Aid the full concert. *Thomſon.*

2. [*Rocco*, Italian.] A common man at cheſs.—

So I have ſeen a king on cheſs,
His *rooks* and knights withdrawn,
His queen and biſhops in diſtreſs. *Dryden.*

3. A cheat; a trickiſh rapacious fellow.—I am, like an old *rook*, who is ruined by gaming, forced to live on the good fortune of the puſhing young men. *Wycherly.*

(2.) ROOK, in ornithology. (See CORVUS § III. 8.) Rooks are very deſtructive of corn, eſpecially of wheat. They ſearch out of the lands where it is ſown, and watching them more carefully than the owners, they perceive when the ſeed firſt begins to ſhoot up its blade; this is the time of their feeding on it. As ſoon as theſe blades appear, they are by them directed to the places where the grains lie; and in 3 or 4 days they will root up ſuch vaſt quantities, that a good crop is often thus deſtroyed in embryo. After a few days the wheat continuing to grow, its blades appear green above ground; and then the time of danger from theſe birds is over; for then the ſeeds are ſo far robbed of their mealy matter, that they are of no value to that bird. The farmers, to drive away theſe miſchievous birds, dig holes in the ground, and ſtick up the feathers of rooks in them, and hang up dead rooks on ſticks in ſeveral parts of the fields; but all this is of little uſe, for the living rooks will tear up the ground about the feathers, and under the dead ones, to ſteal the ſeeds. The beſt remedy is to watch well the time of the corn being in the condition in which they feed upon it; and as this laſts only a few days, a boy ſhould conſtantly watch the field from day-break till the duſk of the evening. Every time they ſettle upon the ground to fly over it, the boy ſhould holloa, and throw up a dead rook into the air: this will always make them riſe, and they will ſoon be ſo tired of this conſtant diſturbance, that they will ſeek out other places of preying; and will leave the ground even before the corn becomes unfit for them. The reaſon of their riſing at the toſſing up of the dead bird is, that they are extremely apprehenſive of danger, and are always alarmed when one of them riſes, and all fly off at the ſignal.

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* *To* ROOK. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To rob; to cheat.—

They *rook'd* upon us with deſign,
To out-reform and undermine. *Hudibras.*

—How any one's being put into a mixed herd of unruly boys, and there learning to *rook* at ſpan-farthing, fits him for converſation, I do not ſee. *Locke.*

(1.) ROOKE, Lawrence, an eminent Engliſh aſtronomer, born at Deptford, in Kent, in 1623; and educated at King's College, Cambridge; and at Oxford. In 1652, he was appointed Greſham profeſſor of aſtronomy; and was alſo one of the founders of the Royal Society. He wrote *Aſtronomical Tracts.* He died in 1662.

(2.) ROOKE, Sir George, a naval commander, deſcended of an ancient and honourable family in Kent, in 1650. His merit raiſed him to be vice-admiral of the blue; in which ſtation he ſerved in the battle of La Hogue, on the 19th of May 1692; when it was owing to his vigorous behaviour, that the laſt ſtroke was given on that important day, which threw the French entirely in confuſion. But the next day he obtained ſtill more glory by going into La Hogue, and burning the enemy's fleet, which he compietely deſtroyed, together with moſt of the tranſports and ammunition veſſels; and this under the fire of all the French batteries, and in ſight of all the French and Iriſh troops; yet this bold action coſt the lives of only ten men. (See HOGUE, N° 1; and ENGLAND, § 69.) The vice-admiral's behaviour on this occaſion appeared ſo great to K. William, that, having no opportunity at that time of promoting him, he ſettled a penſion of 1000l. per annum on him for life; and afterwards going to Portſmouth to view the fleet, went on board Mr Rooke's ſhip, dined with him, and then conferred on him the honour of knighthood, he having a little before made him vice-admiral of the red. In conſequence of other ſervices he was in 1694 raiſed to the rank of admiral of the blue: towards the cloſe of the next year, he was made admiral of the white; and was alſo appointed admiral and commander in chief in the Mediterranean. During King William's reign, Sir George was twice elected M. P. for Portſmouth; and upon the acceſſion of Q. Anne, in 1702, he was conſtituted vice-admiral and lieutenant of the admiralty of England, as alſo lieutenant of the fleets and ſeas of this kingdom. Upon the declaration of war againſt France, he was ordered to command a fleet ſent againſt Cadiz, the duke of Ormond having the command of the land forces. On his paſſage home, receiving an account that the galleons, under the eſcort of a ſtrong French ſquadron, were got into the harbour of VIGO, he reſolved to attack them; and on the 11th Oct. came before the harbour of RONDONDELLO, where the French commander had neglected nothing neceſſary for putting the place into the beſt poſture of defence. But notwithſtanding this, a detachment of 15 Engliſh and 10 Dutch men of war, of the line of battle, with all the fire ſhips, were ordered in; the frigates and bomb veſſels followed; the great ſhips moved after them, and the army landed near Rondondelio. The whole ſervice was performed unde. Sir George's directions, with admirable conduct and bravery; for all ſhips were deſtroyed or taken, prodigious dam done to the enemy, and vaſt wealth acquired the allies. (See ENGLAND, § 72, and V100.) this action Sir George received the thanks of Houſe of Commons, a day of thankſgiving appointed both by the queen and the lord-g ral, and Sir George was promoted to a ſe the privy-council; yet, notwithſtanding this, Houſe of Lords reſolved to inquire into his duct at Cadiz. But he ſo fully juſtified hi that a vote was paſſed, approving his beha In ſpring 1704, Sir George commanded the of war which convoyed king Charles III. of to Liſbon. In July, he attacked Gibraltar; by the bravery of the Engliſh ſeamen, the was taken on the 24th, though the town w tremely ſtrong, well furniſhed with ammu and had 100 guns mounted, all facing the ſe the narrow paſſes to the land: An action whi conceived and executed in leſs than a week was then very little thought of; though ſ ſince endured ſieges of many months contin and more than once baffled the united forc France and Spain. (See ENGLAND, § 73, and RALTAR, § 5.) This brave officer being ob by party-ſpirit, to quit the ſervice of his co retired to his ſeat in Kent; where he enjoy *tium cum dignitate.* He was thrice married by his 2d lady, Mrs Luttrell, left one ſon died Jan. 24, 1708-9, in his 58th year, a buried in Canterbury cathedral, where a ment is erected to his memory. In his p life he was a good huſband and a kind f lived hoſpitably, and left behind him a m fortune; ſo moderate, that when he ma will, it ſurpriſed thoſe who were preſent: George ſaid, "I do not leave much, but leave was honeſtly gotten; it never coſt a tear, or the nation a farthing."

* ROOKERY. *n. ſ.* [from *rook.*] A nu rooks.—No one houſe in Wales, with a tain and a *rookery*, is more contemplativ this court. *Pope.*

* ROOKY. *adj.* [from *rook.*] Inhabi rooks.—

Light thickens, and the crow
Makes wing to th' *rooky* wood.

(1.) * ROOM. *n. ſ.* [*rum*, Saxon; *rum*, ick.] 1. Space; extent of place great or ſ

With new wonder, now he views,
In narrow *room*, nature's whole wealth.

—If you will have a young man to put his into a little *room*, and in ſhort time gather this he muſt do. *Bacon.* 2. Space or pla occupied.—Before they ſhall want *room* creaſing and multiplying, there may be ne vens and a new earth. *Bentley.* 3. Way ſtructed.—

Make *room*, and let him ſtand befo face.

What train of ſervants, what extent o
Shall aid the birth, or give him *room* to

—This paternal regal power, being by right, leaves no *room* for human prude place it any where. *Locke.* 4. Place of an ſtead.—In evils, that cannot be removed w

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e manifeſt danger of greater to ſucceed in their
ns, wiſdom muſt give place to neceſſity.
ker.—
For better ends our kind Redeemer dy'd,
Or the fallen angels *rooms* will be but ill ſup-
ply'd. *Roſcom.*
By contributing to the contentment of other
n, and rendering them happy, we do God's
k, are in his place and *room*. *Calamy.* 5. Un-
acted opportunity.—There was no prince in
mpire, who had *room* for ſuch an alliance,
was not ambitious of gaining her into his fa-
. *Addiſon.*—It puts us upon ſo eager a pur-
of the advantages of life, as leaves no *room* to
on the great author of them. *Atterbury.* 6.
e admiſſion; poſſible mode.—
Will you not look with pity on me?
there no hope? is there no *room* for pardon?
A. Philips.
n apartment in a houſe; ſo much of a houſe
incloſed within partitions.—
I found the prince in the next *room*
ashing with kindly tears his gentle cheeks.
Shak.
If when ſhe appears in the *room*,
ou doſt not quake, and art ſtruck dumb;
ow this,
ou lov'ſt amiſs. *Suckling.*
ther it be the cuſtom of the court, or will
prince, to be uncovered in ſome *rooms* and
others? *Stillingfleet.*—It will afford me a
ſant *rooms*, for ſuch a friend as yourſelf.

ROOM. See ARCHITECTURE and VENTI-
N.

ROOMAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *room*.] Space;
—Man, of all ſenſible creatures, has the ſul-
in: it muſt be a ſilent character of hope,
here is good ſtore of *roomage* and receipt,
thoſe powers are ſtowed. *Wotton.*

OME, Edward, an Engliſh writer, the ſon
ndertaker in Fleet ſtreet. He was bred to
, and became a violent party writer. He
ſome Papers, entitled *Paſquin*, wherein he
d Mr Pope; who, in revenge placed him
Dunciad. He was more fortunate in con-
. He ſucceeded Mr Hornecks, as ſoli-
the treaſury, Oct. 18th, 1728, and died
th, 1729. His *Jovial Crew* was firſt ac-
1731; and has been acted of late at Co-
Garden.

OOMINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *roomy*.] Space;
ity of extent.

OOMY. *adj.* [from *room*.] Spacious; wide;
—
With *roomy* decks, her guns of mighty
ſtrength,
p in her draught, and warlike. *Dryden.*
ſort of number is more *roomy*. *Dryden.*

ORE, James De, a celebrated hiſtorical
, born at Antwerp, in 1686. He painted
ood ſtyle, and with elegance. He died in

ROOS, John Hendrick, a Dutch painter,
at Otterburg in 1631. His landſcapes have
mon beauty. He alſo painted portraits.
ed in 1685.

3.) Roos, Philip, his ſon, was born in 1665,
and excelled his father greatly. His brother John Melchior was alſo eminent in painting, and died in 1731, aged 72.

(4.) Roos, Theodore, brother of John Hendrick, alſo painted landſcapes and portraits in a good ſtyle. He died in 1698, aged 60.

* ROOST. *n. ſ.* [*roſt*, Saxon.] 1. That on which a bird ſits to ſleep.—
He clap'd his wings upon the *rooſt*. *Dryden.*
2. The act of ſleeping.—A fox ſpied out a cock at *rooſt* upon a tree. *L'Eſtrange.*—Large and ſtrong muſcles move the wings, and ſupport the body at *rooſt*. *Derham.*

* *To* ROOST. *v. n.* [*roeſten*, Dutch: of the ſame etymology with *reſt*.] 1. To ſleep as a bird.—The cock *rooſted* at night upon the boughs. *L'Eſtrange.* 2. To lodge. In burleſque.

(1.) * ROOT. *n. ſ.* *rot*, Swediſh; *roed*, Daniſh.] 1. That part of the plant which reſts in the ground, and ſupplies the ſtems with nouriſhment.—The layers will in a month ſtrike *root*. *Evelyn.*—When you would have many new *roots* of fruit trees, take a low tree, and bow it, and lay all his branches a flat upon the ground, and caſt earth upon them, and every twig will take *root*. *Bacon.*
From one *root* the riſing ſtem beſtows
A wood of leaves. *Dryden.*
—In October, the hops will ſettle and ſtrike *root* againſt ſpring. *Mort. Huſb.* 2. The bottom; the lower part.—
Deep to the *roots* of hell the gather'd breach
They faſten'd. *Milton.*
—Theſe ſubterraneous vaults would be found eſpecially about the *roots* of the mountains. *Burnet.* 2. A plant of which the root is eſculent.—Thoſe plants, whoſe *roots* are eaten, are carrots, turnips, and radiſhes. *Watts.*—
Nor were the cole-worts wanting, nor the
root
Which after-ages call Hybernian fruit. *Harte.*
4. The original; the firſt cauſe.—The love of money is the *root* of all evil. *Temple.* 5. The firſt anceſtor.—
Myſelf ſhould be the *root*, and father
Of many kings. *Shak.*
The deſire to know firſt made men fools,
And did corrupt the *root* of all mankind. *Davies.*
So deep a malice to confound the race
Of mankind in one *root*. *Milton.*
—They were the *roots*, out of which ſprang two diſtinct people. *Locke.* 6. Fixed reſidence. 7. Impreſſion; durable effect.—They went on till they had plucked up even thoſe things alſo, which had taken a great deal ſtronger and deeper *root*. *Hooker.*—
That love took deepeſt *root*, which firſt did
grow. *Dryden.*

(2.) Root, among botaniſts. (§ 1. *def.* 1.) See BOTANY, *Index*; and PLANT, § 27.

(3.) Root, in algebra and arithmetic, denotes any number which, multiplied by itſelf once or oftner, produces any other number; and is called the *ſquare*, *cube*, *biquadrate*, &c. *root*, according to the number of multiplications. Thus, 2 is the ſquare-root of 4; the cube-root of 8; the biquadrate root of 16, &c.

(4.) Root, China. See SMILAX.

(5.) Root,

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(5.) ROOT, FALSE CHINA. See SENECIO, and SMILAX.

(6.) ROOT, FEVER. See TRIOSTEUM.

(7.) ROOT, HOLLOW. See ADOXA.

(8.) ROOT, INDIAN ARROW. See MARANTA.

(9.) ROOT OF SCARCITY. See RUTA BAGA.

(10.) ROOT, RATTLESNAKE, or DR WITTS's RATTLESNAKE ROOT, is a ſpecies of PRENANTHES.

(11.) ROOT, RATTLESNAKE, or SENEKA ROOT. See POLYGALA, N° 1.

(12.) ROOT, ROSE. See RHODIOLA.

(13.) ROOTS, COLOURS EXTRACTED FROM. See COLOUR-MAKING, *Index*.

(14.) ROOT, SNAKE. See ARISTOLOCHIA, N° 5.

(15.) ROOT, SWEET, a ſpecies or variety of GLYCIRRHIZA.

(16.) ROOT, SWEET, or CARMELE. See MURRAY, N° 8.

(17.) ROOT, WILD AMERICAN SNAKE. See ACTÆA, N° 3.

(1.) * *To* ROOT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To fix deep in the earth.—

Ocean, air, and earth at once engage,
And *rooted* foreſts fly before their rage. *Dryden.*

Where th' impetuous torrent ruſhing down
Huge craggy ſtones, and *rooted* trees had thrown.
They left their courſers. *Dryden.*

2. To impreſs deeply.—The great important end that God deſigns it for, the government of mankind, ſufficiently ſhews the neceſſity of its being *rooted* deeply in the heart. *South.*—They have ſo *rooted* themſelves in the opinions of their party, that they cannot hear an objection with patience. *Watts.* 3. To turn up out of the ground; to radicate; to extirpate: with a particle; as *out* or *up*.

He's a rank weed,
And we muſt *root* him *out*. *Shak.*

Soon ſhall we drive back Alcibiades,
Who, like a boar too ſavage, doth *root up*
His country's peace. *Shak.*

The Egyptians think it ſin to *root up* or to bite
Their leeks or onions. *Raleigh.*

Root up wild olives from thy labour'd lands. *Dryden.*

The thorns he *rooted out*, the rubbiſh clear'd,
And bleſt th' obedient field. *Dryden.*

4. To deſtroy; to baniſh: with particles.—

Not to deſtroy, but *root* them *out* of heav'n,
Milton.

If vain we plant, we build, our ſtores increaſe,
In conſcience *roots up* all our inward peace.
Granville.

(2.) * *To* ROOT. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To fix the root; to ſtrike far into the earth.—

The darnel, hemlock and rank fumitory.
Doth *root*. *Shak.*

Underneath the grove of ſycamour,
That weſtward *rooteth*, did I ſee your ſon. *Shak.*

—The multiplying brood of the ungodly ſhall not take deep *rooting* from baſtard ſlips. *Wiſd.*—After a year's *rooting*, then ſhaking doth the tree good, by looſening of the earth. *Bacon.*—The coulter muſt be proportioned to the ſoil, becauſe, in deep grounds, the weeds *root* the deeper. *Mortimer.* 2. To turn up earth: as, the hog *roots* the garden. 3. To ſink deep.—If any irregularity chanced to intervene, and cauſe miſapprehenſions, gave them not leave to *root* and faſten by concoment. *Fell.*

* ROOTED. *adj.* [from *root*.] Fixed; deradical.—

Pluck from the memory a *rooted* ſorrow,
—The danger is great to them, who, on a
er foundation, do yet ſtand firmly *rooted*,
grounded in love of Chriſt. *Hammond.*—Yo
ways joined a violent deſire of perpetually
ing places with a *rooted* lazineſs. *Swift.*

* ROOTEDLY. *adv.* [from *rooted*.] Deſtrongly.—

They all do hate him as *rootedly* as I.

* ROOTY. *adj.* [from *root*.] Full of roots.

(1.) * ROPE. *n. ſ.* [*rap*, Saxon; *reep*, Dutch.] 1. A cord; a ſtring; a halter; a
a hauſſer.—

Thou drunken ſlave, I ſent thee for a
And told thee to what purpoſe.
—An anchor, let down by a *rope*, maketh a
and yet the *rope* is no ſolid body, where
ſound can aſcend. *Bacon.*—

The fear of gallowſes and *ropes*
Before their eyes, might reconcile
Their animoſities a while?
—Hang yourſelf up in a true *rope*, that the
appear no trick in it. *John Bull.* 2. Any
things depending: as, *a rope of onions*
book, which was to provide chains for
kind, I find nothing but a *rope* of ſand.

(2.) ROPE is applied to a conſiderable
tion of twiſted fibres. Smaller bands are
lines, *ſtrings*, or *cords*; and it is not appli
great propriety even to thoſe, unleſs t
compoſed of ſmaller things of the ſame kin
ed together. Two hay bands twiſted
would be called a *rope*. All the differen
of this manufacture, from a fiſhing-line o
cord to the cable of a firſt rate ſhip of wa
the general name of CORDAGE.

* *To* ROPE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] T
out into viſcoſities; to concrete into g
filaments. Such bodies partly follow the
of another body, and partly ſtick to the
and therefore *rope* and draw themſelv
threads; as pitch, glue, and birdlime.

Run it through, the drops will *rope*

* ROPEDANCER. *n. ſ.* [*rope* and *dancer*.]
tiſt who dances on a rope.—Salvian, amon
lick ſhews, mentions the Petaminarii; p
derived from the Greek πεταννυμι, to ſ
may refer to ſuch kind of *ropedancers*. W
Statius, poſted on the higheſt of the two
the people regarded with terror, as the
upon a daring *ropedancer*, whom they
to fall every moment. *Addiſon.*—Nic bou
with a ſpring equal to that of one of your
tumblers or *ropedancers*, and fell foul up
Bull. *Arbuthnot.*

ROPE-FERRY, a harbour and ferry of Co
cut acroſs a bay in New London.

* ROPE-MAKER, or *roper*. *n. ſ.* [*rope* and
ker.] One who makes ropes to ſell.—

The *ropemaker* bear me witneſs,
That I was ſent for nothing but a rope.

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DEFINITION.

) OPE-MAKING, *n. f.* the art of making ropes
and all kinds of cordage.

ROPE-MAKING is an art of great importance:
d there are few that better deſerve the attention
the intelligent obſerver. Hardly any art can be
ried on without the aſſiſtance of the rope-ma-
. Cordage makes the very ſinews and muſcles
a ſhip; and every improvement which can be
de in its preparation, either in reſpect to
gth or pliableneſs, muſt be of immenſe ſer-
to the mariner, and to the commerce and
defence of nations. And therefore to a tra-
g nation, ſuch as GREAT BRITAIN, whoſe
mercial and political importance depends up-
its SHIPPING, rope-making muſt be conſider-
as of the utmoſt importance.

CT. I. *Of the* MATERIALS *uſed for* MAKING ROPES, &c.

ROPES are made of every ſubſtance that is ſuf-
ently fibrous, flexible, and tenacious, but chief-
of the barks of plants. The Chineſe and other
ntals even make them of the ligneous parts of
al plants, ſuch as certain bamboos and reeds,
ems of the aloes, the fibrous covering of the
nut, the filaments of the cotton pod, and
aves of ſome graſſes, ſuch as the ſparte.
s, Linn.) The aloe (*Agave*, Linn.) and
rte exceed all others in ſtrength. But the
of plants are the moſt productive of fibrous
r fit for this manufacture. Thoſe of the
tree (*Tilia*), of the willow, the bramble,
ettle, are frequently uſed: but hemp and
e of all others the beſt; and of theſe the
is preferred, and employed in all cordage
ing the ſize of a line, and even in many of
enomination.

HEMP is very various in its uſeful qualities.
are great ſtrength, and the length and fine-
of the fibre. Being a plant of very greedy
h, it ſucks up much of the unaltered juices
ſoil, and therefore differs greatly accord-
its ſoil, climate and culture. The beſt in
comes to us through Riga, to which port
ught from very diſtant places ſouthward. It
n by the name of *Riga rein* (i.e. clean) hemp.
e is not the longeſt (at leaſt in the dreſſed
which we get it) of all others, but it is
eſt, moſt flexible, and ſtrongeſt. The next
is ſuppoſed to be the Peterſburgh *braak*
. Other hemps are eſteemed nearly in the
ing order:—Riga outſhot, Peterſburgh out-
hemp from Koningſburg, Archangel, Swe-
Memel. *Chucking* is a name given to a hemp
comes from various places, long in the fibre,
oarſe and hariſh, and its ſtrength is inferior
hemps which one would think weaker. Its
e is ſuch, that it does not admit ſplitting
the hatchel ſo as to be more completely dreſ-
It is therefore kept in its coarſe form, and
for inferior cordage. It is however a good
ſtrong hemp, but will not make fine work.
re are doubtleſs many good hemps in the
thern parts of Europe, but little of them is
ght to our market. Codilla, half clean, &c.
portions of the above mentioned hemps, ſe-
parated by the dreſſing, and may be conſidered
as broken fibres of thoſe hemps. Only hemps of
the firſt quality is manufactured for the rigging
of the royal navy and for the ſhips of the Eaſt In-
dia company.

SECT. II. *Of the* GENERAL PRINCIPLES *of* ROPE-MAKING.

WE ſhall give a very ſhort account of the ma-
nufacture, which will not indeed fully inſtruct the
artificers, but will give ſuch a view of the proceſs
as ſhall enable the reader to judge, from princi-
ple, of the propriety of the different parts of the
manipulation, and perceive its defects, and the
means of removing them.

The aim of the rope-maker is to unite the
ſtrength of a great number of fibres. This would
be done in the completeſt manner by laying the
fibres parallel to each other, and faſtening the
bundle at the two ends: but this would be of ve-
ry limited uſe, becauſe the fibres are ſhort, not
exceeding three feet and a half at an average.
They muſt therefore be entangled together, in
ſuch a manner that the ſtrength of a fibre ſhall
not be able to draw it out from among the reſt of
the bundle. This is done by twiſting or twining
them together, which cauſes them mutually to
compreſs each other. When the fibres are ſo diſ-
poſed in a long ſkain, that their ends ſucceed each
other along its length, without many of them
meeting in one place, and this ſkain is twiſted
round and round, we may cauſe them to compreſs
each other to any degree we pleaſe, and the fric-
tion on a fibre which we attempt to pull out may
be more than its coheſion can overcome. It will
therefore break. Conſequently if we pull at this
twiſted ſkain, we ſhall not ſeparate it by drawing
one parcel out from among the reſt, but the whole
fibres will break; and if the diſtribution of the fi-
bres has been very equable, the ſkain will be near-
ly of the ſame ſtrength in every part. If there is
any part where many ends of fibres meet, the
ſkain will break in that part.

We can twiſt a ſkain of fibres ſo very hard, that
it will break with any attempt to twiſt it harder.
In this ſtate all the fibres are already ſtrained to
the utmoſt of their ſtrength. Such a ſkain of fi-
bres can have no ſtrength. It cannot carry a
weight, becauſe each fibre is already ſtrained in
the ſame manner as if loaded with as much weight
as it is able to bear. What we have ſaid of this
extreme caſe is true in a certain extent of every
degree of twiſt that we give the fibres. Whatever
force is actually exerted by a twiſted fibre, in or-
der that it may ſufficiently compreſs the reſt to
hinder them from being drawn out, muſt be con-
ſidered as a weight hanging on that fibre, and
muſt be deduced from its abſolute ſtrength of co-
heſion, before we can eſtimate the ſtrength of the
ſkain. The ſtrength of the ſkain is the remainder
of the abſolute ſtrength of the fibres, after we
have deduced the force employed in twiſting them
together.

From this obſervation may be deduced a fun-
damental principle in rope-making, that all twiſt-
ing, beyond what is neceſſary for preventing the
fibres from being drawn out without breaking, di-
miniſhes the ſtrength of the cordage, and ſhould
be

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be avoided. It is of importance to keep this in mind.

It is neceſſary then to twiſt the fibres of hemp together, in order to make a rope; but we ſhould make a very bad rope if we contented ourſelves with twiſting together a bunch of hemp ſufficiently large to withſtand the ſtrains to which the rope is to be expoſed. As ſoon as we let it go out of our hands, it would untwiſt itſelf, and be again a looſe bundle of hemp; for the fibres are ſtrained, and they are in a conſiderable degree elaſtic; they contract again, and thus untwiſt the rope or ſkain. It is neceſſary to contrive the twiſt in ſuch a manner, that the tendency to untwiſt in one part may act againſt the ſame tendency in another and balance it. The proceſs, therefore, of rope-making is more complicated.

Sect. III. *Of the* Spinning *of* Rope-yarns.

This is the firſt part of the proceſs. It is done in various ways, and with different machinery, according to the nature of the intended cordage. We ſhall confine our deſcription to the manufacture of the larger kinds, ſuch as are uſed for the ſtanding and running rigging of ſhips.

An alley or walk is incloſed for the purpoſe, about 200 fathoms long, and of a breadth ſuited to the extent of the manufacture. It is ſometimes covered above. At the upper end of this rope-walk is ſet up the ſpinning-wheel, of a form reſembling that in *Pl.* CCXCVII. *fig.* 1. The band of this wheel goes over ſeveral rollers called whirls, turning on pivots in braſs holes. The pivots at one end come through the frame, and terminate in little hooks. The wheel being turned by a winch, gives motion in one direction to all thoſe whirls. The ſpinner has a bundle of dreſſed hemp round his waiſt, with the two ends meeting before him. The hemp is laid in this bundle in the way that women ſpread the flax on the diſtaff. There is great variety in this; but the general aim is to lay the fibres ſo, that as long as the bundle laſts, there may be an equal number of the ends at the extremity, and that a fibre may never offer itſelf double or in a bight. The ſpinner draws out a proper number of fibres, twiſts them with his fingers, and having got a ſufficient length detached, he fixes it to the hook of a whirl. The wheel is now turned, and the ſkain is twiſted, becoming what is called a rope-yarn, and the ſpinner walks backwards *down* the rope-walk. The part already twiſted draws along with it more fibres out of the bundle. The ſpinner aids this with his fingers, ſupplying hemp in due proportion as he walks away from the wheel, and taking care that the fibres come in equally from both ſides of his bundle, and that they enter always with their ends, and not by the middle, which would double them. He ſhould alſo endeavour to enter every fibre at the heart of the yarn. This will cauſe all the fibres to mix equally in the making it up, and will make the work ſmooth, becauſe one end of each fibre is thus buried among the reſt, and the other end only lies outward; and this, in paſſing through the graſp of the ſpinſter, who preſſes it tight with his thumb and palm, is alſo made to lie ſmooth. The greateſt fault committed in ſpinning is to allow a ſmall threa[d] ed off from one ſide of the hem[p] cover this with hemp ſupplied [on] ſide: for the fibres of the 'centr[e] very long ſpirals, and the ſkin [of] covers them muſt be much ſtr[ained] covering has but little conne[ction] is below it, and will eaſily be [drawn] ven while it remains, the yarn [will] for on puiling it, the middle part [of] ſtraighteſt, muſt bear all the ſtra[in] er fibres that are lying more obl[ique] drawn a little more parallel to the [axis] fect will always happen if the hemp [has] a conſiderable body to yarn that is [very] ſmall. Into whatever part of the [yarn] to enter, it becomes a ſort of loo[ſe] wrapper. Such a yarn, when untwiſt[ed] have the appearance of *fig.* 2. while good [is] like *fig.* 4. A good ſpinner therefore [is] always to ſupply the hemp in the form [of a] flat ſkain with his left hand, while his right [is] employed in graſping firmly the yarn that is [drawn] off, and in holding it tight from the whirl, [that] may not run into loops or kinks.

As both the arrangement of the fibres [and the] degree of twiſting depend on the ſkill and [dexte]rity of the ſpinner, he muſt be inſtructed, [not by] a book, but a maſter. The degree of [twiſt] depends on the rate of the wheel's motion, [combi]ned with the retrograde walk of the ſpinner.

Suppoſe him arrived at the *lower* end of the walk, or as is neceſſary for the intended length of his yarn. He calls out, and another ſpinner immediately detaches the yarn from the hook of the whirl, gives it to another, who carries it along the reel, and this ſecond ſpinner attaches the hemp to the whirl hook. In the mean time the firſt ſpinner keeps faſt hold of the end of the yarn; for the hemp, being dry, is very elaſtic, and if he were to let it go out of his hand it would inſtantly untwiſt, and become little better than mere hemp. He waits, therefore, till he ſees the wheel begin to turn the reel, and he goes ſlowly back the walk, keeping the yarn of an equal tightneſs all the way, till he arrives at the wheel, where he waits with his yarn in his hand till another ſpinner has finiſhed his yarn. The firſt ſpinner takes it off the whirl hook, joins it to his own, and then may follow it on the reel, and begins a new yarn.

Rope-yarns, for the greateſt part of the ſtanding rigging, are from a quarter of an inch to a little what more than a third of an inch in circumference, or of ſuch a ſize that 160 fathoms weigh from 3¼ to 4 pounds when white. The different ſizes of yarns are named from the number of threads contained in a ſtrand of a rope of three inches circumference. Few are ſo coarſe that are uſed to make a ſtrand of Britiſh cordage; 18 is not infrequent for cable yarns, or yarns ſpun from middling and coarſe hemp; 25 is, we believe, the finer ſize which is worked up for the rigging of ſhips. Much finer are indeed ſpun for ſounding lines, fiſhing lines, and many other marine uſes, and for the other demands of ſociety. Ten good ſpinners will work up above 600 weight of hemp in a week, but this depends on the weather. In very wet

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Fig. 2. Fig. 3. Fig. 4.

Fig. 6.

Fig. 7.

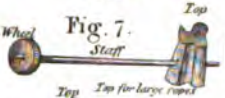


Fig. 11.

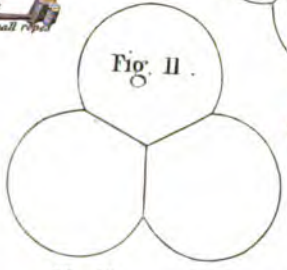
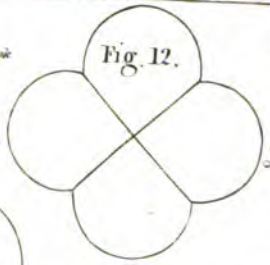


Fig. 12.



Scarabæus Carnifex.

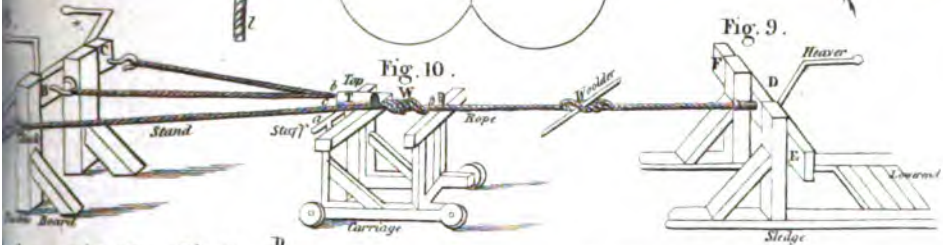


Fig. 10.

Fig. 9.

Fig. 13.

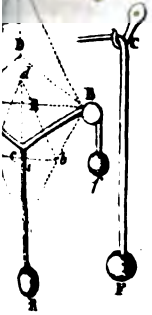


Fig. 14.

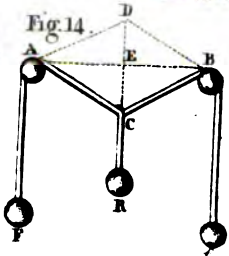


Fig. 16.

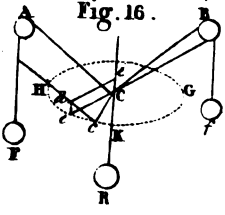
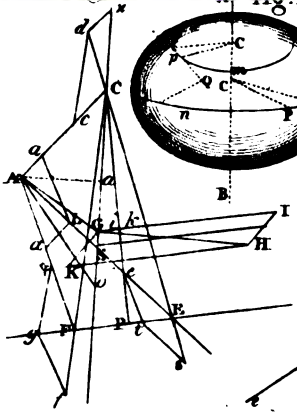


Fig. 3.



ROTATION

Fig. 1.

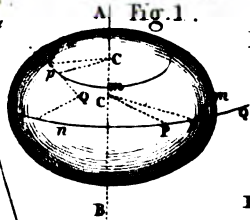
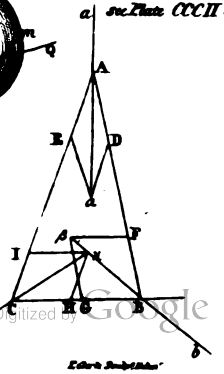


Fig. 2. Rudder

see Plate CCCII.



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weather the hemp is very elaſtic, and requires great attention to make ſmooth work. In the warmer climates the ſpinner is permitted to moiſten the rag with which he graſps the yarn in his right hand for each yarn. No work can be done in the open ſpinning walk in rainy weather, becauſe the yarns would not take on the tar, if immediately tarred, and would rot if kept on the reel for a long time.

SECT. IV. *Of the* CONVERSION *of the* ROPE-YARNS *into* ROPES, CORDS, *or* LINES.

That we may have a clear conception of the principle which regulates this part of the proceſs, we ſhall begin with the ſimpleſt poſſible caſe, the union of two yarns into one line. This is not a very uſual fabric for rigging, but we ſelect it for its ſimplicity.

When hemp has been ſplit into very fine fibres by the hatchel, it becomes exceedingly ſoft and pliant, and after it has lain for ſome time in the form of fine yarn, it may be unreeled and thrown off without loſing much of its twiſt. Two ſuch yarns may be put on the wheel of a ſpinning mill, and thrown, like flaxen yarn, ſo as to form a ſewing thread. It is in this way, indeed, that the ſail-maker's ſewing thread is manufactured; and when it has been kept on the reel, or in balls or bobbins, for ſome time, it retains its twiſt as well as its uſes require. But this is by no means the caſe with yarns ſpun for cordage. The hemp is ſo elaſtic, the number of fibres twiſted together is ſo great, and the force of the yarn (which is a ſort of lever on which the elaſticity of the fibre exerts itſelf) is ſo conſiderable, that no keeping will make the fibres retain this conſtrained poſition. The end of a ſpun yarn being thrown looſe, it will immediately untwiſt, and this with conſiderable force and ſpeed. It would, therefore, be a fruitleſs attempt to twiſt ſuch yarns together; yet the ingenuity of man has contrived to make uſe of this very tendency to untwiſt not only to counteract itſelf, but alſo to produce another and a permanent twiſt, which requires force to undo it, and which will retain itſelf when this force is removed. Every perſon muſt recollect that, when he has twiſted a thread very hard with his fingers between his hands, if he ſlackens the thread by bringing his hands nearer together, the packthread will immediately curl up, running into loops or kinks, and even twiſt itſelf into a neat and firm cord. Familiar as this fact is, it would puzzle any perſon not accuſtomed to theſe ſubjects to explain it with diſtinctneſs. We ſhall conſider it with ſome care, not as a piece of mechanical curioſity, but as a fundamental principle in this manufacture, which will give us clear inſtructions to direct us in the moſt delicate part of the whole proceſs. And we beg the attention of the artiſts themſelves to a thing which they ſeem to have overlooked.

Let *m d*, *n d* (*Plate* 297, *fig.* 4.) be two yarns twiſted to one point *d*, and let both of them be twiſted, each round its own axis, in the direction which will cauſe the fibres to lie in a ſcrew form, as repreſented in the figure. If the end of the yarn *m d* were at liberty to turn round the point *d*, it would turn accordingly, as often as the end *m* is turned round, and the yarn would acquire no twiſt; but being attached to ſome ſolid body it cannot turn without turning this body. It has, however, this tendency, and the body muſt be forcibly prevented from turning. If it be held faſt for a time, and then let go, it will be turned round, and it will not ſtop till it has turned as often as the end *m* has been twiſted, and now all the twiſt will be undone. Thus it is the tendency of the yarn *m d* to untwiſt at the end *d* (becauſe it is kept faſt at *m*), which produces this motion of the body attached to it at *d*. What we have ſaid of the yarn *m d* is equally true of the yarn *n d*. Both tend to turn, and will turn, the body attached at *d* round the common axis, in the ſame direction in which they are twiſted. Let *fig.* 5. be ſuppoſed a croſs ſection of the two yarns touching each other at *d*, and there glued to a board. The fibres of each pull obliquely, that is, they both pull away from the board, and pull laterally. The direction of this lateral pull of the fibres in the circumference of each yarn is repreſented by the little darts drawn round the circumferences. Theſe actions directly oppoſe and balance each other at *d*; but in the ſemicircles *a e t*, *t f o*, they evidently conſpire to turn the board round in the ſame direction. The ſame may be ſaid of the outer halves of any circles deſcribed within theſe. In the inner halves of theſe inner circles the actions of ſome fibres oppoſe each other; but in every circle there are many more conſpiring actions than oppoſing ones, and the conſpiring actions exert themſelves by longer levers, ſo that their joint momentum greatly exceeds that of the oppoſing forces. It may be demonſtrated, that if all the fibres exert equal forces, the force which tends to turn the board round the common axis is $\frac{2}{3}$ of the force employed to twiſt both the yarns.

Suppoſe then that the ſolid body to which the yarns are attached is at liberty to turn round the common axis; it cannot do this without carrying the yarns round with it. They muſt, therefore, turn round each other, and thus compoſe a rope or cord *k l*, having its component yarns (now called STRANDS) lying in a direction oppoſite to that of the fibres in each ſtrand. The rope will take this twiſt, while each of the ſtrands is really untwiſting, and the motion will not ſtop till all is again in equilibrio. If the yarns had no diameter and no rigidity, their elaſtic contraction would not be balanced till the cord had made half the number of turns which had been given to that part of the yarn which is thus doubled up. But, as the yarns have a ſenſible diameter, the ſame ultimate contraction of the fibres will be expended by the twiſting of the cord in fewer turns, even if the yarns had no rigidity. The turns neceſſary for this purpoſe will be ſo much fewer, in proportion to the twiſt of the yarns, as the fibres of the yarn lie more obliquely, that is, as the yarns are more twiſted. But further, this contractile force has to overcome the rigidity or ſtiffneſs of the yarns. This requires force merely to *bend* it into the ſcrew form; and therefore, when all is again at reſt, the fibres are in a ſtate of ſtrain, and the

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rope is not so much closed by doubling as it would have been had the yarns been softer. If any thing can be done to it in this state which will soften yarns, it will twist itself more up. It has therefore a *tendency* to twist more up; and if this be aided by an external force which will bend the strands, this will happen. Beating it with a soft mallet will have this effect; or, if it be forcibly twisted till the fibres are allowed to contract as much as they would have done had the yarn been perfectly soft, the cord will keep this twist without any effort; and this must be considered as its most perfect state, in relation to the degree of twist originally given to the yarns. It will have no tendency to run into kinks, which is both troublesome and dangerous, and the fibres will not exert any useless effort. To attain this state should therefore be the aim of every part of this second process; and this principle should be kept in view through the whole of it.

Sect. V. *Of* Laying *or* Closing large Cordage.

The operation of uniting the Strands with a permanent twist is called *laying or closing*: the latter term being chiefly appropriated to cables and other very large cordage.

Lines and cordage less than 1¼ inches circumference are laid at the spinning wheel. The workman fastens the ends of each of two or three yarns to separate whirl hooks. The remote ends are united in a knot. This is put on one of the hooks of a swivel called the *loper*, represented in *fig.* 6. and care is taken that the yarns are of equal lengths and twist. A piece of soft cord is put on the other hook of the loper; and, being put over a pulley several feet from the ground, a weight is hung on it, which stretches the yarn. When the workman sees that they are equally stretched, he orders the wheel to be turned in the same direction as when twining the yarns. This would twine them harder; but the swivel of the loper gives way to the strain, and the yarns immediately twist around each other, and form a line or cord. In doing this the yarns lose their twist. This is restored by the wheel. But this simple operation would make a very bad line, which would be slack, and would not hold its twist; for, by the turning of the loper, the strands twist immediately together, to a great distance from the loper. By this turning of the loper the yarns are untwisted. The wheel restores their twist only to that part of the yarns that remains separate from the others, but cannot do it in that part where they are already twined round each other, because their mutual pressure prevents the twist from advancing. It is, therefore, necessary to retard this tendency to twine, by keeping the yarns apart.

This is done by a little tool called the *top*, represented in *fig.* 7. It is a truncated cone, having three or more notches along its sides, and a handle called the staff. This is put between the strands, the small end next the loper, and it is pressed gently into the angle formed by the yarns which lie in the notches. The wheel being now turned, the yarns are more twisted or *hardened up*, and their pressure on the top gives it a strong tendency to come out of the angle, and also to turn round. The workman does not allow this till he thinks the yarns sufficiently hardened. Then he yields to the pressure, and the top comes away from the swivel, which immediately turns round and the line begins to lay. Gradually yielding to this pressure, the workman slowly comes backwards the wheel, and the laying goes on, till the top is at last close to the wheel, and the work done. In the mean time, the yarns are shortened, both by the twining of each and the laying of the cord. The weight, therefore, gradually rises. The use of this weight is to oblige the yarn to take a proper degree of twist, and not run into kinks.

A cord or line made in this way has always some tendency to twist a little more. However little friction there may be in the loper, there is some, so that the turns which the cord has got in the laying are not enough to balance completely the elasticity of the yarns; and the weight appended causes the strands to be more twisted in the direction of the axis, in the same manner as it would stretch and untwist a little any weight to which it is hung. On the whole, however, the twist of a laid line is permanent, and not like that upon thread doubled or thrown in a mill, which remains only in consequence of the great softness and flexibility of the yarn.

The process for laying or closing large cordage is considerably different from this. The yarns of which the rope is composed consist of many yarns, and require a considerable degree of hardening. This cannot be done by a whirl driven by a wheel-band; it requires the power of a crank turned by the hand. The strands, when properly hardened, become very stiff, and when the power round the top are not able to transmit force enough for laying the heavy and unpliant cable which forms beyond it. The elastic twist of the hardened strands must, therefore, be assisted by an external force. All this requires a different machinery and a different process.

At the upper end of the walk is fixed the *tackle-board*, *fig.* 8. This consists of a strong oaken plank called a *breast-board*, having three or more holes in it, such as A, B, C, fitted with brass or iron plates. Into these are put iron cranks, called heavers, which have hooks, forelocks, and keys, on the ends of their spindles. They are placed at such a distance from each other, that the workmen do not interfere with each other while turning them round. This breast-board is fixed to the top of strong posts which are secured by struts or braces facing the lower end of the walk. At the lower end is another breast-board fixed to the upright posts of a sledge, which may be loaded with stones or other weights. Similar cranks are placed in the holes of this breast-board. The whole goes by the name of the jack (see *fig.* 9.) The top necessary for closing large cordage is too heavy to be held in the hand, and therefore has a long staff, which has a truck at the end. This rests on the ground; but even this is not enough in laying great cables. The top must be supported on a carriage, as in *fig.* 9. where it must lie very steady, and need no attendance, because the master workman has sufficient employment

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employment in attending to the manner in which the ſtrands cloſe behind the top, and in helping them by various methods. The top is, therefore, fixed to the carriage by laſhing its ſtaff to the two upright poſts. A piece of ſoft rope, or ſtrap, is attached to the handle of the top by the middle, and its two ends are brought back and wrapped ſeveral times tight round the rope, in the direction of its twiſt, and bound down. This is ſhown at W, and it greatly aſſiſts the laying of the rope by its friction. This both keeps the top from flying too far from the point of union of the ſtrands, and brings the ſtrands more regularly into their places.

The firſt operation is WARPING the yarns. At the end of the walk are frames called warping mills, which carry a great number of reels or bobbins filled with rope yarn. The foreman of the walk takes off a yarn end from each, till he has made up the number neceſſary for his rope or cable, and bringing the ends together, he paſſes the whole through an iron ring fixed to the top of a ſtake driven into the ground, and draws them through: then a knot is tied on the end of the whole, and a workman pulls it through this ring till the intended length is drawn off the reels. The yarns made faſt at the bottom of the walk, or at the ſledge, and the foreman comes back along the whole yarns, to ſee that none are hanging ſlacker than the reſt. He takes up in his hand ſuch as are ſlack, and draws them tight, keeping them ſo till he reaches the upper end, where he cuts the yarns to a length, again adjuſts their tightneſs, and joins them all together in a knot, to which he hooks the hook of a tackle, the other block of which is faſtened to a firm poſt, called the *warping-poſt*. The whole yarn is well ſtretched by this tackle, and is now ſeparated into its different ſtrands. Each of these is knotted apart at both ends. The knots at the upper ends are made faſt to the hooks of the tackle in the tackle board, and thoſe at their lower ends are faſtened to the cranks in the ſledge. The ſledge itſelf is kept in its place by a tackle, by which the ſtrands are again ſtretched in their places, and every thing adjuſted, ſo that the ſledge may ſtand ſquare on the walk, and then a proper quantity is laid on it. The tackle is now caſt off, and the cranks are turned at both ends, in the contrary direction to the twiſt of the yarns. (In ſome kinds of cordage the cranks are turned the ſame way with the ſpinning twiſt). By this the yarns are twiſted and hardened up; and as they contract by this operation, the ſledge is dragged up the walk. When the foreman thinks the ſtrands ſufficiently hardened, which he eſtimates by the diſtance of the ſledge, he orders the heavers at the cranks to ſtop. The middle ſtrand at the ſledge is taken off from the crank. This crank is taken away, and a ſtronger one put in its place at D, *fig.* The other ſtrands are taken off from their cranks, and all are joined on the hook which is now in the middle hole. The top is then placed between the ſtrands, and, being preſſed home to the point of their union, the carriage is placed upon it, and it is firmly fixed down. Some weight is taken off the ſledge. The heavers now begin to turn at both ends. Thoſe at the tackle-board continue to turn as they did before; but the heavers at the ſledge turn in the oppoſite direction to their former motion, ſo that the cranks at both ends are now turning one way. By the motion of the ſledge-crank the top is forced away from the knot, and the rope begins to cloſe. The heaving at the upper end reſtores to the ſtrand the twiſt which they are conſtantly loſing by the laying of the rope. The workmen judge of this by making a chalk mark on intermediate points of the ſtrands, where they lie on the ſtakes which are ſet up along the walk for their ſupport. If the twiſt of the ſtrands is diminiſhed by the motion of cloſing, they will lengthen, and the chalk mark will move away from the tackle-board: but if the twiſt increaſes by turning the cranks at the tackle-board, the ſtrands will ſhorten, and the mark will come nearer to it.

As the cloſing of the rope advances, the whole ſhortens, and the ſledge is dragged up the walk. The top moves faſter, and at laſt reaches the upper end of the walk, the rope being now laid. In the mean time, the ſledge has moved ſeveral fathoms from the place where it was when the laying began.

Theſe motions of the ſledge and top muſt be exactly adjuſted to each other. The rope muſt be of a certain length. Therefore the ſledge muſt ſtop at a certain place. At that moment the rope ſhould be laid; that is, the top ſhould be at the tackle-board. In this conſiſts the addreſs of the foreman. He has his attention directed both ways. He looks at the ſtrands, and when he ſees any of them hanging ſlacker between the ſtakes than the others, he calls to the heavers at the tackle-board to heave more upon that ſtrand. He finds it more difficult to regulate the motion of the top. It requires a conſiderable force to keep it in the angle of the ſtrands, and it is always diſpoſed to ſtart forward. To prevent or check this, ſome ſtraps of ſoft rope are brought round the ſtaff of the top, and then wrapped ſeveral times round the rope behind the top, and kept firmly down by a lanyard or bandage, as is ſhown in the figure. This both holds back the top and greatly aſſiſts the laying of the rope, cauſing the ſtrands to fall into their places, and keep cloſe to each other. This is ſometimes very difficult, eſpecially in ropes compoſed of more than three ſtrands. It will greatly improve the laying the rope, if the top have a ſharp, ſmooth, tapering pin of hard wood, pointed at the end, projecting ſo far from the middle of its ſmaller end, that it gets in between the ſtrands which are cloſing. This ſupports them, and makes their cloſing more gradual and regular. The top, its notches, the pin, and the warp or ſtrap, which is lapped round the rope, are all ſmeared with greaſe or ſoap to aſſiſt the cloſing. The foreman judges of the progreſs of cloſing chiefly by his acquaintance with the walk, knowing that when the ſledge is abreaſt of a certain ſtake the top ſhould be abreaſt of a certain other ſtake. When he finds the top too far down the walk, he ſlackens the motion at the tackle board, and makes the men turn briſkly at the ſledge. By this the top is forced up the wal , and the laying of the rope accelerates, while the ſledge remains in the ſame place, becauſe the ſtrands are loſing their twiſt, and are lengthening, while the cloſed

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rope is shortening. When, on the other hand, he thinks the top too far advanced, and fears it will be at the head of the walk before the sledge has got to its proper place, he makes the men heave briskly on the strands, and the heavers at the sledge-crank work softly.—This quickens the motion of the sledge by shortening the strands; and by thus compensating what has been overdone, the sledge and top come to their places at once, and the work appears to answer the intention. But this is a bad method of proceeding.

It is evident, that if the strands be kept to one degree of hardness throughout, and the heaving at the sledge be uniformly continued, the rope will be uniform. It may be a little longer or shorter than was intended, and the laying may be too hard in proportion to the twist of the strands, in which case it will not keep it; or it may be too slack, and the rope will tend to twist more. Either of these faults are discoverable by slackening the rope before it comes off the hooks, and it may then be corrected. But if the error in one place be compensated by that in another, this will not be easily seen before taking off the hooks; and if it be a large and stiff rope, it will hardly ever come to an equable state in its different parts, but will be apt to run into loops during service.

It is, therefore, of importance to preserve the uniformity throughout the whole. Mr DU HAMEL, in his great work on rope-making, proposes a method which is very exact, but requires an apparatus which is cumbersome, and which would be much in the way of the workmen. We think that the following method would be extremely easy, embarrass no one, and is perfectly exact. Having determined the proportion between the velocity of the top and sledge, let the diameter of the truck of the top carriage be to that of another truck fixed to the sledge, in the proportion of the velocity of the top to that of the sledge. Let a mark be made on the rim of each; let the man at the sledge make a signal every time that the mark on the sledge-truck is uppermost. The mark on the carriage-truck should be uppermost at the same instant; and in this way the foreman knows the state of the rope at all times without quitting his station. Thus, in making a cable of 120 fathoms, it is usual to warp the yarns 180 fathoms, and to harden them up to 140 before closing. Therefore, in the closing, the top must move 140 fathoms, and the sledge only 20. The diameter of the carriage-truck should therefore be 7 times the diameter of the sledge-truck.

We have hitherto proceeded on the supposition, that the twist produced by the cranks is propagated freely along the strands and along the closing rope. But this is not the case. It is almost unavoidable that the twist is greater in the neighbourhood of the crank which produces it. The strands are often of very considerable weight, and lie heavy on the flakes. Force is therefore necessary to overcome their friction, and it is only the overplus that is propagated beyond the flake. It is proper to lift them up from time to time, and let them fall down again, as the sawer does with his marking line. This helps the twist to run along the strand. But this is not enough for the closed rope, which is of much greater weight, and much stiffer.

When the top approaches the tackle-board, the heaving at the sledge could not cause the strands immediately behind the top to close well, without having previously produced an extravagant degree of twist in the intermediate rope. The effect of the crank must therefore be assisted by men stationed along the rope, each furnished with a tool called a WOOLDER. This is a stout oak stick about 3 feet long, having a strap of soft rope yarn or cordage fastened on its middle or end. The strap is wrapped round the laid rope, and the workman works with the stick as a lever, twisting the rope round in the direction of the crank's motion. The men who use the woolders should keep their eye on the men at the crank, and make their motion correspond with his. Thus they send forward the twist produced by the crank, without either increasing or diminishing it, in that part of the rope which lies between them and the sledge.

It is usual before taking the rope from the benches to heave a while at the sledge end, to harden the rope a little. They do this so as to take it up about one 60th. The propriety or impropriety of this practice depends entirely on the proportion which has been previously observed between the hardening of the strands and the twisting of the closing rope. It is, in all cases, better to adjust these precisely, and then nothing remains to be done when the top has arrived at the upper end of the walk. The making of two-strand and three-strand line pointed out the principle which should be attended to in this case; namely, that the twist given to the rope in laying should be precisely what a perfectly soft rope would give to itself. We do not see any reason for thinking that the proportion between the number of turns given to the strands and the number of turns given to the laid line by its own elasticity, will vary by any difference of diameter. The artists should settle this proportion by experiment. The line should be made of the finest, smallest, and softest thread yarn. These should be made into strands, and the strands should be hardened up in the direction contrary to the spinning twist. The rope should then be laid, hanging perpendicularly, with a small weight on the top to keep it down, and a very small weight at the end of the rope. The number of turns given to the strands should be carefully noticed, and the number of turns which the rope takes of itself in closing. The weight should then be taken off, and the rope will make a few turns more. This whole number will never exceed what is necessary for the equilibrium; and it will not fall much short of it. An exact adjustment of this particular will tend greatly to improve the art of rope-making, and experiments on good principles for ascertaining this proportion would be highly valuable, because there is no point about which the artists differ more in their opinions and practice.

The cordage, of which we have been describing the manufacture, is said to be HAWSER-LAID. It is uncommon to make ropes of four strands. They are used for shrouds, and this cordage is therefore called SHROUD LAID cordage. A rope of this kind

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te and weight muſt be ſmoother when it has four
ands, becauſe the ſtrands are ſmaller: but it is
ore difficult to lay cloſe. When three cylindri-
l ſtrands are ſimply laid together, they leave a
cuity at the axis amounting to one 28th of the e-
tion of a ſtrand. This is to be filled up by com-
ſſing the ſtrands by twiſting them. Each muſt
up ⅓ of it by changing its ſhape; and ⅙ of this
ge is made on each ſide of the ſtrand. The
ateſt change of ſhape therefore made on any
part of a ſtrand amounts only to one 168th
the ſection of the ſtrand. The vacuity be-
n four cylinders is three 11ths of one of
. This being divided into 8 parts, is one
of a ſtrand, and is the greateſt compreſſion
ch any part of it has to undergo. This is
y five times greater than the former, and
be more difficult to produce. Indeed it may
en by looking at the figures 11. and 12. that
ill be eaſier to compreſs a ſtrand into the ob-
angle of 120 degrees than into the right angle
; and that the difficulty will increaſe with
umber of ſtrands. Six ſtrands muſt touch
other, and form an arch leaving a hollow in
iddle, into which one of the ſtrands will ſlip,
en the reſt will not completely ſurround it.
a rope would be uneven on the ſurface. It
be weak; becauſe the central ſtrand would
in compariſon of the reſt, and would not
ting its whole force when they are juſt ready
k. We ſee then that a four ſtrand rope
e more difficult to lay well then a hawſer-
pe. With care, however, they may be laid
nd cloſe, and are much uſed in the royal

pes are made of four ſtrands, with a heart
ed in the middle. This gives no additional
th, for the reaſon juſt given. Its only uſe is
ke the work better and more eaſy, and to
t all the ſtrands at the ſame diſtance from
is of the rope. This is of great conſe-
e; becauſe when they are at unequal diſ-
from the axis, ſome muſt be more ſloping
thers, and they will not reſiſt alike. This
is made of inferior ſtuff, ſlack laid, and of a
equal to the ſpace it is to fill. When a
this fabric has been long uſed and become
ceable, and is opened out, the heart is always
cut and chafed to pieces, like very ſhort
. This happens thus: When the rope is
ly ſtrained, it ſtretches greatly; becauſe the
s ſurround the axis obliquely, and the ſtrain
them into a poſition more parallel to the axis.
he heart has not the obliquity of parts, and
ſtretch ſo much; at the ſame time its
are firmly graſped by the hard ſtrands which
nd them; they muſt therefore be torn into
pieces.

e proceſs for laying a rope with a heart is not
lifferent from that already deſcribed. The
s a hole pierced through it, in the direction
axis. The ſkain or ſtrand intended for the
paſſes through this hole, and is ſtretched a-
he walk. A boy attends it, holding it tight
is taken into the cloſing rope. But a little
ion to what has been ſaid will ſhow this me-
to be defective. The wick will have no
turns than the laid rope, and as it lies in the very axis, its yarns will be much ſtraighter than the ſtrands. Therefore when the rope is ſtrained and ſtretched, the wick cannot ſtretch as much as the laid ſtrands; and being firmly graſped by them it muſt break into ſhort pieces, and the ſtrands, having loſt their ſupport in thoſe places, will ſink in, and the cordage grow looſe. We ſhould endeavour to enable all to ſtretch alike. The wick therefore ſhould be twiſted in the ſame manner as the ſtrands, or even a little more. It will thus communicate part of its ſtrength to the rope. Indeed it will not be ſo uniformly ſolid, and may chance to have three ſpiral vacuities. But that this does no harm, is evident from the ſuperior ſtrength of cable laid cordage, which has the ſame vacuities. In this way are the main and fore ſtays made for ſhips of the line. They are thought ſtronger then hawſer-laid ropes, but unfit for running rigging; becauſe their ſtrands are apt to get out of their places when the rope is drawn into loops. It is alſo thought that the heart retains water, rots, and communicates its putrefaction to the ſurrounding ſtrands.

Such is the general and eſſential proceſs of rope-making. The fibres of hemp are twiſted into yarns, that they make a line of any length, and ſtick among each other with a force equal to their own coheſion. The yarns are made into cords of permanent twiſt by laying them; and, that we may have a rope of any degree of ſtrength, many yarns are united in one ſtrand, for the ſame reaſon that many fibres were united in one yarn; and in the courſe of this proceſs it is in our power to give the rope a ſolidity and hardneſs which makes it leſs penetrable by water, which would rot it in a ſhort while. Some of theſe purpoſes are inconſiſtent with others; and the ſkill of a ropemaker lies in making the beſt compenſation; ſo that the rope may on the whole be the beſt in point of ſtrength, pliancy, and duration, that the quantity of hemp in it can produce.

There is another ſpecies of cordage in very general uſe. A rope of two or more ſtrands may be uſed as a ſtrand, in order to compoſe a ſtill larger rope; and in this manner are cables and other ground-tackle commonly made; for this reaſon ſuch cordage is called CABLE-LAID cordage.

The proceſs of cable laying hardly differs from that of hawſer-laying. Three ropes, in their ſtate of permanent twiſt, may be twiſted together; but they will not hold it, like fine thread, becauſe they are ſtiff and elaſtic. They muſt therefore be treated like ſtrands for a hawſer. We muſt give them an *additional* twiſt, which will diſpoſe them to lay or cloſe themſelves; and this diſpoſition muſt be aided by the workmen at the ſledge. We ſay the twiſt ſhould be an addition to their twiſt as a rope. A twiſt in the oppoſite direction will indeed give them a diſpoſition to cloſe behind the top; but this will be very ſmall, and the ropes (now ſtrands) will be exceedingly open, and will become more open in laying. The twiſt is therefore given in the direction of their twiſt as a rope, or oppoſite to that of the primary ſtrands, of which the ropes are compoſed. Theſe primary ſtrands are therefore partly untwiſted in cable-laying a rope, in the ſame manner as the yarns are untwiſted in the uſual proceſs of rope-making.

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Hence

Hence the reader muſt be ſenſible that the hawſers intended for ſtrands of a cable muſt not be ſo much twiſted as thoſe intended to remain hawſers; for the twiſt given to a finiſhed hawſer is preſumed to be that which renders it moſt perfect, and it muſt not be injured by any addition. The preciſe proportion, and the diſtribution of the working up between the hardening of the ſtrands and cloſing the cable, is a ſubject about which the artiſts are no better agreed than in the caſe of hawſer-laid cordage. The reader being now acquainted with the different parts of the manipulation, and knowing what can be done on any occaſion, will now be able to judge of the propriety of the whole, when he learns the principle on which the ſtrength of a rope depends.

We have obſerved, that a rope yarn ſhould be twiſted till a fibre will break rather than be pulled out from among the reſt, and that all twiſting beyond this is injurious to the ſtrength of the yarn. This maxim is founded upon this plain conſideration, that it is needleſs to bind them cloſer together, for they will already break rather than come out; and becauſe this cloſer binding is produced only by forcible wrapping the outer fibres round the inner, and drawing the outer ones tight. Thus theſe fibres are on the ſtretch, and are ſtrained as if a weight were hung on each of them. The proceſs of laying lines, of a permanent twiſt, ſhows that we muſt do a little more. We muſt give the yarn a degree of elaſtic contractility, which will make it lay itſelf and form a line or cord which will retain its twiſt. This muſt leave the fibres of the yarns in a ſtate of greater compreſſion than is neceſſary for juſt keeping them together. But more than this ſeems to be hurtful. The ſame maxim muſt direct us in forming a rope conſiſting of ſtrands, containing more than one yarn. A needleſs exceſs of twiſt leaves them ſtrained, and leſs able to perform their office in the rope.

It often happens, that the workman, to make his ropes ſolid and firm, hardens up the ſtrands till they really break: and in the general practice of making large hawſers, many of the outer yarns in the ſtrands, eſpecially thoſe which chance to be outermoſt in the laid rope, and are therefore moſt ſtrained, are broken during the operation. But there is another conſideration which ſhould make us give no greater twiſt in any part of the operation than is abſolutely neceſſary for the firm coheſion of the parts, and this independent of the ſtrain to which the fibres of yarns are ſubjected. Twiſting cauſes all the fibres to lie obliquely with reſpect to the axis or general direction of the rope. It may happen that one fibre or one yarn ſhall keep in the axis, and remain ſtraight; but the reſt muſt be oblique, and the more oblique as they are further from the axis, and as they are more twiſted. Now it is to be demonſtrated, that when any ſtrain is given to the rope in the direction of its length, a ſtrain greater than this is actually excited on the oblique fibres, and ſo much the greater as they are more oblique; and thus the fibres which are already the weakeſt are expoſed to the greateſt ſtrains.

Let CF (*fig.* 13.) repreſent a fibre hanging from a hook, and loaded with a weight F, which it is juſt able to bear, but not more. This weight may repreſent the abſolute force of the fibre. Let ſuch another fibre be laid over the two pulleys A, B (*fig.* 14.) which are in a horizontal line AB, and let weights F and *f*, equal to the former, be hung on the ends of this fibre, while another weight R, leſs than the ſum of F and *f*, is hung on the middle point C by a hook or three. This weight will draw down the fibre into ſuch a poſition ACB, that the three weights F, R, and *f*, are in equilibrio by the intervention of the fibre. We affirm that this weight R is the meaſure of the relative ſtrength of the fibre in relation to the form ACB; for the fibre is equally ſtretched, all its parts, and therefore in every part it is ſtrained by the force F. If therefore the weights F and *f* are held faſt, and any addition is made to the weight R, the fibre muſt break, being already ſtrained to its full ſtrength; therefore R meaſures its ſtrength in relation to its ſituation. Complete the parallelogram ACBD, and draw the diagonal CD; becauſe AB is horizontal, and AC=BC, DC is vertical, and coincides with the direction CR, by which the weight R acts. The point C is drawn by three forces, which are in equilibrio. They are therefore proportional to the ſides of a triangle, which have the ſame directions; or, the force acting in the direction CA is to that acting in the direction CR as CA to CD. The point C is ſupported by the two forces CA, CB, which are equivalent to CD; and therefore the weight F is to the weight R as CA is to CD. Therefore the abſolute ſtrengths of the two fibres AC, BC, taken ſeparately, are greater than their reſpective ſtrengths in relation to their poſition with reſpect to CR: and ſince this proportion remains the ſame, whatever equal weights are hung on F and *f*, it follows that when any ſtrain DC is made to act on this fibre in the direction DC, it exerts a greater ſtrain on the fibre, becauſe CA and CB taken together are greater than CD. Each of them ſuſtains a ſtrain greater than the half of CD.

Now let the weight R be turned round the pin C, it is CR. This will cauſe the two parts of the fibre ACB to lap round each other, and compoſe a twiſted line or cord CR, as in fig. 15. and the parallelogram ACBD, will remain of the ſame form by the yielding of the weights F and *f*, as is evident from the equilibrium of forces. The fibre will always aſſume that form which makes the ſides and diagonal in the proportion of the weights. While the fibres lap round each other, they are ſtrained to the ſame degree, that is, to the full extent of their ſtrength, and they remain in this degree of ſtrain in every part of the line or cord CR. If therefore each of the fibres has the ſtrength AB, the cord has the ſtrength DC; and if F and *f* be held faſt, the ſmalleſt addition to R will break the cord. The ſum of the abſolute ſtrength of the two fibres of which this thread is compoſed is to the ſum of their relative ſtrength, or to the ſtrength of the thread, as AC+BC is to CD, or as AC is to EC.

If the weights F and *f* are not held faſt, but allowed to yield, a heavier weight *r* may be hung on at C without breaking the fibre; for it will draw it into another poſition A *c* B, ſuch that it ſhall be in equilibrio with F and *f*. Since F and *f* [illegible]

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remain the same, the fibre is as much strained as before. Therefore make *c a*, *c b* equal to CA and CB, and complete the parallelogram *a c b d*, and will now be the measure of the weight *r*, because it is the equivalent of *c a* and *c b*. It is evident that *c d* is greater than CD, and therefore the thread formed by the lapping of the fibre in the position *a c b* is stronger than the former, in the proportion of *c d* to CD, or *c e* to CE. The fibre is therefore so much stronger as the fibres are more parallel to the axis, and it must be strongest of all when they are quite parallel. Bring the pulley A, B close to each other. It is plain that if we hang on a weight R less than the sum of *e* and *f*, it cannot take down the bight of the fibre; but if equal to them, although it cannot take it down, it will keep it down. In this case, where the fibres are parallel to each other, the strength of the cord (improperly so called) is equal to the united absolute strengths of the fibres. Thus the length of each of the fibres which compose any part CR of this cord is to the length of that part of the cord as AC to EC; and this is the case even although they should lap round a cylinder of any diameter. Let *a c* (*fig.* 16.) be an infinitely small portion of the fibre which is lapped obliquely round the cylinder, and let HKG be a section perpendicular to the axis. Draw *a e* parallel to the axis, and draw *e c* to the centre of the circle HKG, and *a e* parallel to *e c*. It is plain that the length of the axis corresponding to the portion *a c*, and that *e c* is equal to *a e*.

Hence we derive another manner of expressing the ratio of the absolute and relative strength; for we may say that the absolute strength of a fibre which has the same obliquity throughout, has the relative strength as the length of the fibre to the length of the cord of which it makes a part. Or we may say that the strength of a rope is to the united absolute strength of its yarns as the length of the cord to the length of the yarns; for although the yarns are in various states of obliquity they contribute to the strength of the cord in such as they contribute immediately to the strength of the strands. The strength of the yarns is that of the strands as the length of the yarns is to that of the strands, and the strength of the strands is to that of the rope as the length of the rope to that of the last.

And thus we see that twisting the fibres diminishes the strength of the assemblage; because their obliquity, which is its necessary consequence, endures any external force to excite a greater strain in the fibres than it could have excited had they been placed parallel; and since a greater degree of twisting necessarily produces a greater obliquity in the fibres, it must more remarkably diminish the strength of the cord. Moreover, since the greater obliquity cannot be produced without a greater strain in the operation of twisting, it follows that immoderate twisting is doubly prejudicial to the strength of cordage.

SECT. VI. EXPERIMENTS *on the* EFFECTS *of* TWISTING *in* ROPE-MAKING.

The preceding theoretical deductions are abundantly confirmed by experiment; and we shall mention some of those which have been made on this subject. Mr REAUMUR, one of the most zealous, and at the same time judicious, observers of nature, made the following experiments. (*Mem. Acad. Paris*, 1711.)

1. A thread, consisting of 832 fibres of silk, each of which carried at a medium 1 dram and 18 grains, would hardly support 5½ pounds, and sometimes broke with 5 pounds. The sum of the absolute strengths of the fibres is 1040 drams, or upwards of 8 pounds 2 ounces.

2. A skain of white thread was examined in many places. Every part of it bore 9½ pounds, but none of it would bear 10. When twisted slack into a cord of two yarns it broke with 16 pounds.

3. Three threads were twisted together. Their mean strength was very nearly 8 pounds. It broke with 17½, whereas it should have carried 24.

4. Four threads were twisted. Their mean strength was 7½. It broke with 21½ instead of 30. Four threads, whose strength was nearly 9 pounds, broke with 22 instead of 36.

5. A small and very well made hempen cord broke in different places with 58, 63, 67, 72 lb. Another part of it was untwisted into its three strands. One of them bore 29½, another 33½, and the third 35; therefore the sum of their absolute strengths was 98. In another part which broke with 72, the strands which had already born this strain were separated. They bore 26, 28, and 30: the sum of which is 84.

The late admiral Sir CHARLES KNOWLES made many experiments on cordage of size. A piece of rope 3½ inches in circumference was cut in many portions. Each of these had a fathom cut off, and it was carefully opened out. It was white, or untarred, and contained 72 yarns. They were each tried separately, and their mean strength was 90 pounds. Each corresponding piece of rope was tried apart, and the mean strength of the nine pieces was 4552 pounds. But 90 times 72 is 6480.

Nothing is more familiarly known to a seaman than the superior strength of rope-yarns made up into a skain without twisting. They call such a piece of rope a SALVAGE. It is used on board the king's ships for rolling tackles, slinging the great guns, butt-slings, nippers for holding the viol on the cable, and in every service where the utmost strength and great pliancy are wanted.

It is therefore sufficiently established, both by theory and observation, that the twisting of cordage diminishes its strength. Experiments cannot be made with sufficient precision for determining whether this diminution is in the very proportion, relative to the obliquity of the fibres, which theory points out. In a hawser the yarns lie in a great variety of angles with the axis. The very outermost yarn of a strand is not much inclined to the axis of the rope: for the inclination of this yarn to the axis of its own strand nearly compensates for the inclination of the strand. But then the opposite yarn of the same strand, the yarn that is next the axis of the rope lies with an obliquity, which is the sum of the obliquities of the strand and of the yarn. So that all the yarns which are really in the axis of the rope are exceedingly

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ingly oblique, and, in general, the inside of the rope has its yarns more oblique than the outside. But in laid ropes we should not consider the strength as made up of the strengths of the yarns; it is made up of the strengths of the strands: For when the rope is violently stretched, it untwists as a rope, and the strands are a little more twisted; so that they are resisting as strands, and not as yarns. Indeed, when we consider the process of laying the rope, we see that it must be so. We know, from what has been already said, that the three strands would carry more when parallel than when twisted into a rope, although the yarns would then be much more oblique to the axis. The chief attention therefore should be turned to the making the most perfect strands.

The twist given to cordage should therefore be as moderate as possible. It diminishes the strength, and the appearances of strength, which its superior smoothness and hardness gives, is fallacious. But a certain degree of this is necessary for its duration. If the rope is laid too slack, its parts are apt to open when it happens to be catched in short loops at its going into a pully, &c. in which case some of the strands or yarns are apt to kink and break. It also becomes too pervious to water, which soaks and rots it. To prevent these and other inconveniences, a considerable degree of firmness or hardness is necessary; and to give the cordage this appearance of superior strength, the manufacturer is disposed to exceed.

Mr Du Hamel made many experiments in the royal dock yards in France, with a view to ascertain what is the best degree of twist. It is usual to work up the yarns to $\frac{2}{3}$ of their length. Mr Du Hamel thought this too much, and procured some to be worked up only to $\frac{3}{4}$ of the length of the yarns. The strength of the first, by a mean of three experiments, was 4321, and that of the last was 5187. He caused three ropes to be made from the same hemp, spun with all possible equability, and in such proportion of yarn that a fathom of each was of the same weight. The rope which was worked up to $\frac{2}{3}$ bore 4098 pounds; that which was worked up to $\frac{3}{4}$ bore 4850; and the one worked up to $\frac{4}{5}$ bore 6205. In another trial the strengths were 4250, 6753, and 7397. These ropes were of different sizes.

He had influence enough, in consequence of these experiments, to get a considerable quantity of rigging made of yarns worked up only to $\frac{3}{4}$ of their length, and had them used during a whole campaign. The officers of the ships reported that this cordage was about $\frac{1}{4}$ lighter than the ordinary kind; nearly $\frac{1}{8}$ slenderer, so as to give less hold to the wind, was therefore more supple and pliant, and ran easier through the blocks, and did not run into kinks; that it required fewer hands to work it, in the proportion of two to three; and that it was at least $\frac{1}{4}$ stronger. And they said that it did not appear to have suffered more by using than the ordinary cordage, and was fit for another campaign.

Mr Du Hamel also made experiments on other fabrics of cordage, which made all twisting unnecessary, such as simply laying the yarn in skains, and then covering it with a worming of small line. This he found greatly superior in strength, but it had no duration, because the covering opened in every short bending, and was soon rotted off. He also covered them with a woven coat in the manner practised for household furniture. But this could not be put on with sufficient tightness, without an enormous expence, after the manner of a horse whip. Small ropes were even solid, and were prodigiously strong. But these fabrics were found too soft and pervious to water, and were soon rendered unserviceable. The ordinary process of rope-making, therefore must be adhered to; and we must endeavour to improve it by diminishing the twist as far as is compatible with the necessary solidity.

In pursuance of this principle, it is surely permissible to lay slack all such cordage as is used in standing rigging, and is never exposed to the bendings. Shrouds, stays, backstays, pendants are in this situation, and can easily be defended from the water by tarring, serving, &c. The same principle also directs us to make such cordage of four strands. When the strands are equally twisted, and when the degree of twist given in laying is precisely that which is corresponding to the twist of the strands, it is demonstrable that the strands are lying less obliquely to the axis in the four strand cordage, and should therefore exert greater force. And experience fully confirms this. Mr Du Hamel caused two very small cables to be made, in which the strands were equally hardened. One of them had three strands, the other six, with a heart. They were wrought up to the same degree. The first broke with 1300 pounds, and the other with 1325. Several comparisons were made, with the same precaution, between cordage of three and of four strands, and in them all the four strand cordage was found greatly superior; and it appeared that a heart judiciously put in not only made the work easier and most perfect to the eye, but also increased the strength of the cordage.

It is unreasonable to refuse credit to such uniform course of experiment, in which there is no motive for imposition, and which is agreeable to every clear notion that we can form on the complicated subject; and it argues a considerable presumption in the professional artists to oppose the vague notions which they have of the matter to the calm reflections and minute examination of every particular by a man of good understanding who had no interest in misleading them. The same principles will explain the superiority of double laid cordage. The general aim in rope-making is to make every yarn bear an equal share of the general strain, and to put every yarn in a condition to bear it. But if this cannot be done, the next thing aimed at is, to put the yarns in such situations that the strains to which they are exposed in the use of the rope may be proportioned to their ability to bear it. Even this point cannot be attained, and we must content ourselves with the approach towards it.

The greatest difficulty is to place the yarns of a large strand agreeably to those maxims. Supposing them placed with perfect regularity round the yarn which is in the middle, they will lie in the circumferences of concentric circles. While this whole mass is turned equally round this yarn

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an axis, it is plain that they will all keep their aces, and that the middle yarn is ſimply twiſt- round its axis, while thoſe of the ſurrounding cles are lapped round it in ſpirals, and that ſe ſpirals are ſo much more oblique as the rns are further from the axis. Suppoſe the dge kept faſt, ſo that the ſtrand is not allowed ſhorten. The yarns muſt all be ſtretched, and refore ſtrained; and thoſe muſt be the moſt ended which are the furtheſt from the middle n. Now allow the ſledge to approach. The nd contracts in its general length, and thoſe s contract moſt which were moſt extended. e remaining extenſion is therefore diminiſhed ll; but ſtill thoſe which are moſt remote from middle are moſt extended, and therefore moſt ined, and have the ſmalleſt remainder of their olute force. Unfortunately they are put into moſt unfavourable ſituations, and thoſe which already moſt ſtrained are left the moſt oblique, have the greateſt ſtrain laid on them by any ual force. But this is unavoidable: their reſt hurt is the ſtrains they ſuſtain in the ma- cture. When the ſtrand is very large, as in a much hawſer, it is almoſt impoſſible to bring whole to a proper firmneſs for laying without ing the outer yarns to the utmoſt, and ma- them are broken in the operation.

e reader will remember, that a two ſtrand n laid or cloſed merely by allowing it to ſelf up at the ſwivel of the loper; and that e the elaſticity ariſing from the twiſt of the which produced this effect: and he would aby be ſurpriſed when we ſaid, that, in lay- larger rope, the ſtrands are twiſted in a di- n oppoſite to that of the ſpinning. Since adency to cloſe into a rope is nothing but endency of the ſtrands to untwiſt, it would natural to twiſt the ſtrands as the yarns were d before. This would be true, if the elaſ- of the fibres in a yarn produced the ſame cy to untwiſt in the ſtrand that it does in arn. But this is not the caſe. The con- n of one of the outer yarns of a ſtrand tends the ſtrand backward round the axis of the : but the contraction of a fibre of this yarn to turn the yarn round its own axis, and ound the axis of the ſtrand. It tends to un- the yarn, but not to untwiſt the ſtrand. It to untwiſt the ſtrand only ſo far as it tends ntract the yarn. Let us ſuppoſe the yarn to n up to one half the length of the fibres. contracting power of this yarn will be only f of the force exerted by the fibres: there- whatever is the force neceſſary for cloſing pe properly, the fibres of the yarns muſt be ng twice this force. Now let the ſame yarn, up to one half, be made up in a ſtrand, and e ſtrand be twiſted in the oppoſite direction ſpinning, till it has acquired the ſame elaſ- fit for laying. The yarns are untwiſted— e to three 4ths of the length of the fibres. are now exerting only four 3ds of the force ry for laying, that is, two thirds of what were obliged to exert in the other caſe; and we have ſtronger yarns when the ſtrands are ly ſtrained. But they require to be more ſtrained than the other; which, being made of more twiſted yarn, ſoon acquire the elaſticity fit for laying. But ſince the elaſticity which fits the ſtrand for laying does not increaſe ſo faſt as the ſtrain on the fibres of the yarn which produces it, it is plain, that when each has acquired that elaſticity which is proper for laying, the ſtrands made of the ſlack twiſted yarn are the ſtrongeſt; and the yarns are alſo the ſtrongeſt; and being ſofter, the rope will cloſe better. Experience confirms all this; and cordage, whoſe ſtrands are twiſted in the oppoſite direction to the twiſt of ſpinning, are found to be ſtronger than the others in a proportion not leſs than that of 7 to 6.

Such being the difficulty of making a large ſtrand, and its defects when made, we have fallen on a method of making great cordage by laying it twice. A hawſer laid rope, ſlack ſpun, little hardened in the ſtrands, and ſlack laid, is made a ſtrand of a large rope called a *cable* or *cablet*. The advantages of this fabric are evident. The ſtrands are reduced to one third or one fourth of the diameter which they would have in a hawſer of the ſame ſize. Such ſtrands cannot have their yarns lying very obliquely, and the outer yarns cannot be much more ſtrained than the inner ones. There muſt therefore be a much greater equality in the whole ſubſtance of cable laid cordage, and from this we ſhould expect ſuperior ſtrength. Accordingly, their ſuperiority is great, not leſs than in the proportion of 13 to 9, which is not far from the proportion of 4 to 3. A cable is more than a fourth part, but is not a third part ſtronger than a hawſer of the ſame ſize or weight.

They are ſeldom made of more than three hawſers of three ſtrands each, though they are ſometimes made of three four-ſtranded hawſers, or of four three-ſtranded. The firſt of theſe two is preferred, becauſe four ſmall ſtrands can be laid very cloſe; whereas it is difficult to lay well four hawſers, already become very hard.

The ſuperiority of a cable laid cordage being attributed entirely to the greater perfection of the ſtrands, and this ſeeming to ariſe entirely from their ſmallneſs, it was natural to expect ſtill better cordage by laying cables as the ſtrands of ſtill larger pieces. It has been tried, and with every requiſite attention. But although they have always equalled, they have not decidedly excelled, common cables of the ſame weight; and they require a great deal more work. We ſhall not therefore enter upon the manipulations of this fabric.

Sect. VII. *Of the* Distribution *of the* Total Shortening *of the* Yarns, *between the* Hardening *of the* Strands, *and* Laying *the* Rope.

This is the only point of the mechanical proceſs of rope-making, which we have not conſidered minutely; and it is an important one, about which the artiſts are by no means agreed. There is certainly a poſition of the ſtrands of a laid rope which puts every part in equilibrio; and this is what an elaſtic but perfectly ſoft rope (were ſuch a thing poſſible) would aſſume. But this cannot be diſcovered by any experiments made on large

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or even on firm cordage; and it may not be thought ſufficiently clear, that the proportion which would be diſcovered by the careful fabrication of a very ſmall and ſoft line is the ſame that will ſuit a cordage of any diameter. We muſt proceed much on conjecture; and we cannot ſay that the arguments uſed by the partiſans of different proportions are very convincing. The general practice is to divide the whole of the intended ſhortening of the yarns, or the working up, into three parts, and to employ two of theſe in hardening the ſtrands, and the third in cloſing the hawſer.

Mr Du Hamel thinks, that this repartition is injudicious, and that the yarns are too much ſtrained, and the ſtrands rendered weak. He recommends to invert this proportion, and to ſhorten one third in the hardening of the ſtrands, and two thirds in laying the hawſer. But if the ſtrain of the yarns only is conſidered, one ſhould think that the outſide yarn of a ſtrand will be more ſtrained in laying, in proportion to the yarn of the ſame ſtrand, that is, in the very axis of the rope. We can only ſay, that if a very ſoft line is formed in this way, it will not keep its twiſt. This ſhows that the turns in laying were more than the elaſticity or hardening of the ſtrands required. The experiments made on ſoft lines always ſhowed a tendency to take a greater twiſt when the lines were made in the firſt manner, and a tendency to loſe their twiſt when made in Mr Du Hamel's manner. The true proportion is probably between theſe two extremes, and we ſhall not err greatly if we haive the total ſhortening between the two parts of the proceſs. If working up to two thirds be inſiſted upon, and if it be really too much, Mr Du Hamel's repartition may be better, becauſe part of this working will quickly go off when the cordage is uſed. But it is ſurely better to be right in the main point, the total working up, and then to adjuſt the diſtribution of it ſo that the finiſhed cordage ſhall preciſely keep the form we have given to it.

There muſt be the ſame uncertainty in the quadruple diſtribution of the working up a cable. When a cable has its yarns ſhortened to two 3ds, the ordinary practice has been, 1ſt, To warp 180 fathoms; 2d, To harden up the ſtrands 30 fathoms; 3d, To lay or cloſe up 13 fathoms; 4th, To work up the hawſers 9 fathoms; 5th, To cloſe up 8 fathoms. This leaves a cable of 120. Since Mr Du Hamel's experiments have had an influence at Rochefort, the practice has been to warp 190, to harden up 38, to lay up 12, to work up the hawſers 10, and then to cloſe up ſix; and when the cable is finiſhed, to ſhorten it two fathoms more, which our workmen call *throwing the turn well up*. This leaves a cable of 122 fathoms. As there ſeems little doubt of the ſuperiority of cordage ſhortened one 4th over cordage ſhortened one 3d, the following diſtribution may be adopted: Warp 190 fathoms, harden up 12, lay up 11, work up the hawſers 12, and cloſe up 12 more, which will leave a cable of 143.

There is another queſtion about which the artiſts are divided in their opinions, viz. the ſtrains made uſe of during the operation. This is produced by the weight laid on the ſledge. If this be too ſmall, the ſtrands will not be ſufficiently tightened, and will run into kinks. The ſledge will come up by ſtarts; and a ſmall inequality of twiſt in the ſtrands will throw it aſkew. The line will not run well without a conſiderable preſſure to throw it from the cloſing point, and therefore the cordage will neither cloſe fairly nor firmly. On the other hand, it is evident, that the ſtrain on the ſtrands is a complete expenditure of much of their force, and it may be ſo great as to break them. Theſe are the extreme poſitions. And it may be fairly deduced from our principles that as great a ſtrain ſhould be laid on the ſtrands as will make good work, *i. e.* as will enable the rope to cloſe nearly and completely, but no more.

The practice at Rochefort was to load the ſledge till its weight and load were double the weight of the yarns when warped 180 fathoms. A ſix inch hawſer will require about a ton. If we ſuppoſe the friction one third of the weight, the ſtrain on each ſtrand will be about $2\frac{1}{4}$ cwt. Mr Du Hamel thinks this too great a load, and propoſes to put only five 4ths or three 2ds of the weight of the cordage; and ſtill leſs if a finer piece be warped, becauſe it does not require much force to throw the twiſt from the cranks to the middle of the ſtrand. Strong ropes are made by heavy loading the cordage and working up moderately, than by greater lengthening, and a lighter load: but all this is very vague.

After this account of the manufacture, the general rule for computing the ſtrength of cordage cannot be expected to be very preciſe. If all ropes are made in a manner perfectly ſimilar, we ſhould expect the ſtrength to be in proportion to the area of their ſection; that is, to the ſquares of their diameters or circumferences, or to the number of equal threads contained in them. Nor does it deviate far from this rule; yet Mr Du Hamel ſhows, from a range of experiments made on cordage of $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches circumference and under, that the ſtrength increaſes a little faſter than the number of equal threads. Thus he found that

9 threads bore	1014 pounds, inſtead of	
12	1564	1
18	2148	1

We cannot account for this. The ſtrength of cordage is alſo greatly improved by making uſe of yarn ſpun fine. This requires finely dreſſed hemp; and being more ſupple, the fibres lie cloſer, and do not form ſuch oblique ſpirals. But hemp will not ſpin equally fine. Every ſtalk conſiſts of a certain number of principal fibres, which ſpiit more eaſily into a 2d ſet, and theſe more difficultly into a 3d ſet, and ſo on. The utmoſt fineneſs, therefore, which a reaſonable degree of dreſſing can give to hemp, bears ſome proportion, not indeed very preciſe, to the ſize of the ſtalk. The Britiſh and Dutch uſe the beſt hemp, ſpin their yarn the fineſt, and their cordage is conſiderably ſtronger than the French, much of which is made of their own hemp, and others of a coarſe and harſh quality.

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The following rule for judging of the weight which a rope will bear is not far from the truth. It supposes them rather too strong; but it may be of use. Multiply the circumference in inches by itself, and take the 5th part of the product, it will express the tons which the rope will carry. Thus, the rope have 6 inches circumference, 6 times 6 is 36, the 5th of which is $7\frac{1}{5}$ tons; apply this to the rope of $3\frac{1}{2}$, on which Sir Charles Knowles made the experiments formerly mentioned, $3\frac{1}{2} \times 3\frac{1}{2} = 10{\cdot}25$, one 5th of which is 2·05 tons, or 4600 pounds. It broke with 4500.—This may serve for an account of the mechanical part of the manufacture.

SECT. VIII. *Of the* TARRING *of* ROPES.

THE methods of tarring practised in different rope-works are so exceedingly different, that we can hardly enumerate them, or even give a general account of them. It is evidently proper to tar the yarn or slate of twine or yarn, this being the only way that the hemp could be uniformly penetrated. The yarn is made to wind off one reel, and having passed through a vessel containing hot tar, it is wound up on another reel; and the superfluous tar is taken off by passing through a hole surrounded with spongy oakum: or it is tarred in skains or hanks, which are drawn by a capstern through the tar-vessel, and through a hole formed of two plates of metal, held together by a lever loaded with a weight.

It is beyond a doubt, that tarred cordage when new is weaker than white, and that the difference increases by keeping. The following experiments were made by Mr Du Hamel, at Rochefort, on ropes of three inches (French) in circumference, both of the best Riga hemp.

	White.	*Tarred.*
Aug. 8, broke with	4500 pounds.	3400 pounds.
	4900	3300
	4800	3250
April 25,	4600	3500
	5000	3400
	5000	3400
Sep. 3,	3800	3000
	4000	2700
	4200	2800

A parcel of white and tarred cordage was taken out of a quantity which had been made Feb. 12, 1758. It was laid up in the magazines, and combustions were made from time to time as follows:

	White bore.	*Tarred bore.*	*Diff.*
April 14,	2645 pounds.	2312 pounds.	333
May 18,	2762	2155	607
Oct. 21,	2710	2050	660
June 19,	2515	1752	823
Oct. 2,	2425	1837	588
Sep. 25,	2917	1865	1052

Du Hamel says, that it is decided by experience, 1. That white cordage in continual service lasts 3d more durable than tarred. 2. That it preserves its force much longer while kept in store. 3. That it resists the ordinary injuries of the weather 4th longer.

In 1758, the shrowds and stays of the Sheer hulk at Portsmouth dock yard were overhauled, and when the worming and service were taken off, they were found to be of white cordage. On examining the store-keeper's books, they were found to have been formerly the shrowds and rigging of the Royal William, of 110 guns, built in 1715, and rigged in 1716. She was thought top heavy and unfit for sea, and unrigged and her stores laid up. Some few years afterwards, her shrouds and stays were fitted on the Sheer hulk, where they remained in constant and very hard service for about 30 years, while every tarred rope about her had been repeatedly renewed. This fact was vouched by Mr Brown, boatswain of the Royal William during the war 1758, &c.

It may then be asked, Why do we tar cordage? We thus render it more unpliant, weaker, and less durable. It is chiefly serviceable for cables and ground tackle, which must be continually wetted and even soaked. The result of careful observation is, 1. That white cordage, exposed to be alternately very wet and dry, is weaker than tarred cordage. 2. That cordage which is superficially tarred is constantly stronger than what is tarred throughout, and it resists better the alternatives of wet and dry. *N. B.* The shrowds of the Sheer hulk were well tarred and blacked, so that it was not known that they were of white cordage.

Tar is a curious substance, miscible completely with water. Attempts were made to anoint cordage with oils and fats which do not mix with water. This was expected to defend them from its pernicious effects. But it was distinctly found that these matters made the fibres of hemp glide so easily on each other, that it was hardly possible to twist them permanently. Before they grasped each other so hard that they could not be drawn, they were strained almost to breaking.

Attempts have been made to increase the strength of cordage by *tanning*. But although it remains a constant practice in the manufacture of nets, it does not appear that much addition, either of strength or durability, can be given to cordage by this means. The trial has been made with great care, and by persons fully able to conduct the process with propriety. But it is found that the yarns take so long time in drying, and are so much hurt by drying slowly, that the room required for a considerable rope-work would be immense; and the improvement of the cordage is but trifling, and even equivocal. Indeed tanning is a chemical process, and its effect depends entirely on the nature of the materials to which the tan is applied. It unquestionably condenses, and even strengthens, the fibre of leather: but for any thing that we know *à priori*, it may destroy the cohesion of hemp and flax; and experiment alone could decide the question. The result has been unfavourable; but it does not follow from this that a tan cannot be found which shall produce on the texture of vegetables effects similar to what oak bark and other astringents produce on the animal fibre or membrane. It is well known that some dyes increase the strength of flax and cotton, notwithstanding the corrosion which we know to be produced by some of the ingredients. This is a subject highly worth the attention of the chemist and the patriot.

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(1.) * ROPERY. *n. f.* [from *rope*.] Rogue's tricks. See ROPETRICK.—What faucy merchant was this, that was ſo full of his *ropery? Shak.*

(2.) ROPERY is alſo uſed, among dealers in ropes and cordage, for a manufacture of ropes, or the place where ſuch a manufacture is carried on.

* ROPETRICK. *n. f.* [*rope* and *trick*.] Probably rogue's tricks; tricks that deſerve the halter.—An' he begin once, he'll rail in his *ropetricks. Shak.*

ROPE-WALK, *n. f.* } See ROPE-MAKING,
(1.) ROPE-YARN, *n. f.* } *Sect.* III

(2.) ROPE-YARN, among ſailors, is the yarn of any rope untwiſted, but commonly made up of junk; its uſe is to make ſinnet, mats, &c.

* ROPINESS. *n. f.* [from *ropy*.] Viſcoſity; glutinouſneſs.

ROPISH, *adj.* Ropy; tending to ropineſs.

* ROPY. *adj.* [from *rope*.] Viſcous; tenacious; glutinous.—

Aſk for what price thy venal tongue was ſold;
Tough, wither'd truffles, *ropy* wine, a diſh
Of ſhorten herrings, or ſtale ſinking fiſh. *Dryd.*
Thy muddy bev'rage to ſerene, and drive
Precipitant the baſer *ropy* lees. *Philips.*

—The contents ſeparated from it are ſometimes *ropy. Blackmore.*

(1.) ROQUE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ande, and ci-devant province of Languedoc.

(2.) ROQUE, CAPE, a promontory on the coaſt of Brazil, NW. of Cape St Auguſtine. Lon. 37. 30. W. Lat. 6. 20. S.

(3.) ROQUE DE MARSAN, a town of France, in the dep. of Landes, and ci-devant prov. of Marſan: ſeated on the Douſe, 10 miles from Mont Marſan.

ROQUEBRUNE, a town of the French empire; in the department of the Maritime Alps, and late principality of Monaco; with a caſtle near the coaſt: 3 miles from Monaco.

ROQUEFORT, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aveiron, and late province of Rouergue.

(1.) * ROQUELAURE. *n. f.* [Fr.] A cloak for men.—

Within the *roquelaure*'s claſp thy hands are pent. *Gay.*

(2.) ROQUELAURE, in geography, a town of France, in the department of the Gers, and late province of Armagnac.

ROQUEMADOUR, a town of France, in the department of Lot, and ci-devant prov. of Querci.

ROQUEMAURE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Gard, and late prov. of Lower Languedoc; ſeated on a craggy rock, near the Rhone: 6 miles NW. of Avignon. Lon. 4. 46. E. Lat. 44. 2. N.

ROQUET. See ROCKET.

RORAL, *adj.* [from *ros*, Lat. Dew.] Dewy. *Aſh.*

* RORATION. *n. f.* [*roris*, Latin.] A falling of dew. *Dict.*

RORF, a ſmall town of France, in the department of Puy de Dome, near port Gibant. It has a ſilver mine, and a fountain of mineral water, which reſembles wine in taſte and ſmell.

* RORID. *adj.* [*roridus*, Lat.] Dewy.—A vehicle conveys it through its acceſſible cavities into the liver, from thence into the veins, and ſo in a *rorid* ſubſtance thro' the capillary cavities. *Brown.*

RORIDGE, a ſmall town of England, in Devonſhire, W. of Yamſcomb.

RORIDULA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants. The corolla is pentapetalous; the calyx pentaphyllous; the capſule trivalved; the anthoræ ſcrotiform at the baſe.

* RORIFEROUS. *adj.* [*ros* and *fero*, Lat.] Producing dew. *Dict.*

* RORIFLUENT. *adj.* [*ros* and *fluo*, Lat.] Flowing with dew. *Dict.*

ROS. [Lat.] Dew. See ROS SOLIS.

(1.) ROSA, Salvator, an admirable painter, born at Naples in 1614. He was firſt inſtructed by Francis Francazano, a kinſman: but the death of his father reduced him to ſell drawings ſketched upon paper, one of which falling into the hands of Lanfranc, he took him under his protection and enabled him to enter the ſchool of Spagnoletto, and to be taught by Daniel Falcone, a diſtinguiſhed painter of battles at Naples. Salvator had a fertile imagination. He ſtudied nature with attention and judgment; and always repreſented her to the greateſt advantage. He was eminent for painting battles, animals, ſea or ſtorms; and he executed theſe different ſubjects in ſuch taſte as renders his works readily diſtinguiſhable from all others. His pieces are exceedingly ſcarce and valuable; one of the moſt capital is that repreſenting Saul and the witch of Endor, which was preſerved at Verſailles. He died in 1673; and as his paintings are in few hands, he is more generally known by his prints; of which he etched a great number. They are chiefly hiſtorical. His capital landſcape at Chiſwick is a noble picture. He was a man of undoubted genius; but a roving diſpoſition, to which he gave full ſcope, ſeems to have added a wildneſs to all his thoughts. He is ſaid to have ſpent the early part of his life among a troop of banditti; and that the rocky ſolitary ſcenes in which he was accuſtomed to take refuge, furniſhed him with thoſe romantic ideas in landſcape, in the repreſentation of which he greatly excels. His *robbers*, as his detached figures are commonly called, are ſuppoſed to have been taken from the life. He was alſo a muſician; as appears from his muſical MSS. purchaſed at Rome by Dr Burney. There is alſo a ſtrength of expreſſion in his verſes, which ſets him far above the middle rank as a poet. Like other artiſts of real original merit, he complained of the ill uſage of the world, and the difficulty he found in procuring a bare ſubſiſtence.

(II.) ROSA, in geography, or ST ROSE's, a bay on the coaſt of W. Florida, extending about 30 miles to the NE. and from 4 to 6 miles broad.

(III.) ROSA, or ROSE ISLAND, an iſland on the coaſt of W. Florida, which extends along the mouth of the above bay; and is about 50 miles long, but no where above half a mile broad.

(IV.) ROSA, in botany, the ROSE; a genus of the polygamia order, belonging to the icoſandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 37th order, *Senticoſæ*. There are 5 petals; the calyx is urceolated, quinquefid, cornated and ſtraitened at the neck. The ſeeds are numerous, inſipid, and affixed to the inſide of the calyx. The ſorts of roſes are very numerous; and the botaniſts find it very difficult to determine with accuracy which are ſpecies and which are varieties.

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well as which are varieties of the reſpective ſpe-es. On this account Linnæus, and ſome other nent authors, are inclined to think that there only one real ſpecies of roſe, which is the *roſa nina*, or *dog-roſe of the hedges*, &c. and that all other ſorts are accidental varieties of it. How-r, according to the preſent Linnæan arrange-nt, they ſtand divided into 14 ſpecies, each prehending varieties, which in ſome ſorts are few, in others numerous. The ſuppoſed ſpe-and their varieties, according to the arrange-nt of modern botaniſts, are as follow:

1. ROSA ALBA, the common *white roſe*, grows 6 feet high, having a green ſtem and branches, ed with prickles, hiſpid pedunculi, oval ſmooth mina, and large white flowers. The varieties large double white roſe, dwarf ſingle white maidens-bluſh white roſe, being large, pro-d in cluſters, and of a white and bluſh red our.

2. ROSA ALPINA, the *Alpine inermous roſe*, 5 or 8 feet high, having ſmooth or unarmed branches, pinnated ſeven-lobed ſmooth , ſomewhat hiſpid pedunculi, oval germina, deep-red ſingle flowers; appearing in May. ſpecies, as being free from all kind of arma-common to the other ſorts of roſes, is eſteem-ſingularity; and from this property is of-ed the *virgin roſe*.

3. ROSA CANINA, the *canine roſe*, *wild-dog roſe hedges*, or *hep-tree*, grows 5 or 6 feet high, prickly ſtalks and branches, pinnated, five rn-lobed leaves, with aculeated foot-ſtalks, h pedunculi, oval ſmooth germina, and ſmall flowers. There are two varieties, red-flow-and white-flowered. They grow wild in s abundantly all over the kingdom; and are times admitted into gardens, a few to increaſe riety of the ſhrubbery collection.

4. ROSA CAROLINENSIS, or Carolina and Vir-roſe, &c. grows 6 or 8 feet high, or more, ſmooth reddiſh branches, very thinly acu-; pinnated ſeven-lobed ſmooth leaves, with foot-ſtalks; ſomewhat hiſpid pedunculi, hiſpid germen, and ſingle red flowers in , appearing moſtly in Auguſt and Septem-The varieties are, dwarf Pennſylvanian roſe, ingle and double red flowers, and American roſe. This ſpecies and varieties grow na-y in different parts of North America; they a fine variety in our gardens, and are in eſti-on for their late flowering property, as they continue in blow from Auguſt until Octo-and the flowers are ſucceeded by numerous berry-like heps in autumn, cauſing a variety winter.

5. ROSA CENTIFOLIA, *the hundred-leaved red* &c. grows from about 3 or 4 to 6 or 8 feet h of different ſorts, all of them hiſpid and ly; pinnated three and five-lobed leaves; large very double red flowers, having very erous petals, and of different ſhades in the eties. The varieties are, common Dutch dred-leaved roſe, grows 3 or 4 feet high, with greeniſh branches, but moderately armed prickles; and large remarkably double red , with ſhort regularly arranged petals. h hundred-leaved roſe, grows like the other, with large very double pale-red flowers. Provence roſe grows 5 or 6 feet with greeniſh-brown prickly branches, and very large double globular red flowers, with large petals folding over one another, more or leſs in the varieties. The varieties are, common red Provence roſe, and pale Provence roſe; both of which having larger and ſomewhat looſer petals than the following ſort. Cabbage Provence roſe; having the petals cloſely folded over one another like cabbages. Dutch cabbage roſe, very large, and cabbages tolerably. Childing Provence roſe. Great royal roſe, grows 6 or 8 feet high, producing remarkably large, ſomewhat looſe, but very elegant flowers. All theſe are large double red flowers, ſomewhat globular at firſt blowing, becoming gradually a little ſpreading at top, and are all very ornamental fragrant roſes. Moſs Provence roſe, ſuppoſed a variety of the common roſe; grows erectly 4 or 5 feet high, having brownish ſtalks and branches, very cloſely armed with ſhort prickles, and double crimſon-red flowers; having the calyx and upper part of the peduncle ſurrounded with a rough moſſy-like ſubſtance, effecting a curious ſingularity. This is a fine delicate roſe, of a high fragrance, which, together with its moſſy calyx, renders it of great eſtimation as a curioſity.

6. ROSA CINNAMOMEA, *the cinnamon roſe*, grows 5 or 6 feet high, or more, with purpliſh branches thinly aculeated; pinnated five or ſeven lobed leaves, having almoſt inermous petioles, ſmooth pedunculi, and ſmooth globular germina; with ſmall purpliſh red cinnamon-ſcented flowers early in May. There are varieties with double flowers.

7. ROSA EGLANTERIA, *the eglantine roſe*, *or ſweet briar*, grows 5 or 6 feet high, having green branches, armed with ſtrong ſpines ſparſedly; pinnated ſeven-lobed odoriferous leaves, with acute folioles and rough foot-ſtalks, ſmooth pedunculi, globular ſmooth germina, and ſmall pale-red flowers. The varieties are, common ſingle-flowered, ſemi-double flowered, double-flowered, bluſh double-flowered, and yellow-flowered. This ſpecies grows naturally in ſome parts of England, and in Switzerland. It claims culture in every garden for the odoriferous property of its leaves; and ſhould be planted in the borders, and other compartments contiguous to walks, or near the habitation, where the plants will impart their refreſhing fragrance very profuſely all around; and the young branches are excellent for improving the odour of noſe-gays and bow-pots.

8. ROSA GALLICA, *the Gallican roſe*, &c. grows from about 3 or 4 to 8 or 10 feet high, in different varieties; with pinnated, three, five, or ſeven-lobed leaves, and large red and other coloured flowers in different ſorts. This ſpecies is very extenſive in ſuppoſed varieties, bearing the above ſpecific diſtinction, ſeveral of which have been formerly conſidered as diſtinct ſpecies, but are now ranged among the varieties of the Gallican roſe, conſiſting of the following noted varieties: Common red officinal roſe, grows erect, about 3 or 4 feet high, having ſmall branches, with but few prickles, and large ſpreading half-double deep red flowers. *Roſa mundi* (roſe of the world) or ſtriped red roſe, is a variety of the common red roſe,

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roſe, growing but 3 or 4 feet high, having large ſpreading ſemi-double red flowers, beautifully ſtriped with white, and deep red. York and Lancaſter variegated roſe, grows 5, 6, or 8 feet high, or more; bearing variegated red flowers, conſiſting of a mixture of red and white; alſo frequently diſpoſed in elegant ſtripes, ſometimes in half of the flower, and ſometimes in ſome of the petals. Monthly roſe, grows about 4 or 5 feet high, with green very prickly ſhoots; producing middle-ſized, moderately-double, delicate flowers, of different colours in the varieties. The varieties are, common red-flowered monthly roſe, bluſh-flowered, white-flowered, and ſtripe-flowered. All of which blow both early and late, and often produce flowers ſeveral months in the year, as May, June, and July; and frequently again in Auguſt or Sept. and ſometimes, in fine mild ſeaſons, continue till Nov. or Dec.: hence the name *monthly roſe*. Double virgin-roſe, grows 5 or 6 feet high, having greeniſh branches with ſcarce any ſpines: and with large double pale-red and very fragrant flowers. Red damaſk-roſe, grows 8 or 10 feet high, having greeniſh branches, armed with ſhort aculea; and moderately-double, fine ſoft red, very fragrant flowers.—White damaſk-roſe, grows 8 or 10 feet high, with greeniſh very prickly branches, and whitiſh-red flowers, becoming gradually of a whiter colour. Bluſh Belgic roſe, grows 3 or 4 feet high, or more; having greeniſh prickly branches, five or ſeven-lobed leaves, and numerous, very double, bluſh-red flowers, with ſhort petals, evenly arranged. Red Belgic roſe, having greeniſh and red ſhoots and leaves, and fine double deep-red flowers. Velvet roſe, grows 3 or 4 feet high, armed with but few prickles; producing large velvet-red, flowers compriſing ſemi-double and double varieties, all very beautiful roſes. Marbled roſe, grows 4 or 5 feet high, having browniſh branches, with but few prickles; and large, double, finely-marbled, red flowers. Red-and-yellow Auſtrian roſe, grows 5 or 6 feet high, having ſlender reddiſh branches, armed with ſhort browniſh aculea; and with flowers of a reddiſh copper-colour on one ſide, the other ſide yellow. This is a curious variety, and the flowers aſſume a ſingularly agreeable appearance. Yellow Auſtrian roſe, grows 5 or 6 feet high, having reddiſh very prickly ſhoots; and numerous bright-yellow flowers. Double yellow roſe, grows 6 or 7 feet high; with browniſh branches, armed with numerous large and ſmall yellowiſh prickles; and large very double yellow flowers. Francfort roſe, grows 8 or 10 feet high, is a vigorous ſhooter, with browniſh-branches thinly armed with ſtrong prickles; and produce largiſh double purpliſh-red flowers, that blow irregularly, and have but little fragrance.

9. ROSA MOSCHATA, *the muſk-roſe*, ſuppoſed to be a variety only of the ever-green muſk-roſe, hath weak ſmooth green ſtalks and branches, riſing by ſupport from 6 to 8 or 10 feet high or more thinly armed with ſtrong ſpines; pinnated ſeven-lobbed ſmooth leaves, with prickly foot-ſtalks; hiſpid peduncles; oval hiſpid germen; and all the branches terminated by large umbellate cluſters of pure-white muſk-ſcented flowers in Auguſt, &c.

10. ROSA PIMPINELLIFOLIA, *the burnet-leaved roſe*, grows about a yard high, aculeated ſparſely; ſmall neatly pinnated ſeven lobed leaves, having obtuſe folioles and rough petioles, ſmooth peduncules, a globular ſmooth germen, and ſmall ſingle flowers. There are varieties with double flowers, and with white flowers. They grow wild in England, &c. and are cultivated in the berries for variety.

11. ROSA SEMPERVIRENS, *the ever-green roſe*, hath a ſomewhat trailing ſtalk and branches riſing by ſupport 5 or 6 feet high or more, having a ſmooth bark armed with prickles; pinnated five-lobed ſmooth ſhining ever-green leaves, with prickly petioles, hiſpid pedunculi, oval hiſpid germen; and all the branches terminated by cluſters of pure white-flowers of a muſky fragrance; appearing in the end of July, and in Auguſt. The ever-green property of this elegant ſpecies renders it a curioſity among the roſy tribe; it alſo makes a fine appearance as a flowering ſhrub. There is one variety the deciduous muſk-roſe. This ſpecies and variety flower in Auguſt, and is remarkable for producing them numerouſly in clusters, continuing in ſucceſſion till October or November.

12. ROSA SPINOSISSIMA, *the moſt ſpinous, burnet-leaved roſe*, commonly called *Scotch roſe*, grows but 2 or 3 feet high, very cloſely armed with ſpines; ſmall neatly pinnated ſeven-lobed leaves, with prickly foot-ſtalks, prickly pedunculi, oval ſmooth germen, and numerous ſingle flowers, ſucceeded by round dark-purple heps. The varieties are, common white-flowered, red-flowered, ſtriped flowered, and marbled. They grow naturally in England, Scotland, &c. The firſt variety riſes near a yard high, the others about one or two feet, all of which are ſingle-flowered; but the flowers being numerous all over the branches, make a pretty appearance in the collection.

13. ROSA VILLOSA, *the villoſe apple-bearing roſe*, grows 6 or 8 feet high, having ſtrong erect briſtly ſmooth branches; aculeated ſparſely; pinnated ſeven-lobed villoſe or hairy leaves, hoary underneath, with prickly foot-ſtalks, hiſpid peduncles, a globular prickly germen; and ſingle red flowers, ſucceeded by large roundiſh heps, as big as little apples. This ſpecies admittance into every collection as a curioſity for the ſingularity of its fruit, both for variety and uſe; for it having a thick pulp of a greeabie acid reliſh, is often made into a tolerable good ſweetmeat. The above 13 ſpecies of roſes and their reſpective varieties, are of the ever-green kind; all deciduous except SEMPERVIRENS, N° 11. and of hardy growth, ſucceeding in any common ſoil and ſituation, and flowering annually in great abundance from May till October in different ſorts; though the general flowering ſeaſon for the principal part of them is June, July; but in a full collection of the different ſpecies, the blow is continued in conſtant ſucceſſion ſeveral months, even ſometimes from May till Chriſtmas; producing their flowers univerſally on the ſame year's ſhoots, riſing from thoſe of the year before, generally on long pedunculi, each terminated by one or more roſes, which in the

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...cteriſtic ſtate conſiſt each of 5 large petals ...d many ſtamina; but in the doubles the petals ...ry numerous; and in ſome ſorts, the flowers ...ſucceeded by fruit ripening to a red colour in ...mn and winter, from the ſeed of which the ...s may be raiſed: but the moſt certain and ...ble mode of propagating moſt of the ſorts is ...ckers and layers; and by which methods ...may be increaſed expeditiouſly in very great ...dance. The white and red roſes are uſed in ...cine. The former diſtilled with water yields ...ll portion of a butyraceous oil, whoſe fla...exactly reſembles that of the roſes them... This oil and the diſtilled water are very ...l and agreeable cordials. Theſe roſes alſo, ...s the cordial and aromatic virtues which re...in the volatile parts have a mild purgative ...which remains entire in the decoction left ...diſtillation. The red roſe, on the contrary, ...an aſtringent and gratefully corroborating ...

...a VIRGINIENSIS. See N° 4.

...ACEA. See GUTTA ROSACEA, N° 4.

...ACEOUS, *adj.* among botaniſts, an ap...on given to ſuch flowers as are compoſed ...al petals or leaves diſpoſed in a ſort of cir...rm, like thoſe of a roſe.

...ALBA, Cariera, a Venetian lady, born in ...ice became an eminent paintreſs. She ...portraits in crayons and miniatures, and ...tly employed by the Engliſh nobility and ... She died in 1755, aged 80.

...ALIE, FORT, a fort of the United States, ...Weſtern territory of Georgia.

...AMOND, daughter of Walter Lord Clif...a young lady of exquiſite beauty, fine ...ſhments, and bleſſed with a moſt en...wit and ſweetneſs of temper. She was e...in the nunnery of Godſtow; and the po...ry of her is as follows: Henry II. loved ...triumphed over her honour. To avoid ...ſy of his queen Eleanor, he kept her in ...ful labyrinth at Woodſtock, and by his ...with her had William Longſword earl ...ry, and Geoffrey biſhop of Lincoln. On ...abſence in France, however, the queen ...ed and poiſoned her. The queen, it is ...diſcovered her apartment by a thread of ...how ſhe came by it is differently relat...This ſtory is not recorded in hiſtory. Some ...that ſhe died a natural death; and the ſtory ...being poiſoned is thought to have ariſen ...e figure of a cup on her tomp. She was ...in the church of Godſtow, oppoſite to the ...ar, where her body remained till it was ...d to be removed with every mark of diſ...by Hugh Biſhop of Lincoln, in 1191. She ...however, by many conſidered as a ſaint af...r death, and fabulous legends were invent...out her.

...ANA, a town of Lithuania, in Novogro...with many handſome buildings; ſeated near ...oiva, 20 miles SW. of Novogrodec. Lon. ...E. Lat. 55. 30. N.

* ROSARY. *n. ſ.* [*roſarium*, Lat.] A bunch ...ads, on which the Romaniſts number their ...n.—

No *roſary* this votreſs needs,
Her very ſyllables are beads. *Cleaveland.*

—Every day propound to yourſelf a *roſary* or a chaplet of good works, to preſent to God at night! *Taylor.*

(2.) ROSARY. See CHAPLET, § 1, and 3.

(3.) ROSARY, in coinage. See MITRE, § 5.

(1.) ROSAS, or ROSES, a ſea port town of Spain, in Catalonia, with a harbour, defended by a ſtrong citadel, on the coaſt of the Mediterranean. It was beſieged by the French republicans in December 1794; and ſurrendered to them on the 3d Jan. 1795. It lies 15 miles, or as others have it, 24 NE. of Gironne, and 62 NE. of Barcelona. Lon. 3. 1. E. Lat. 42. 16. N.

(2.) ROSAS BAY, a bay of Spain, on the coaſt of the above ſea port.

ROSBACH, a town of Germany, in Saxony, famous for a victory obtained here by the king of Pruſſia over the French, on Nov. 5, 1757, in which 10,000 of the French were killed or taken priſoners, with the loſs of no more than 500 Pruſſians. See PRUSSIA, § 12.

ROSBERKIN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Kilkenny and province of Leinſter.

ROSCHILD, a town of Denmark, in the iſle of Zealand, with a biſhop's ſee and a ſmall univerſity. It is famous for a treaty concluded here in 1658; and in the great church there are ſeveral tombs of the kings of Denmark. It is ſeated at the bottom of a ſmall bay, 15 miles W. of Copenhagen. Lon. 12. 20. E. Lat. 55. 40. N.

ROSCIANUM, an ancient ſea port of Italy, in Lucania, on the coaſt of Thurii, now called ROSSANO.

* ROSCID. *adj.* [*roſcidus*, Latin.] Dewy; abounding with dew; conſiſting of dew.—The ſpirits of wine prey upon the *roſcid* juice of the body. *Bacon.*—The ends of rainbows fall more upon one kind of earth than upon another; for that earth is moſt *roſcid*. *Bacon.*

ROSCIUS, Quintus, an eminent Roman actor, ſo highly celebrated in comedy, that his name is applied as the beſt encomium to all modern comedians of uncommon merit. He was intimate with Cicero and Æſop the comedian; and was ſo much admired by the Romans, that they gave him a penſion for life. His eyes being diſtorted, he wore a maſk at firſt on the ſtage; but the Romans cauſed him lay it aſide, that they might enjoy his oratory more fully. Being calumniated by his enemies, Cicero, who had been his pupil, defended him, and cleared him from their malevolent aſperſions, in an elegant oration, which is ſtill extant. Roſcius wrote a treatiſe, in which he compared with great learning, the profeſſion of the orator with that of the comedian; of both which he was a competent judge. He died about A. A. C. 60.

(1.) ROSCOMMON, a county of Ireland, in the province of Connaught, bounded on the W. by Mayo and the river Suc; N. by Sligo, Leitrim, and by the Curlew mountains, E. by the Shannon; Longford, and E. Meath; S. and SE. by King's county and part of Galway. Its length is 70 miles, its breadth 32. The air both on the plains and mountains, is healthy; the ſoil yields plenty

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plenty of grafs, with excellent corn, and feeds numerous herds of cattle. The CURLEW MOUNTAINS on the N. are very high and fteep; and, till a road with great labour and difficulty was cut through them, were impaffable. It contains 59 parifhes; and the chief town is ATHLONE, though Rofcommon is properly the capital. Athlone fends one repref entative, and the county fends 1 to the imperial parliament.

(2.) ROSCOMMON, the capital, county and affize town of the above county, to which it gives name, was a parliamentary borough before the Union. It lies 69 miles W. by N. of Dublin. Lon. 8. 20. W. Lat. 53. 31. N.

(3.) ROSCOMMON, Wentworth Dillon, earl of, a celebrated poet of the 17th century, was the fon of James Dillon earl of Rofcommon; and was born in Ireland, under the adminiftration of the firft earl of Strafford, who was his uncle, and from whom he received the name of *Wentworth* at his baptifm. He paffed his infancy in Ireland; after which the earl of Strafford fent for him into England, and placed him at his own feat in Yorkfhire, under the tuition of Dr Hall, afterwards Bp. of Norwich, who inftructed him in Latin, without teaching him the common rules of grammar, which he could never retain in his memory, and yet he learnt to write in that language with claffical elegance and propriety. On the earl of Strafford's impeachment, he went to complete his education at Caen in Normandy; and after fome years travelled to Rome, where he became acquainted with the moft valuable remains of antiquity, and learned to fpeak Italian with fuch fluency, that he was often taken for a native. He returned to England foon after the Reftoration, and was made captain of the band of penfioners; but a difpute with the lord privy-feal, obliged him to refign his poft, and revifit Ireland, where the duke of Ormond appointed him captain of the guards. Being attacked one night, when coming out of a gaming-houfe, by 3 ruffians, he had difpatched one of them, when a difbanded officer coming paft generoufly took his part and difarmed the other, on which the 3d fled. The Earl, next day rewarded his brave affiftant, by refigning to him his poft of captain of the guards. He returned to London; was made mafter of the horfe to the dutchefs of York, and married the lady Frances, eldeft daughter of Richard earl of Burlington, who had been the wife of Col. Courtney. He here diftinguifhed himfelf by his writings: and endeavoured to form a fociety for refining and fixing the ftandard of the Engliih language, in which his great friend Mr Dryden was to have been a principal affiftant. This fcheme was entirely defeated by the religious commotions which enfued on king James's acceffion to the throne. In 1683 he was feized with the gout; and being too impatient of pain, he permitted a bold French empiric to apply a repelling medicine, to give him relief; which drove the diftemper into his bowels; and foon put a period to his life, in January 1684. He was buried with great pomp in Weftminfter-abbey. His poems, which are not numerous, are in the body of Engliih poetry collected by Dr Johnfon. His *Eflay on Tranflated Verfe*, and his tranflation of *Horace's Art of Poetry*, have great merit. He was a man of an amiable difpofition, as well as a good poet, as Pope has noticed in his *Eflay on Criticifm*. He was the only correct writer, except Tillotfon, before Addifon; and he was the only moral writer in the reign of Charles II. He improved taffe, and deferves to be ranked among the benefactors of Engliih literature.

ROSCREA, a neat thriving town of Ireland, in Tipperary, Munfter: 59 miles from Dublin.

(1.) * ROSE. *n. f.* [*rofe*, Fr. *rofa*, Lat.] A fl er.—The flower of the *rofe* is compofed of fe leaves, which are placed circularly, and expan a beautiful order, whofe leafy flower-cup a ward becomes a roundifh or oblong fleihy fruit clofing feveral angular hairy feeds; to which be added, it is a weak pithy fhrub, for the part befet with prickles, and hath pinnated lea the fpecies are, 1. The wild briar, dog *rofe*, hep-tree. 2. Wild briar or dog *rofe*, with prickly heps. 3. The greater Engliih apple-b ing *rofe*. 4. The dwarf wild Burnet-leaved 5. The dwarf wild Burnet-leaved *rofe*, with gated leaves. 6. The ftriped Scotch *rofe*. 7. fweet briar or eglantine. 8. Sweet briar, double flower. All the other forts of *rofes* ginally of foreign growth, but are hardy to endure the cold of our climate in the ope and produce beautiful and fragrant flowers.

Bring down the *rofe* cheek'd youth
To th' tub faft and the diet. *Shak. Timon*
Thou young and *rofe* lipp'd cherubin.
Here without thorn the *rofe*.

—This way of procuring autumnal *rofes* w moft *rofe* bufhes, fail. *Boyle*.—

For her th' unfading *rofe* of Eden bloo

(2.) ROSE, in botany. See ROSA.

(3.) * ROSE. pret. of *rife*.—

Eve *rofe* and went forth 'mong her flow

(4.) ROSE BAY. See NERIUM, N° II.

(5.) ROSE BAY, DWARF. See RHODOD

(6.) ROSE BAY, MOUNTAIN. See RHO DRON, N° 5.

(7.) ROSE, CHINA. See HIBISCUS.

(8.) ROSE, CHRISTMAS. See HELLEB

(9.) ROSE, CORN. See RAPAVER.

(10.) ROSE, DOG. See ROSA, N° 3.

(11.) ROSE, GUELDER. See VIBURNUM.

(12.) * ROSE MALLOW. *n. f.* A plant than the common mallow. *Miller*.

(13.) ROSE MALLOW. See ALCEA.

(14.) ROSE, MARTINICO. See HIBISCUS.

(15.) ROSE OF JERICHO, a plant fo called cauſe it grows in the plain of Jericho, tho did not originally grow there: perhaps this name from travellers who knew not was brought from Arabia Petræa. (See AN TICA, N° 1.) Rofe bufhes grow in the fields Jericho; but they are of a fpecies much infer thofe fo much extolled in Scripture, the flow which fome naturaliſts pretend to have in the binets. " The rofe fhrub of Jericho (fays M is a fmall plant, with a bufhy root, about an and a half in length. It has a number of which diverge from the earth: they are co with few leaves; but it is loaded with flo which appear red when in bud, turn paler as [exp

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expand, and at length become white entirely. These flowers appear to me to have a great reſemblance to thoſe of the elder tree; with this difference, that they are entirely deſtitute of ſmell. The ſtems never riſe more than 4 or 5 inches from the ground. This ſhrub ſheds its leaves and its flowers as it withers. Its branches then bend in the middle, and becoming entwined with each other to the top, form a kind of globe. This happens during the great heats; but during moiſt and rainy weather they again open and expand." The ſuperſtitious natives draw many ridiculous omens from its opening and ſhutting, &c. "This plant is neither ſubject to rot nor to wither. It will bear to be tranſplanted; and thrives without degenerating in any kind of ſoil whatever."

(16.) ROSE, ROCK. See CISTUS.

(17.) ROSE ROOT. See RHODIOLA.

(18.) ROSES, CONSERVE OF. See PHARMACY, § 49.

(19.) ROSES, ESSENTIAL OIL OF, or (19.) ROSES, OTTER OF, an eſſential oil obtained from roſes by ſimple diſtillation. It may be made in the following manner: A quantity of freſh roſes, for example 40 pounds, are put in a ſtill with 60 pounds of water, the roſes being left as they are with their calyxes, but with the ſtems cut cloſe. The maſs is then well mixed together with the hands, and a gentle fire is made under the ſtill; when the water begins to grow hot, and begins to riſe, the cap of the ſtill is put on, and the pipe fixed; the chinks are then well luted with paſte, and cold water put on the refrigeratory at top: the receiver is alſo adapted at the end of the pipe; and the fire is continued under the ſtill, neither too violent nor too weak. When the impregnated water begins to come over, and the ſtill is very hot, the fire is leſſened by gentle degrees, and the diſtillation continued till 30 pounds of water are come over, which is generally done in about four or five hours; this roſe-water is to be poured again on a freſh quantity (40 pounds) of roſes, and from 15 to 20 pounds of water are to be drawn by diſtillation, following the ſame proceſs as before. The roſe-water thus made and cohobated will be found, if the roſes were good and freſh, and the diſtillation carefully performed, highly ſcented with the roſes. It is then poured into pans either of earthen ware or of tinned metal, and left expoſed to the freſh air for the night. The otter or eſſence will be found in the morning congealed, and ſwimming on the top of the water; this is to be carefully ſeparated and collected either with a thin ſhell or a ſkimmer, and poured into a vial. When a certain quantity has thus been obtained, the water and feces muſt be ſeparated from the clear eſſence, which, with reſpect to the firſt, will not be difficult to do, as the eſſence congeals with a ſlight cold, and the water may then be made to run off. If, after that, the ſence is kept fluid by heat, the feces will ſubſide, and may be ſeparated; but if the operation has been neatly performed, theſe will be little or none. The feces are as highly perfumed as the eſſence, and muſt be kept, after as much of the eſſence has been ſkimmed from the roſe-water as can be. The remaining water ſhould be uſed for freſh diſtillations, inſtead of common water, at leaſt as far as it will go. The above is the proceſs given by Lieut. Col. Polier, in *the Aſiatic Reſearches*, Vol. 1. p. 332.

(20.) ROSES, OTTER OF, RECEIPT FOR MAKING. The following receipt for making this very high priced perfume, is by an officer who was in the country where the *Otter* is prepared, and who aſſiſted in making it himſelf. "Take a very large glazed earthen or ſtone jar, or a large clean wooden caſk; fill it with the leaves of the flowers of roſes, very well picked, and freed from all ſeeds and ſtalks; pour on them as much pure ſpring water as will cover them, and ſet the veſſel in the ſun, in the morning at ſun-riſe, and let it ſtand till the evening, then take it into the houſe for the night; expoſe it, in this manner, for ſix or ſeven ſucceſſive days, and, at the end of the third or fourth day, a number of particles, of a fine yellow oily matter, will float on the ſurface, which, in 2 or 3 days more, will gather into a ſcum, which is the otter of roſes. This is taken up by ſome cotton, tied to the end of a piece of ſtick, and ſqueezed with the finger and thumb into a ſmall phial, which is immediately well ſtopped; and this is repeated for ſome ſucceſſive evenings, or while any of this fine eſſential oil riſes to the ſurface of the water." Dr Donald Monro, who communicated this receipt to the Royal Society of Edinburgh, ſays, that he has been informed, that ſome few drops of this eſſential oil have more than once been collected by diſtillation in London, in the ſame manner as the eſſential oils of other plants.

(21.) * ROSE, TO SPEAK UNDER THE. To ſpeak any thing with ſafety, ſo as not afterwards to be diſcovered.—By deſiring a ſecrecy to words *ſpoke under the roſe*; we mean, in ſociety and compotation, from the ancient cuſtom in ſympoſiack meetings, to wear chaplets of *roſes* about their heads. *Brown.*

(22.) ROSE, VIRGINIAN GUELDER. See SPIRÆA.

(23.) ROSE WOOD. See ASPALATHUS, N° 3.

(24.) ROSE WORT. See RHODIOLA.

* ROSEATE. *adj.* [*roſat*, Fr. from *roſe*.] 1. Roſy; full of roſes.—

I come, ye ghoſts! prepare your *roſeate* bow'rs. *Pope.*

2. Blooming, fragrant, purple, as a roſe.—

Here *roſeate* beauty cold and pale
Has left the pow'r to wound. *Boyle.*

ROSEAU, the capital of the iſland of Dominica, now called *Charlotte-town*, from her Majeſty. It is ſeated in St George's pariſh, 21 miles, from Prince Rupert's Bay, and contains above 500 houſes, beſides cottages inhabited by the negroes. Lon. 61. 27. W. Lat. 15. 25. N.

ROSEBRUGGE, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Lys, and late prov. of Auſtrian Flanders, 11 miles NW. of Ypres. Lon. 2. 37. E. Lat. 50. 59. N.

ROSE-CASTLE, an ancient caſtle, in Cumberland, and a beautiful ſeat of the biſhop of Carliſle, on the river Caude, near Inglewood Foreſt. It was burnt during the civil wars in the 17th century, but ſince rebuilt. Edward I. lodged in it, in his expedition to Scotland.

* ROSED. *adj.* [from the noun.] Crimſoned; flushed.—A maid yet *roſed* over with the virgin crimſon of modeſty. *Shak.*

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ROSE-FLY, in entomology, the name given by Naturaliſts to a peculiar ſpecies of fly often found on roſe buſhes, and produced from a caterpillar which feeds on the leaves. The male has a long body; the female a ſhort and thick one. She depoſits her eggs in ſmall holes, which ſhe makes in the bark of the young branches, by a kind of ſaw placed at the lower end of her body. This is a four winged fly, and is very common on roſe buſhes in the ſummer months. The head and breaſt are black; the wings edged with black; the body and legs yellow, with a few black ſpots. There is another ſpecies or variety of this inſect, differing only in colour; the head and breaſt being of a deep violet, the legs and wings paler violet, and the body yellow.

ROSE-GALLS, a name given by botaniſts to certain excreſcences on the ROSA CANINA, *roſa ſylveſtris*, or dog-roſe, occaſioned by the bites of inſects. They appear in June and July.

ROSEHEARTY, a ſmall fiſhing town of Scotland in Aberdeenſhire, in the pariſh of Pitſligo; 4 miles W. of Fraſerſburgh; containing 213 inhabitants in 1792. It has a tolerable harbour, and the late Lord GARDENSTONE left a conſiderable ſum to improve it.

ROSE ISLAND. See ROSA, N° III.

ROSELAND, a fertile valley of England, in Cornwall, between Falmouth Haven and Tregony.

(1.) ROSEMARKIE, a pariſh of Scotland, in Roſs-ſhire, about 6 m. long from E. to W. and 3 broad from S. to N. The ſurface riſes gradually from the ſea coaſt to the hills, which are moſtly arable both on the S. and N. and produce rich and early crops of oats, barley, peaſe, potatoes, &c. The reſt of the ſoil is various but fertile. The air is pure. The coaſt is bold and rocky; abounding with precipices, extenſive caves, and romantic views. The population, in 1793, was 1262; increaſe 122, ſince 1755. Three learned writers of the name of *M'Kenzie*, were born, educated, or reſided, in this pariſh; viz. Sir George, Dr George, and Dr James M'Kenzies. (See MACKENZIE, N° 1—3.) There is an academy at Fortroſe, founded by the accumulation of an original ſum of only 1000 merks Scots, which was entruſted to the care of the miniſters of Roſemarkie and Avoch, by Bailie Thomas Forbes, in 1695. It is now flouriſhing; the capital is above L. 2000 Str. and various branches of education are taught at it.

(2.) ROSEMARKIE, an ancient town in the above pariſh, which was erected into a royal borough by K. Alexander II. It is one mile from the town of *Chanonry*, which was united with it by a charter of James II. under the common name of FORTROSE, in 1444; confirmed by two other charters of James VI. in 1592, and 1612; entitling it to the ſame privileges with Inverneſs. There is a circular hill near it, called *Court-Hill*, whoſe name ſhows its ancient uſe. It had anciently an elegant cathedral, of which only a wing remains. It is now uſed as a burying place. Roſemarkie had 296 inhabitants in 1793; and Chanonry 445.

(1.) * ROSEMARY. *n. ſ.* [*roſemarinus*, Latin.] A verticillate plant. *Miller.*—

Bedlam beggars, with roaring voices,
Strike in their numb'd and mortify'd bare arms
Pins, wooden pricks, nails, ſprigs of *roſemary*. *Shak.*

Rows of *roſemary* with flowering ſtem. *Dryd.*—*Roſemary* is a ſmall, but a very odoriferous ſhrub. *Mortimer.*—

Sprigg'd *roſemary* the lads and laſſes bore. *Gay.*

(2.) ROSEMARY. See ROSMARINUS.

(3.) ROSEMARY, LESSER WILD. See ANDROMEDA.

(4.) ROSEMARY, POET'S. See OSYRIS.

(5.) ROSEMARY, WILD. See LEDUM.

ROSENEATH, [Gael. *Roſſnachoich*, *i. e. Virgin's Promontory*,] a pariſh of Scotland, moſt weſterly in Dunbartonſhire. It is a peninſula in the form of a parallelogram, about 3 m. long and 2 broad. The ſurface is a continued ridge of riſing ground. The ſoil is partly fertile, partly barren; part deep and part ſhallow. The coaſt is about 13 m. in extent. Salmon, cod, herrings, mackarel, ſkate, flounders, &c. are caught in it. There is a remarkable rock on it, 34 feet perpendicular in height; called WALLACE'S LOUP, from that patriot having once eſcaped from his enemies by *leaping* down this precipice on horſeback. He eſcaped unhurt, but the horſe was killed, and the people ſtill point out his grave. There are two bays on the coaſt, called *Callwattie*, and *Camoſoil*, which laſt has good anchorage for large ſhips. The population, in 1791, was 394; the decrease 127, ſince 1755. The ſoil of this pariſh is full of rats. Theſe quadrupeds have been imported into it, for experiment, but never lived a year. A W. India planter carried out to Jamaica ſeveral caſks of this earth, to extirpate rats in his plantation, but it had not the ſame effect when exported.

ROSENELLIS, a ſmall town of Ireland, in Queen's County, and province of Leinſter.

ROSENFELD, a town of Suabia, in Wurtemburg, on the Tayen; 12 miles SW. of Sultz.

(1.) * ROSE-NOBLE. *n. ſ.* An Engliſh gold coin, in value anciently 16 ſhillings.—The following kings coined *roſe-nobles* and double *roſe-nobles*, the great ſovereigns with the ſame inſcription, *Jeſus autem tranſiens per medium eorum ibat.* *Camden.*

(2.) *The* ROSE-NOBLE was firſt ſtruck in the reign of Edward III. It was formerly current for 6s. 8d. and ſo called becauſe ſtamped with a roſe. See MONEY, § 3.

ROSES. See ROSAS.

* ROSET. *n. ſ.* [from *roſe*.] A red colour in painters.—Grind ceraſs with a weak water gum-lake, *roſet*, and vermillion, which make a fair carnation. *Peacham.*

ROSETTA, or ROSETTO, a town of Egypt, pleaſantly ſituated on the W. ſide of that branch of the Nile called by the ancients *Bolbitinum*, confirmed by Herodotus to have been formed by art. It is eſteemed one of the pleaſanteſt places in Egypt; it is about two miles long, and conſiſts only of 2 or 3 ſtreets. The country about it is moſt delightful and fertile, as is all the whole Delta on the other ſide of the Nile. (See DELTA.) The caſtle ſtands about two miles N. of the town on the weſt bank of the river. It is a ſquare building, with round towers at the four corners, mounted with ſome pieces of braſs cannon. The walls are of brick, caſed with ſtone, ſuppoſed to have been built

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ilt in the time of the holy war, though ſince paired by Cheyk Begh. At a little diſtance ver, on the other ſide of the river, is a platrm, mounted with ſome guns, and E. of it are e ſalt lakes, out of which they gather quantiy of that commodity. At ſome farther diſtance, ng up the river, we ſee a high mountain, on ich ſtands an old building that ſerves for a ich-tower. From this eminence is diſcovered rge and deep gulph, in form of a creſcent, ich appears to have been the work of art, now l up. Roſetta is a conſiderable place for comce, and hath ſome good manufactures in linen cotton; but its chief buſineſs is the carriage ods to Cairo, all the European merchandiſe brought thither from Alexandria by ſea, carried in other boats to that capital; as thoſe are brought down from it on the Nile are ſhipped off for Alexandria; on which acthe Europeans have here their vice-conſuls factors to tranſact their buſineſs; and the gonent maintains a beigh, a cuſtomhouſe, and nſon, to keep all ſafe and quiet. Roſetta taken by the French under Bonaparte, in In April 1801, it was taken poſſeſſion of e Britiſh under Gen. Hutchinſon. It is about les NE. of Alexandria, and 100 NW. of Lon. 30. 45. E. Lat. 31. 30. N.

ETTE COPPER } See METALLURGY,
ETTES. } *Part* III, *Sect.* IV.

SETTO. See ROSETTA.

ROSEWATER. *n. ſ.* [*roſe* and *water*.] Waſtilled from roſes.—

Attend him with a ſilver baſon
ll of *roſewater*. *Shak.*

drink ſhould be cooling; as fountain water *roſewater* and ſugar of roſes. *Wiſeman.*

ROSEWAY, or PORT ROSEWAY, a popuſa port town of Nova Scotia, on the SE. lying NE. by N. of Cape Negro.

ROSEWAY ISLAND, an iſland of Nova Scoon the SE. coaſt, at the mouth of Port Wanear the above town.

ROSHAAN, a country of Aſia, lying W. of gdom of Burmah, to which it is ſubject.

ROSHACH, a town of the Helvetic republic, territory of St Gallen; pleaſantly ſituated bay of Lake Conſtance, at the bottom of a richly covered with wood.

ROSI, MONTE, a town of Italy, in Etruria, on a mountain; anciently called ROSULUM.

ROSIA, in ancient geography, or ROSIÆ RUS, a beautiful plain of Italy, in the counof the Sabines, near lake Velinum. *Varro*, l. 1. 7. *Cic.* 4.

ROSIA, CAPE, a cape of the United States, he coaſt of Maine, on Penobſcot Bay.

ROSIÆ CAMPUS. See ROSIA, N° 1.

ROSICRUCIANS, a name aſſumed by a ſect bout of hermetical philoſophers; who aroſe, t leaſt became firſt taken notice of, in Ger, in the beginning of the 14th century. y bound themſelves together by a ſolemn ſe, which they all ſwore inviolably to preſerve; obliged themſelves, at their admiſſion into rder, to a ſtrict obſervance of certain eſtaed rules. They pretended to know all ſcits, and chiefly medicine; whereof they publiſhed themſelves the reſtorers. They pretended to be maſters of many important ſecrets, and, among others, of the philoſopher's ſtone; all which they affirmed to have received by tradition from the ancient Egyptians, Chaldeans, the Magi, and Gymnoſophiſts. They have been diſtinguiſhed by ſeveral names, from the ſeveral branches of their doctrine. Becauſe they pretend to protract the period of human life, by means of certain noſtrums, and even to reſtore youth, they were called *Immortales*; as they pretended to know all things, they have been called *Illuminati*; and becauſe they have made no appearance for ſeveral years, they have been called the *inviſible brothers*. Their ſociety is often ſigned by letters F. R. C. which ſome among them interpret *fratres roris coeli*; it being pretended, that the matter of the philoſophers ſtone is dew concocted, exhaled, &c. Some make the preſent flouriſhing ſociety of free maſons a branch of Roſicrucians; or rather the Roſicrucians themſelves, under a new name, frame or relation, viz, as retainers to building. It is certain, there are ſome free-maſons who have all the characters of Roſicrucians; but the æra and original of maſonry (ſee MASONRY), and that of Roſicrucianiſm, here fixed from Naudæus, who has written expreſsly on the ſubject, are not conſiſtent. The denomination appears to be derived from chemiſtry. It is not compounded, ſays Moſheim, as many imagine, of the words *roſa* and *crux*, *roſe* and *croſs*, but of *ros*, *dew*, and *crux*. Of all natural bodies, dew was deemed the moſt powerful ſolvent of gold; and the croſs, in the chemical language, is equivalent to light, becauſe the figure of a croſs + exhibits, at the ſame time, three letters of which the word LVX or *light*, is compounded. Hence a Roſicrucian philoſopher is one who, by the aſſiſtance of the dew, ſeeks for light, or the philoſopher's ſtone. See Gaſſendi's *Examen Philoſophiæ Fluddanæ*, ſect. 15. tom. iii. p. 261; and Renaudot's *Conferences Publiques*, tom. iv. p. 87. At the head of theſe fanatics were Robert Fludd, an Engliſh phyſician, Jacob Behmen, a myſtic writer, and Michael Mayer. The principles, which ſerve as a kind of centre of union to the Roſicrucian ſociety, are the following: They all maintain, that the diſſolution of bodies, by fire, is the only way by which men can arrive at true wiſdom, and come to diſcern the firſt principles of things. They all acknowledge a certain analogy and harmony between the powers of nature and the doctrines of religion; and believe that the Diety governs the kingdom of grace by the ſame laws with which he rules the kingdom of nature; and hence they uſe chemical denominations to expreſs the truths of religion. They all hold, that there is a ſort of divine energy, or ſoul, diffuſed through the frame of the univerſe, which ſome call the *archeus*, others the *univerſal ſpirit*, &c. They all talk in the moſt ſuperſtitious manner of what they call the *ſignatures* of things, of the power of the ſtars over all corporeal beings, and their particular influence upon the human race, of the efficacy of magic, and the various ranks and orders of demons—Theſe demons they divide into two orders, *ſylphs* and *gnomes*; from which ſyſtem Pope borrowed his beautiful machinery of the *Rape of*

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the Locke. In fine, the Roſicrucians and all their fanatical followers agree in throwing out the moſt crude incomprehenſible notions and ideas, in the moſt obſcure, quaint, and unuſual expreſſions.—Moſh. Eccle. Hiſt. vol. iv. p. 266, &c. 8vo. See BEHMEN and THEOSOPHISTS.

ROSIENNE, a town of Samogitia, on the Dubiſſe; 70 miles S. of Mittau, and 188 NE. of Warſaw. Lon. 23. 45. E. Lat. 55. 30. N.

(1.) * ROSIER. *n. ſ.* [*roſier*, Fr.] A roſebuſh.

Crown'd with a garland of ſweet *roſiers*. *Spenſ.*

(2.) ROSIER, in botany. See ROSA, N° IV.

(3.) ROSIER DE PILATRE. See PILATRE.

(1.) ROSIERS AUX SALINES, a town of France, in the dep. of the Meurthe and ci-devant prov. of Lorraine, famous for its ſalt-works. The works that king Staniſlaus made here are much admired. It is ſeated on the Meurthe, 9 miles SE. of Nanci, and 170 E. of Paris. Lon. 6. 27. E. Lat. 48. 32. N.

(2.) ROSIERS, CAPE, a cape upon the S. boundary of the river St Lawrence. Lon. 63. 40. W. Lat. 48. 56. N.

ROSILLANUS AGER, a territory of Italy, in ancient Etruria.

(1.) * ROSIN. *n. ſ.* [properly *reſin*; *reſine*, Fr. *reſina*, Lat.] 1. Inſpiſſated turpentine; a juice of the pine.—

Pitch, *roſin*, ſearwood on red wings aſpire.
Garth.

2. Any inſpiſſated matter of vegetables that diſſolves in ſpirit.—Tea contains little of a volatile ſpirit; its *roſin* or fixed oil, which is bitter and aſtringent cannot be extracted but by rectified ſpirit. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) ROSIN. See RESIN, § 1—6.

* *To* ROSIN. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To rub with roſin.—

Bouzebus who would ſweetly ſing,
Or with the *roſin'd* bow torment the ſtring. *Gay.*

ROSINUS, John, a learned German antiquary born at Eiſenach, in Thuringia, about 1550. He was educated at the univerſity of Jena; became rector of a ſchool at Ratiſbon, in 1579; and afterwards miniſter of a Lutheran church at Wickerſtadt, in Weimer. In 1592, he was called to Naumburg Cathedral, in Saxony; and died there of the plague, in 1626. He publiſhed ſeveral works; the chief of which is his *Antiquitatum Romanarum libri X*: Baſil, 1583; folio.

* ROSINY. *adj.* [from *roſin*.] Reſembling roſin. The example ſhould perhaps be *roſſelly*. See KOSSEL.—The beſt ſoil is that upon a ſandy gravel or *roſiny* ſand. *Tem.*

ROSIUS, an ancient ſea port of Cilicia.

ROSKELYN, or ROSLIN. See ROSLIN.

ROSKILD, formerly the royal reſidence and metropolis of Denmark, ſtands at a ſmall diſtance from the Bay of Iſefiord, not far from Copenhagen. In its flouriſhing ſtate it was of great extent, and compriſed within its walls 27 churches, and as many convents.—Its preſent circumference is ſcarcely half an Engliſh mile, and it contains only about 1620 ſouls. The houſes are of brick, and of a neat appearance. The only remains of its original magnificence are the ruins of a palace and of the cathedral, a brick building with two ſpires, in which the kings of Denmark are interred. Little of the original building now remains. According to Holberg, it was conſtructed of wood, and afterwards built with ſtone, in the reign of Canute.—From an inſcription in the choir, it appears to have been founded by Harold VI. king of Denmark, England, and Norway. Some verſes, in barbarous Latin, obſcurely allude to the principal incidents of his life; adding, that he built this church, and died in 980.—See Coxe's Travels, vol. ii. p. 25. It is perhaps the ſame with ROSCHILD.

ROSLEE, a town of Ireland, in the county of Sligo, and province of Connaught.

ROSLEY-HILL, a village in Cumberland, with a fair on Whit-Monday, and every fortnight after till September 29, for horſes, horned cattle, and linen cloth.

ROSLIN, a village of Scotland, in Mid Lothian, famous for an ancient chapel and caſtle. The chapel was founded in 1446, by St Clare, prince of Orkney, for a provoſt, ſix prebendaries, and two ſinging boys. The outſide is ornamented with a multitude of pinnacles, and variety of delicious ſculpture. The inſide is 69 feet long and broad, and 40 high: ſupported by two rows of cluſtered pillars, about 8 feet high, with arches on each ſide. The arches are obtuſely Gothic, and are continued acroſs the ſide aiſles, but the centre of the church is one continued arch, elegantly divided into compartments, and richly ſculptured. The capitals of the pillars are richly enriched with foliage, and a variety of figures; amidſt a heavenly concert appears a cherub blowing the ancient Highland bagpipes. The caſtle, famous in Scottiſh poetry and muſic, is ſituated on a peninſulated rock, in a deep glen ſhaded beneath, and acceſſible by a bridge of great height. This was the ſeat of the great family of St Clare. The village of Roſlin was erected into a burgh of barony, by James II. in 1456; with a market and fair, &c. Near it the Scots, under Sir William Fraſer and Sir John Cuming, with only 500 men, defeated the Engliſh army of 30,000 men, under John de Segrave, the Engliſh regent of Scotland, three times in one day, viz. Feb. 24, 1303; and even took Segrave priſoner, who was afterwards reſcued. Roſlin is pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the Eſk, 7 m. S. of Edinburgh.

ROSMANAHER, a ſmall town of Ireland, in the county of Clare, and province of Munſter.

ROSMARINUS, ROSEMARY, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the diandria claſs of plants, and in the natural method ranking under the 42d order, *Verticillatæ*. The corolla is unequal, with its upper lip bipartite; the filaments are long, curved, and ſimple; the ſeeds having a ſmall dent. There are two ſpecies:

1. ROSMARINUS ANGUSTIFOLIA, *the narrow-leaved roſemary*: and,

2. ROSMARINUS LATIFOLIA, *the broad-leaved roſemary*. This laſt has larger flowers and a ſtronger ſcent than the other. There are two varieties of one of the firſt ſort with ſtriped leaves, called the *ſilver roſemary*; and the other with yellow, called the *gold-ſtriped roſemary*. Theſe plants grow naturally in the S. of France, Spain, and Italy, where, upon dry rocky ſoils near the ſea, they thrive prodigiouſly, and perfume the air in ſuch a manner as to be ſmelt at a great diſtance from the

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and. However, they are hardy enough to bear the cold of our ordinary winters, provided they are planted upon a poor, dry, gravelly ſoil, on which they will endure the cold much better than in a richer ground, where, growing more vigorouſly in ſummer, they are more apt to be injured by froſt in winter; nor will they have ſuch a ſtrong aromatic ſcent as thoſe on a dry and barren ſoil. They are propagated either by ſlips or cuttings. Rosemary has a fragrant ſmell, and a warm pungent bitteriſh taſte, approaching to thoſe of lavender: the leaves and tender tops are ſtrongeſt; next thoſe, the cup of the flower; the flowers themſelves are conſiderably the weakeſt, but moſt pleaſant. Aqueous liquors extract great ſhare of the virtues of roſemary leaves by infuſion, and elevate them in diſtillation; along with the water ariſes a conſiderable quantity of eſſential oil, of an agreeable ſtrong penetrating ſmell. Pure ſpirit extracts the great perfection the whole aromatic flavour of roſemary, and elevates very little of it in diſtillation; hence the reſinous maſs, left upon exhauſting the ſpirit, proves an elegant aromatic, veſted in the peculiar qualities of the plant. The leaves of roſemary give over great part of their flavour in diſtillation with pure ſpirit; by watery menſtrua, their fragrance is much injured; by beating deſtroyed.

ROSOY, a town of France, in the dep. of Seine and Marne, and ci-devant province of the Iſle of France, with a magnificent caſtle; 15 miles S. of Meaux. Lon. 2. 59. E. Lat. 48. 40. N.

ROSS, or ROSS-SHIRE, a county of Scotland, including Tayne and Cromarty, ſtretching 80 miles in length, and 78 in breadth, is bounded on the N. and NE. by Strathnaver and Sutherland; on the E. by Cromarty and the Murray-Frith; on the S. by Invernefs; and on the W. by the iſle of Skye and the Weſtern Ocean. TAYNE includes the eaſtern part of Roſs, with the iſles of Sky, Lewis, and Harris. Cromarty lies on the other ſide of the Murray-Frith. (See CROMARTY, N° 1.) The county of Roſs takes up the whole breadth of the iſland; and being much indented with bays and inlets from both ſeas, appears of a very irregular figure. Theſe bays afford ſafe harbours for ſhipping, eſpecially that of Cromarty. (See CROMARTY, N° 4; and TAYNE, N° 3.) This county comprehends the diſtricts of *Gairloch*, *Glenelchaig*, *Lochael*, *Kintail*, *Loch-Alſh*, *Loch-Carron*, &c. It has many huge mountains, on which the ſnow lies great part of the year: (ſee BENUAISH:) theſe, however, yield good paſture; but on the E. ſide, next the German ocean, it admits of agriculture, and produces good crops of corn. The valleys are enriched by ſeveral rivers, among which are the BEAULY, the CONON, the Ockel, the Charron, and the Braan; beſides a number of freſh-water lakes, which abound in this county. The valleys are generally covered with wood; and near Alfrag there are foreſts of fir 15 or 20 miles in length, well ſtocked with deer and game of all ſorts. Great numbers of black cattle, horſes, ſheep, and goats, are fed upon the mountains; and the ſea, rivers, and lakes, abound with fiſh and fowl. The fiſheries on the W. coaſt abound with herrings, particularly Loch Eu, about 9 miles long, and three broad: one part of this is formed by a bay, or inlet of the ſea; and the other is a lake of freſh water. The ſides of it are covered with wood. Though the middle part of Roſs, called ARDROSS, is mountainous and ſcarce inhabited, the NE. parts on the rivers Ockel, Charron, and Frith of Tayne, are fruitful, and abound with villages. *Coygach* and *Aſſgut*, two northerly diſtricts, are bare and hilly; yet abound with deer and black cattle, and have ſeveral good houſes towards the coaſt, where there are capes, and huge rocks of marble. ARDMEANACH, part of the peninſula betwixt the bays of Cromarty and Murray, is a barony, which of old beſtowed a title on the king of Scotland's 2d ſon. The diſtrict of *Glen-elchaig*, on the SW. belonged to the earl of Seaforth, chief of the Mackenzies; but the laſt earl having joined in the rebellion, was, in 1719, defeated at Glenſhiel, in this quarter, with a ſmall body of Spaniards. His auxiliaries were taken; he eſcaped to the continent; but his eſtate and honours were forfeited. The king's troops diſmantled the caſtle of YION-DONNEN, ſituated on an iſland in a bay that fronts the iſle of Sky, where he had erected his magazine. Roſs is chiefly peopled by the Mackenzies and Frafers, two warlike clans, who ſpeak Erſe, and dreſs in the Highland faſhion. There are fiſheries carried on along the coaſt; but their chief traffic is in ſheep and black cattle. The chief towns are Chanonry, Dingwall, Tayne, and Fortroſe. The county ſends a member to the imperial parliament; and Tayne and Dingwall join with Dornock, Wick, and Kirkwall, in electing a repreſentative for theſe boroughs. Roſs-ſhire contains 30 pariſhes, whoſe population between 1791 and 1798 was 50,146, and had increaſed 7,653 ſince 1755.

(2.) Ross, an old pariſh of Scotland, which comprehended the greater part of the iſle of Mull; but, in 1720, it was divided into two; TOROSAY; and KILFINICHEN and KILVICEUEN.

(3.) Ross, a town of England, in Eſſex, in the pariſhes of Debden and Walden.

(4.) Ross, an ancient and populous town of England, in Herefordſhire, 119 miles from London, with a good trade, on the river Wye. It was made a free borough by Henry III. It is famous for cyder. Its market and fairs are well ſtored with cattle and other proviſions. At the W. end of it there is a fine broad cauſeway, conſtructed by Mr John Kyrie, the celebrated *Man of Roſs*, who alſo raiſed the ſpire 100 feet, and incloſed a piece of ground with a ſtone wall, and ſunk a reſervoir in its centre, for the uſe of the inhabitants of the town. He died in 1714, aged 90, with the bleſſing of all who knew him, both rich and poor. Mr Scott, a 3d *Man of Roſs*, in Dec. 1792, left 200l. a-year, to one of the charity ſchools in it. There cannot be a pleaſanter country than the banks of the Wye, between this town and Monmouth. Lon. 2. 25. W. Lat. 51. 56. N.

(5.) Ross, or Ross CARBERRY, a ſea port town of Ireland, in Cork, Munſter, ſeated on a bay of the Atlantic. Its harbour was formerly navigable, but is now almoſt choked up with ſand. It is 20 miles SW. of Kinſale, and 152 from Dublin. Lon. 8. 55. W. Lat. 51. 20. N.

(6.) Ross, Alexander, biſhop of Edinburgh, was born at Aberdeen, in 1640, and educated at the univerſity

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university of St Andrews. Upon the arrival of the Prince of Orange, in 1688, he was sent to London, in the name of the Scottish episcopal clergy, to look after their interests; but not concealing his attachment to the exiled royal family, he was deprived of all his emoluments. He died at Edinburgh in 1720, aged 80. He was a very voluminous writer. His best work is his *View of all Religions*. Butler, in his Hudibras, takes notice of the vast number and extent of his works, in these lines:

"There was an ancient sage philosopher,
"Who had read Alexander Ross over."

(7.) Ross, David, a celebrated English actor, born in 1728. He was barbarously dismissed by his father for going upon the stage. He had been educated at Westminster school; and made his first appearance upon Covent Garden theatre in 1753, when he gave a sample of those talents, which raised him to the 2d rank in tragedy and comedy. He enjoyed this rank till 1778, when he was left out of the engagement by the managers, and reduced to great distress; though he still had a small annuity from a mortgage on the Edinburgh Theatre, of which he was previously patentee. But one day he was agreeably surprised upon receiving a bank note for 60l. with an anonymous line, mentioning, that it came from an old schoolfellow, and directing him to a banker from whom he would receive the same sum annually. This was continued for life, but the generous donor was still unknown, till the banker's clerk inadvertently blundered out the name of Adm. *Barrington*. In 1768, he was laid aside from the stage, by breaking his leg. He had married the celebrated *Fanny Murray*. He died at London, Sept. 14, 1790. His dramatic merit lay chiefly in tragic characters of the mixed passions, and in lovers, in genteel comedy. In private life, his character was respectable.

(8.) Ross-Carberry. See N° 5.

(9.) Ross Ibracan, a village of Ireland, in Wexford, on the Barrow; opposite New Ross.

(10.) Ross Island, an island of Ireland, in Killarney lake, Munster; containing about 100 acres of ground.

(11.) Ross, Man of. See N° 4.

(12.) Ross, New, a borough town of Ireland, in the county of Wexford, and province of Leinster, on the side of a hill, 67 miles from Dublin. It was formerly walled, and some of the gates still remain. It lies on the Barrow, which is here very deep, and ships of burden can come up to the quay when the tide is out. The church is large, but the custom-house and quay are both small, and sometimes overflooded many feet. It is one of the staple ports for exporting wool; beef and butter are the principal articles exported. It has a barrack for a troop of horse, and a good ferry into the county of Kilkenny. Near this town is a charter-school. It was formerly fortified, and adorned with many religious houses, among which was a crouched friary, built on the summit of a hill in the town; but one of the friars having killed a principal inhabitant, the people rose, put the friars to death, and destroyed the friary; on the site of which the monastery of St Saviour, for conventual Franciscans, was afterwards erected by Sir John Devereux; and the E. end of this last building is now the parish-church. A friary for Eremites, following the rule of St Augustine, was also founded here in the reign of Edward III. This town was the scene of a very bloody battle, between the Irish rebels and the king's troops, on the 5th June 1798. Each party was alternately in possession of the town, and the greater part of it was burnt down during the contest. About 3000 of the rebels were killed, but each party boasted of *victory*. New Ross lies 8 miles N. by E. of Waterford, and 15 S. of Wexford.

(13.) Ross, Old, a town of Ireland, in Wexford, Leinster: 63 miles from Dublin.

ROSSALL, a town of Yorkshire, on the Derwent; NW. of Wilton.

ROSSANO, a strong town of Naples, in Calabria Citra, with an archbishop's see, and a principality. It is pretty large, well peopled, and seated on an eminence surrounded with rocks; but the buildings are mean, and the streets ill paved. The number of inhabitants is about 6000, who subsist by the sale of their oil, the principal object of their attention, though the territory produces a great deal of good wine and corn. Marsans, a French family, possessed this territory with the title of prince, from the time of Charles to that of Alphonsus II. when the last male was put to death in Ischia, for treason. It then fell to Bona, queen of Poland, in right of her mother Isabella, daughter to Alphonsus II. and at her decease returned to the crown. So late as the 16th century, the inhabitants spoke the Greek language, and followed the rites of the eastern church. Here was formerly the most celebrated rendezvous of the Basilian monks in Magna Graecia. Lon. 16. 52. E. Lat. 39. 45. N.

ROSSBACH. See Rosbach.

ROSSE, two small towns of England: 1. in Northumberland, S. of Holy Island: 2. in Yorkshire, in Holderness, on the coast.

* ROSSEL. *n. s.*—A true *rossel* or light soil whether white or black. *Mortimer.*

* ROSSELLY. *adj.* [from *rossel*.] That which I have observed to be the best soil is a *rosselly* loam and a brick earthy bottom. *Mortimer.*

ROSSIE, a parish of Perthshire, united with that of Inchture, in 1670. See Inchture, N° 1.

(1.) ROSSIGNOL, a large lake of Nova Scotia, between Liverpool and Annapolis.

(2.) Rossignol, Port, a sea port on the coast of Nova Scotia.

ROSSKEEN, a parish of Scotland, in Ross-shire, about 10 miles long, and 6 broad; being an extensive mountainous district. The surface a gentle ascent, to the foot of the first hills: the soil is partly gravel, partly loam, partly fine clay. The high grounds are only fit for pasture. Marl abounds, and some farms have been improved by it. The climate is various, but healthful. The population, in 1791, was 1700; the decrease 258, since 1755. There are several extensive plantations of wood, around Ardross, the seat of Capt. M'Kenzie; *Invergordon Castle*, the seat of Mr M'Leod of Cadboll, and *Milncraig*, the seat of Mr Munro of Culrain. At the Ness of Invergordon, there is a considerable village, with a ferry and a dry harbour.

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ROSSO, or *Maike Roux*, an eminent Italian painter, born at Florence, in 1496. He was entirely self-taught, and acquired great skill, both in history and portrait painting. In the church of the Salvator, at Rome, is a fine picture by him of the beheading of John the Baptist. He died in 1541, aged 45.

ROS SOLIS, *Sun-dew*, an agreeable spirituous liquor, composed of burnt brandy, sugar, cinnamon, and milk water; and sometimes perfumed with a little musk. It has its name from being at first prepared wholly of the juice of the plant ros solis, or drosera. See DROSERA.

ROSS-SHIRE. See ROSS, N° 1.

ROSTELLA, a town of Ireland, in the county of Cork, and province of Munster.

ROSTER, *n. s.* a roll or register, kept by the Clerk Major. See MAJOR, § 8, N° 1.

ROSTOCK, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and duchy of Mecklenburg, with a university and a good harbour. It is the best town in this country; and has good fortifications, and an arsenal. The duke has a strong castle. It is divided into three parts, the *Old*, the *New*, and the *Middle Towns*. It was formerly one of the Hanseatic towns, and is still Imperial, under the protection of the duke of Mecklenburg. It is seated on a lake where the Varne falls into it, and bears large boats. The government is in the hands of 24 aldermen, elected out of the nobility, gentry, and chief merchants; 4 of whom are burgomasters, two chamberlains, two stewards for the poor, and two judges of civil and criminal causes. These 24 are called the Upper House, and have the whole executive power lodged in them, with the power of coining money, and electing officers. There is also a common council of inferior citizens, who are summoned to give their advice upon extraordinary emergencies. It has a palace, stadthouse, and public library; and is famous for good beer, which they export in great quantities. Some years ago they had no fewer than 150 privileged brewers. Lon. 12. 55. E. Lat. 54. 8. N.

ROSTOFF, or ROSTOW, a duchy of Russia, bounded on the N. by Jaroslow, on the E. by Rezan, S. by the duchy of Moscow, and W. by the duchy of Tuere.

ROSTOFF, or ROSTOW, a large town in the above territory, with an archbishop's see, seated on the lake Coteri, in Lon. 40. 5. Lat. 57. 5. N.

ROSTRA, in antiquity, a part of the Roman forum wherein orations, pleadings, funeral harangues, &c. were delivered.

ROSTRATED. *adj.* [*rostratus*, Latin.] Adorned with beaks of ships.—He brought to Italy the *rostrated* gallies of the fleet of Mithridates. *Sandys.*

ROSTREVOR, a small town of Ireland, in the county of Down and province of Ulster, on Carlingford Bay; with a quay for ships well fenced from the weather. It has a salt-work, and a pottery for earthen wares; and lies 57 miles from Dublin.

ROSTRUM. *n. s.* [Latin.] 1. The beak of a bird. 2. The beak of a ship. 3. The scaffold where orators harangued.—Vespasian erected a column in Rome, upon whose top was the prow of a ship, in Latin *rostrum*, which gave name to the common pleading place in Rome, where orations were made, being built of the prows of those of Antium, which the Romans overthrew. *Peacham.*—

Myself shall mount the *rostrum* in his favour,
And strive to gain his pardon. *Addison.*

4. The pipe which conveys the distilling liquor into its receiver in the common alembicks; also a crooked scissars, which the surgeons use in some cases for the dilatation of wounds. *Quincy.*

ROSULUM, an ancient town of Etruria; now called MONTE ROSI.

* ROSY. *adj.* [*roseus*, Lat.] Resembling a rose in bloom, beauty, colour or fragrance.—

The *rosy* sing'red morning fair. *Spenser.*
Cœlestial *rosy* red, love's proper hue. *Milton.*
The *rosy* morn resigns her light. *Waller.*
Rosy colour'd Helen is the pride
Of Lacedemon, and of Greece beside. *Dryden.*
Blooming youth and gay delight
Sit on thy *rosy* cheeks confest. *Prior.*

ROSYCRUCIANS. See ROSICRUCIANS.

(1.) * ROT. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. A distemper among sheep in which their lungs are wasted.—In an unluckly grange, the sheep died of the *rot*. *B. Jonson.*—

The cattle must of *rot* and murrain die. *Milt.*—The wool of Ireland suffers under no defect, the country being generally full-stocked with sheep, and soil little subject to other *rots* than of hunger. *Temple.* 2. Putrefaction; putrid decay.—

Brandy scarce prevents the sudden *rot*
Of freezing nose *Philips.*

(2.) *The* ROT is a very fatal disease incident to sheep, arising from wet seasons, and too moist pasture. It is very difficult of cure, and is attended with the singular circumstance of a kind of animals being found in the blood-vessels. See OVIS and SHEEP.

(1.) * *To* ROT. *v. n.* [*rotan*, Saxon; *rotten*, Dutch.] To putrify; to lose the cohesion of its parts.—

A man may *rot* even here. *Shak.*
From hour to hour we *rot* and *rot*. *Shak.*

—Exposed to the air and weather, the bodies of the animals would suddenly corrupt and *rot*; the bones would likewise all *rot* in time. *Woodward.*

(2.) * *To* ROT. *v. a.* To make putrid; to bring to corruption.—No wood shone that was cut down alive, but such as was *rotted* in stock. *Bacon.*—

Frowning Auster seeks the southern-sphere,
And *rots*, with endless rain, th' unwholsome year. *Dryden.*

(1.) ROTA, an ecclesiastical court of Rome, composed of 12 prelates, of whom one must be a German, another a Frenchman, and two Spaniards; the other 8 were Italians, of whom 3 must be Romans, and the other 5 a Bolognese, a Ferrarese, a Milanese, a Venetian, and a Tuscan.—This is one of the most august tribunals in Rome, which takes cognizance of all suits in the territory of the church, by appeal; as also of all matters beneficiary and partrimonial.

(2.) ROTA, in geography, a town of Spain, in Andalusia, with a castle, at the entrance of the Bay

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Bay of Cadiz; 7 miles N. of Cadiz. Lon. 6. 16. W. Lat. 36. 35. N.

(3.) ROTA, an iſland of Aſia, one of the principal of the LADRONE ISLANDS.

(4.) ROTA ARISTOTELICA, or *Ariſtotle's Wheel*, denotes a celebrated problem in mechanics concerning the motion or rotation of a wheel about its axis; ſo called becauſe firſt noticed by Ariſtotle. The difficulty is this: While a circle makes a revolution on its centre, advancing at the ſame time in a right line along a plane, it deſcribes, on that plane, a right line which is equal to its circumference. Now if this circle, which may be called the deferent, carry with it another ſmaller circle, concentric with it, like the nave of a coach wheel; then this little circle, or nave, will deſcribe a line in the time of the revolution, which ſhall be equal to that of the large wheel or circumference itſelf; becauſe its centre advances in a right line as faſt as that of the wheel does, being in reality the ſame with it. The ſolution given by Ariſtotle, is no more than a good explication of the difficulty. The great Galileo, next attempted it, but failed, as did alſo Tacquet, with no better ſucceſs. After the fruitleſs attempts of ſo many great men, M. Dortous de Meyran, a French gentleman, had the good fortune to hit upon a ſolution, which he ſent to the Academy of Sciences; where being examined by Meſſ. de Louville and Soulmon, appointed for that purpoſe, they made their report that it was ſatisfactory. The ſolution is to this effect: The wheel of a coach is only acted on, or drawn in a right line; its rotation or circular motion ariſes purely from the reſiſtance of the ground upon which it is applied. Now this reſiſtance is equal to the force which draws the wheel in the right line, inaſmuch as it defeats that direction; of conſequence the cauſes of the two motions, the one right and the other circular, are equal. And hence the wheel deſcribes a right line on the ground equal to its circumference. As for the nave of the wheel, the caſe is otherwiſe. It is drawn in a right line by the ſame force as the wheel; but it only, turns round becauſe the wheel does ſo, and can only turn in the ſame time with it. Hence it follows, that its circular velocity is leſs than that of the wheel, in the ratio of the two circumferences; and therefore its circular motion is leſs than the rectilinear one. Since then it neceſſarily deſcribes a right line equal to that of the wheel, it can only do it partly by ſliding, and partly by revolving, the ſliding part being more or leſs as the nave itſelf is ſmaller or larger.—*Hutton's Dictionary.*

ROTACEÆ, [from *rota, a wheel,*] the 20th order in Linnæus's Fragments of a Natural Method. See BOTANY, *Index.*

ROTALA, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the triandria claſs of plants. The calyx is tridentate; there is no corolla; the capſule is trilocular and polyſpermous.

ROTANG. See CALAMUS, N° 2.

ROTARI, Peter, an eminent Italian painter of hiſtory and portraits, born at Verona about 1727. In 1756, he went to Peterſburg, where he painted the empreſs Catharine II. and others of the imperial family.

* ROTARY. *adj.* [*rota*, Latin.] Whirling as a wheel. *Dict.*

* ROTATED. *adj.* [*rotatus*, Latin.] Whirled round.

(1.) * ROTATION. *n. ſ.* [*rotation*, Fr. *rotatio*, Latin.] 1. The act of whirling round like a wheel; the ſtate of being ſo whirled round; what—this kind is ſome diſpoſition of bodies to *rotation* from E. to W.; as the main float and reflux of the ſea, by conſent of the univerſe is part of the diurnal motion. *Bacon.*—By a kind of circulation or *rotation*, arts have their ſucceſſive invention, perfection, and traduction, from one people to another. *Hale.*—The axle-trees of chariots take fire by the rapid *rotation* of the wheels. *Newton.*—

In the paſſions wild *rotation* toſt,
Or ſpring of action to ourſelves is loſt.

In fond *rotation* ſpread the ſpotted wing,
And ſhiver every feather with deſire. *Tickell.*

2. Viciſſitude of ſucceſſion.

(2.) ROTATION is a term which expreſſes the motion of the different parts of a ſolid body round an axis, and diſtinct from the progreſſive motion which it may have in its revolution round a diſtant point. The earth has a rotation round its axis, which produces the viciſſitudes of day and night; while its revolution round the ſun, combined with the obliquity of the equator, produces the varieties of ſummer and winter. The myſtery of this kind of motion, or the relation which ſubſiſts between the intenſity of the moving force modified as it may be by the manner of its rotation, and the velocity of rotation, is highly intereſting, both to the ſpeculative philoſopher and the practical engineer. The PRECESSION OF THE EQUINOXES, and many other aſtronomical problems of great importance and difficulty, receive their ſolutions from this quarter: and the *performance* of our moſt valuable machines can be aſcertained by the mere principles of equilibrium, but require a previous acquaintance with certain general propoſitions of rotatory motion. What is chiefly with a view of aſſiſting the engineer we propoſe to deliver in this place a few fundamental propoſitions; and we ſhall do it in a familiar and popular a manner as poſſible, as this may cauſe the application of them to the moſt ſtruſe problems of aſtronomy to be greatly different in the elegance of which they are ſuſceptible. When a ſolid body turns round an axis, each of its ſhape and dimenſions, every particle is evidently deſcribing a circle round this axis, and whoſe paſſes through the centre of the circle, and perpendicular to its plane. In any inſtant of the rotation, the particle is moving at right angles to the radius vector, or line joining it with the axis of rotation. Therefore, to aſcertain the direction of the motion of any particle P (*pl.* 297.) we may draw a ſtraight line PC from the particle perpendicular to the axis AB of rotation. This line will lie in the plane of the circle P*m* deſcribed by the rotation of the particle, and will be its radius vector. Then a line PQ drawn from the particle perpendicular to this radius vector will be a tangent to the circle of rotation, and will have the direction of the motion of this particle. The whole body being ſuppoſed to turn together, it is evident, that when it has made a complete rotation, each particle will have deſcribed a circumference of a circle, and the whole paths of the different particles will be

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he ratio of these circumferences, and therefore of
heir radii; and this is true of any portion of a
hole turn, such as ½, ¼, or 20 degrees, or any
n whatever; therefore the velocities of the dif-
ent particles are proportional to their radii vec-
es, or to their distances from the axis of rota-
n. And, lastly, all these motions are in paral-
planes, to which the axis of rotation is perpen-
ular. When we compare the rotations of dif-
nt bodies in respect of velocity, it is plain that
nnot be done by directly comparing the velo-
of *any* particle in one of the bodies with that
ny particle of the other; for, as all the parti-
of each have different velocities, this compa-
n can establish no ratio. But we familiarly
pare such motions by the number of complete
s which they make in equal times, and we say
the second hand of a clock turns 60 times
r than the minute hand; now this comparison
ually just in any part of a turn as in the whole.
le the minute hand moves round one degree,
econd-hand moves 60; therefore, as the length
mber of feet in the line uniformly described
body in its progressive motion is a proper
re of its progressive velocity, so the number
grees described by *any* particle of a whirling bo-
the circumference of its circle of rotation, or
gle described by *any* radius vector of that
is a proper measure of its velocity of rota-
And in this manner may the rotation of two
be compared; and the velocity is with pro-
termed ANGULAR VELOCITY. An angle is
y as the length of the circumference on
it stands, and inversely as the radius of the
and may be expressed by the fraction of
the numerator is the arch, and the denomi-
the radius. Thus the angle PCp may be ex-

d by $\frac{Pp}{PC}$. This fraction expresses the por-

the radius which is equal to the arch which
s the angle; and it is converted into the
denomination of degrees, by knowing that
gree, or the 360th part of the circumference,

— of the radius, or that an arch of 57,296

is equal to the radius. When a solid body
s an impulse on any one point, or when
not is any how urged by a moving force, it
t move without the other points also moving.
whatever is the motion of any particle, that
e must be conceived as urged by a force
ly competent to the production of that mo-
by acting immediately on the particle itself.
is not the particle immediately acted on by
ternal force, the force which really impels
force arising from the cohesion of the body.
particle immediately impelled by the exter-
ce is pressed towards its neighbouring par-
, or is drawn away from them; and, by this
e of place, the connecting forces are brought
ction, or are excited; they act on the par-
adjoining, and change, or tend to change,
distances from the particles immediately be-
them; and thus the forces which connect
ext series of particles are also excited, and
her series of particles are made to exert their
forces; and this goes on through the body till we
come to the remote particle, whose motion we are
considering. The forces which connect it with
the adjoining series of particles are excited, and
the particle is moved. We frequently say that
the external moving force is propagated through
the body to the distant particle; but this is not
accurate. The particle is really and immediately
moved by the forces which connect it with those
adjoining. It will greatly assist our conception of
the manner in which motion is thus produced in
a distant particle, if we consider the particles as
so many little balls, connected with each other by
slender spiral springs like cork-screws. This would
compose a mass which would be compressible, or
which could be stretched, &c. And if we give
an impulse to one of these balls, we shall set the
whole assemblage in motion round any axis which
we may suppose to support it. Now any one of
these balls is really and immediately moved by the
elasticity of the spiral wires which join it to its
neighbours. We are but little acquainted with
the nature of these connecting forces. It can be
learned only by the phenomena which are their
effects. These are various, almost beyond descrip-
tion; but the mechanical philosopher has little to
do with this variety. The distinctions which are
the immediate causes of fluidity, of hardness, soft-
ness, elasticity, ductility, are not of very difficult
conception. There is one general fact which is
sufficient for our present purpose—the forces by
which the particles of bodies act on each other
are equal. This is a matter of unexcepted expe-
rience; and no other foundation can be given to
it as a law of mechanical nature. An immediate
consequence of this law is, that when two exter-
nal forces A and B are in equilibrium by the in-
tervention of a solid body (or rather when a solid
body is in equilibrium between two external for-
ces), these forces are equal and opposite; for the
force A is in fact in immediate equilibrium with
the opposite forces exerted by the particle to
which it is applied, and is therefore equal and op-
posite to the force resulting from the combination
of all the forces which connect that particle with
the series of particles immediately adjoining. This
resulting force may with propriety be called the
equivalent of the forces from the combination of
which it results. The use of this term will great-
ly abbreviate language. This first set of connect-
ing forces consists of a number of distinct forces
corresponding to each particle of the series, and
each force has an equal and opposite force corres-
ponding to it: therefore the compound force by
which the first series of particles acts on that to
which the external force A is applied, is equal
and opposite to the compound force which con-
nects this first series with the next series. And
the same thing must be said of each succeeding se-
ries of particles, till we come at last to the parti-
cle to which the external force B is immediately
applied. The force exerted by this particle is e-
qual and opposite to that external force; and it is
equal to the compound force exerted by the se-
cond series of particles on that side; therefore the
forces A and B are equal and opposite. It results
from this proposition, that *when any number of
external forces are applied to a solid body, and it is*

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in equilibrio between them, they are ſuch as would be in equilibrio if they were all applied to one point. Let the forces *a* A, *b* B, *c* C, (*fig.* 2.) be applied to three particles of the ſolid body. Therefore *a* A is immediately in equilibrium with an equal and oppoſite force A *a*, reſulting from the compoſition of the force AD, which connects the particles A and B, and the force AE, which connects A with C. In like manner *b* B is immediately in equilibrio with B *b*, the equivalent of the forces BF and BG; and *c* C is in immediate equilibrio with the equivalent C *c* of the forces CH and CI. We ſhall conceive it very clearly if we ſuppoſe the three forces A *a*, B *b*, C *c*, to be exerted by means of threads pulling at the ſolid body. The connecting parts between A and B, as alſo between A and C, are ſtretched. The lines AB and AC may be conſidered as elaſtic threads. Each thread is equally ſtretched through its whole length; and therefore if we take AD to repreſent the force with which the particle A is held back by the particle B, and if we would alſo repreſent the force with which B is held back by A, we muſt make BF equal to AD. Now the forces AD and BF are equal and oppoſite; ſo are the forces AE and CI; ſo are the forces CH and BG. Now it is evident, that if the ſix forces AD, BF, BG, CH, CI, AE, were applied to one particle, the particle would be in equilibrio; for each force is accompanied by an equal and oppoſite force: and if the force A *a* were applied in place of AD, AE, the equilibrium would remain, becauſe A *a* is equivalent to AD and AE. The ſame is true of B *b* and C *c*. Therefore if the three forces A *a*, B *b*, C *c*, were applied to one point, they would be in equilibrio. Conſequently if the three forces *a* A, *b* B, *c* C, which are reſpectively equal and oppoſite to A *a*, B *b*, C *c*, are ſo applied, they will be in equilibrio. It is plain that this demonſtration may be extended to any number of forces. We may juſt remark by the bye, that if three forces are thus in equilibrio, they are acting in one plane; and, if they are not parallel, they are really directed to one point: for any one of them muſt be equal and oppoſite to the equivalent of the other two; and this equivalent is the diagonal of a parallelogram, of which the other two are the ſides, and the diagonal and ſides of any parallelogram are in one plane; and ſince they are in one plane, and any one of them is in equilibrio with the equivalent of the other two, it muſt paſs through the ſame point with that equivalent, that is, through the point of concourſe of the other two. Theſe very ſimple propoſitions are the foundation of the whole theory of ſtatics, and render it a very ſimple branch of mechanical ſcience. It has been made ſubſervient by our very attempts to ſimplify it. Many elaborate treatiſes have been written on the fundamental property of the lever, and in them all it has been thought next to an inſuperable difficulty to demonſtrate the equilibrium of a ſtraight lever when the parallel forces are inverſely as their diſtances from the fulcrum. We think the demonſtrations of Archimedes, Fonſenex, D'Alembert, and Hamilton, extremely ingenious; but they only bring the mind into ſuch a ſtate of conception that it cannot refuſe the truth of the propoſition, and, except Mr Hamilton's, they labour under the diſadvantage of being applicable only to commenſurable diſtances and forces. Mr Vince's, in the *Philoſ. Tranſ.* for 1794, is the moſt ingenious of them all; and it is wonderful it has not occurred long ago. The difficulty in them all has ariſen from the attempt to ſimplify the matter by conſidering a lever as an inflexible ſtraight line. Had it been taken out of this abſtract form, and conſidered as what it really is, a natural body of ſenſible ſize, having its particles connected by equal and oppoſite forces, all difficulty would have vaniſhed. That we may apply theſe propoſitions to explain the motion of rotation, we muſt recollect the unqueſtionable propoſition in dynamics, that the force which produces any motion is equal and oppoſite to the force which would prevent it, when applied in the ſame place and in the ſame direction, which would extinguiſh it in the ſame time in which we ſuppoſe it to be produced. Therefore the force which is excited and made to act on a particle of a body, by the action of an external force on another particle, ſo as to cauſe them to move round an axis, is equal and oppoſite to that force which, when applied to that particle in the oppoſite direction would be in equilibrio with the external force. The only diſtinct notion we have of the magnitude of any moving force is the quantity of motion which it can produce by acting uniformly during any given time. This we have had by knowing the velocity which it will produce in a body of known bulk. Thus we know that the weight of ten pounds of matter acting on for a ſecond will cauſe it to fall 16 feet with uniformly accelerated motion, and will leave it in a ſtate ſuch that it would move on for ever at the rate of 32 feet in a ſecond; which we call communicating the velocity of 32 feet per ſecond. In the ſame manner, the beſt way of acquiring a diſtinct conception of the rotatory effort of a moving force, is to determine the quantity of rotatory motion which it can produce by acting uniformly during ſome given time. Let a ſolid body turn round an axis perpendicular through the point C (*fig.* 3.) perpendicular to the plane of this figure. Let this rotation be ſuppoſed to be produced by an external force acting in the direction FP. Let this force be ſuch, that if the body were free, that is, unconnected with the axis ſupported by fixed points, it would by acting uniformly during a ſmall moment of time, cauſe its centre of gravity G to deſcribe a line of a certain length parallel to FP. This we know to be the effect of a moving force acting on any ſingle body in free ſpace. The centre of gravity will always deſcribe a ſtraight line. Other particles have a chance to move differently, if the body, beſides its progreſſive motion, has alſo a motion of rotation, as is generally the caſe. Draw GI parallel to FP, and make GI to GC as the velocity which the external force would communicate to the centre of the body (if moving freely, unconnected with a ſupported axis), to the velocity which it communicates to it in the ſame time round the axis C *c*. Alſo let *m* be the number of equal particles, or the quantity of matter in the body. Then *m*. GI will expreſs the quantity of motion produced by this force, and is a pro-

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measure of it as a moving force; for GI is twice the space described during the given time with an uniformly accelerated motion. But since the body cannot move any way but round the axis passing through C, the centre G will begin to move with the velocity, and in the direction, GH perpendicular to the line CG. And any particle A can only move in the direction AL, perpendicular to CA. Moreover, the velocities of the different particles are as their radii vectores; and CG is actually equal to the line GH, which expresses the velocity of a particle in G. Therefore CA will in like manner express the velocity of the particle A. And if A expresses its quantity of matter, A·CA will express its quantity of motion, and will represent the force which would produce it by acting uniformly during the moment of time. We express the external moving force by m.GI. Part of this is employed in exciting the force A·CA, which urges the particle A. In order to discover what part of the external force is necessary for this purpose, draw CP perpendicular to FP. The preceding observations show us, that the force wanting at A is equal to the force which, when applied in the direction FP, would balance the force A·CA applied to A in the direction LA. Therefore by the property of the lever ACP, which is inclined at right angles at A and P, we must have as CA to CA as the force A·CA to the balancing pressure which must be exerted at P, or at any point in the line FP. This pressure is therefore $\frac{A \cdot CA \cdot CA}{CP}$ or $\frac{A \cdot CA^2}{CP}$. As we took m.GI for the measure of the whole external force, GI being the velocity which it would communicate to the whole body moving in free space, we may take Gi for the velocity which would be communicated to the same body by the pressure $\frac{A \cdot CA^2}{CP}$, and then this force will be properly expressed by m. Gi. In like manner m.$i$$k$ may express the portion of the external force employed in communicating to another particle B the motion which it acquires; and so with respect to all the particles of the body. We might enlarge upon this subject and multiply examples, if our room would permit. But to the curious reader we would recommend the theorems of Father Frisi. The subject is by no means a speculation of mere curiosity interesting to none but mathematicians: the noblest art practised by man must receive great improvement from a complete knowledge of this subject. We mean the art of SEAMANSHIP. A ship, the most admirable of machines, must be considered as a body in free space, impelled by the winds and waters, and continually moved round spontaneous axes of conversion, and incessantly checked in these movements. The trimming of the sails, the action of the rudder, the very disposition of the loading, all affect the versatility. An experienced seaman knows by habit how to produce and facilitate these motions, and to check and stop such as are inconvenient. Experience, without any reflection or knowledge how and why, informs him what position of the rudder produces a deviaton from the course. Common sense tells him, that, to make the ship turn her head away from the wind, he must increase the surface or the obliquity of the head-sails, and diminish the power of the sails near the stern. A few other operations are dictated to him by this kind of common sense; but few, even of old seamen, can tell why a ship has such a tendency to bring her head up in the wind, and why it is so necessary to crowd the fore part of the ship with sails; fewer still know that a certain shifting of the loading will facilitate some motions in different cases; that the crew of a great ship running suddenly to a particular place shall enable the ship to accomplish a movement in a stormy sea which could not be done otherwise; and perhaps not one in ten thousand can tell why this procedure will be successful. But the mathematical inquirer will see all this; and it would be a most valuable acquisition to the public, to have a manual of such propositions, deduced from a careful and judicious consideration of the circumstances, and freed from that great complication and intricacy which only the learned can unravel, and expressed in a familiar manner, clothed with such reasoning as will be intelligible to the unlearned; and though not accurate, yet persuative. Mr Bouguer, in his *Traité du Navire*, and in his *Manœuvres des Vaisseaux*, has delivered a great deal of useful information on this subject; and Mr Bezout has made a very useful abstract of these works in his *Cours de Mathematique*. But the subject is left by them in a form far too abstruse to be of any general use: and it is unfortunately so combined with or founded on a false theory of the action and resistance of fluids, that many of the propositions are totally inconsistent with experience, and many maxims of seamanship are false. This has occasioned these doctrines to be neglected altogether. Few professional seamen have the preparatory knowledge necessary for improving the science; but it would be a work of immense utility, and would acquire great reputation to the person who successfully prosecutes it.

* ROTATOR, *n. s.* [Latin.] That which gives a circular motion.—This articulation is strengthened by strong muscles, on the inside by the triceps and the four little *rotators*. *Wiseman.*

ROTATORES, in anatomy, the oblique muscles of the eye.

ROTATORY, *adj.* moving in a circle.

* ROTE. *n. s.* [*rot*, Saxon, merry.] 1. *Rote*, old Fr.] A harp; a lyre. Obsolete.—

Wele couthe he sing, and playen on a *rote*. *Chaucer.*

Worthy of great Phœbus' *rote*. *Spenser.*

2. [*Routine*, Fr.] Words uttered by mere memory without meaning; memory of words without comprehension of the sense.—

First rehearse this song by *rote*. *Shak.*

Thy loved did read by *rote*. *Shak.*

—He rather saith it by *rote* to himself. *Bacon.*—

All this he understood by *rote*. *Hudibras.*

Learn Aristotles rules by *rote*. *Swift.*

* *To* ROTE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To fix in the memory, without informing the understanding.—

Words *roted* in your tongue. *Shak.*

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(1.) ROTENBURG, a town of Germany, in Franconia, on the Tauber: 15 miles NW. of Anſpach. Lon. 10. 23. E. Lat. 49. 23. N.

(2.) ROTENBURG, a town of Germany, in Heſſe-Caſſel; on the Fulde; with a caſtle: 25 miles S. of Caſſel. Lon. 9. 30. E. Lat. 50. 55. N.

(3.) ROTENBURG, a town of Suabia, in the county of Hoenburg, with a caſtle; belonging to the houſe of Auſtria. It is ſeated on the Neckar, 7 miles W. of Tubingen; and is famed for its mineral waters. Lon. 8. 55. E. Lat. 48. 28. N.

* ROT GUT. *n. ſ. [rot* and *gut.]* Bad beer.—They overwhelm their paunch daily with a kind of ſla *rotgut. Harvey.*

ROTHAMSTEAD, a ſmall town of England, in Hertfordſhire; W. of Wheathamſtead.

ROTHBURY, a town of Northumberland, 9 miles SW. of Alnwick, and 302 N. by W. of London. Lon. 1. 40. W. Lat. 55. 20 N.

ROTHBY, a town of Lincoln, NW. of Spilſby.

ROTHENAMER, John, a celebrated hiſtorical painter, born at Munich, in 1564. He improved himſelf greatly in Italy, and the emperor Rodolph II. patroniſed him much. He died in 1604, aged 40.

(1.) ROTHER, a river of England, which riſes in Suſſex, forms the boundary between that county and Kent, for a ſhort ſpace, and then falls into the Engliſh Channel at Rye.

(2.) ROTHER, a river of Derby and York ſhires, which runs into the Don at Rotheram.

(1.) ROTHERAM, a town in the W. Riding of Yorkſhire, ſeated on the Don, near which there is a handſome ſtone bridge. It is a well built place, and the market is large for proviſions. Lon. 1. 10. W. Lat. 53. 25. N.

(2.) ROTHERAM. See ROTHERHAM.

ROTHERAS, a town of England, near Hereford.

ROTHERFIELD, a town of England, in Suſſex, at the ſource of the Rother; NW. of Burwaſh Downs.

(1.) ROTHERHAM, or ROTHERAM, John, M. D. a late celebrated Engliſh phyſician, the ſon of the rev. Caleb Rotherham, D. D. a diſſenting clergyman, tutor of an academy at Kendal; where he was born in 1719. Under his father's inſtructions, he acquired his claſſical learning, and a very general knowledge of the ſciences. In 1740, he was ſent to the Univerſity of Edinburgh, where Prof. M'Laurin, obſerving his talents, adviſed him to give a courſe of lectures on experimental philoſophy. Theſe lectures were attended by a numerous and reſpectable audience; and the profits were devoted to the Royal Infirmary, then building in that city. After this he went to London; ſtudied under Dr Smellie; and then began practice at Hexham; but ſoon after ſettled at Newcaſtle, where he was highly reſpected. Two days in the week were allotted to the ſick poor; and he regularly viſited the priſoners in goal. In 1770, he publiſhed his celebrated work, entitled, *A Philoſophical Inquiry into the Nature and Properties of Water*; wherein he gave an analyſis of the Newcaſtle and many other waters. He married Catherine, daughter of Nicholas Roberts, Eſq. of Hexham, whom he left a widow with 7 children; dying on the 18th March, 1787; aged 68.

(2.) ROTHERHAM. See ROTHERAM, N° 1.

* ROTHER-NAILS. *n. ſ.* [a corruption of *rudder.*] Among ſhip-wrights, nails with very flat heads uſed for faſtening the rudder irons of ſhips. *Bailey.*

(1.) ROTHES, a pariſh of Scotland, in Murayſhire, on the N. bank of the Spey; nearly ſurrounded with hills covered with heath. The ſoil is dry and ſandy. Oats and barley are the chief crops. The population, in 1791, was 1500; increaſe 754, ſince 1755. The chief ſeat is Orton, the ſeat of the hon. Arthur Duff. There are ruins of an old caſtle, anciently the ſeat of the duke of Rothes. On the ſide of a hill, near the church, there is a quantity of fine agate, of beautiful red and white colours. It is very hard, of a ſmooth texture, and conſiderable brightneſs. The red is remarkably clear; and finely ſhaded. It is capable of the higheſt luſtre by poliſhing.

(2.) ROTHES, a village in the above pariſh, lately built, containing 300 inhabitants.

(1.) ROTHESAY, or ROTHSAY, a royal borough of Scotland, capital of the iſland and county of Bute. It is well built, and excellently ſituated for commerce; having a good harbour with ſafe anchorage at the bottom of an extenſive bay on the NW. ſide of the iſland; oppoſite to Largs Steven in Cowal. It was erected into a royal borough, in 1400, by king Robert III, when its caſtle was the royal reſidence. It was then a conſiderable town, but afterwards declined greatly, ſo that in 1762, many of the houſes were in ruins, and it had only one decked veſſel, of no great burden. But within theſe 40 years, under the auſpices of the late earl of Bute, it has rapidly improved; and an uncommon ſpirit of induſtry has been excited among the inhabitants. In 1791, the ſhipping amounted to 4,246 tons; and 60 veſſes, amounting to 3,104 tons, manned by 3 men, were alſo fitted out for the herring fiſhery. A large cotton mill was likewiſe erected in 1779, and has given employment to great numbers. This borough unites with Ayr, Irvine, Inverary, and Campbelton, in electing a repreſentative to the imperial parliament. Duke of Rotheſay, anciently a title of the prince of Scotland, was accompanied with ſuitable revenues, powers and privileges; and is ſtill one of the titles of the Prince of Wales. The only relic of antiquity in this borough is the caſtle, the remains of which are ſo completely covered with ivy, that its walls are hardly viſible. The natives ſtill point out the banqueting rooms and bed-chambers of K. Robert II and III. who inhabited it. It afterwards became the chief reſidence of the Stuarts, anceſtors of the earl of Bute for ſeveral ages, till 1685, when it was burnt by the duke of Argyll. The population, in 1790, was 2607. It lies 70 miles W. of Edinburgh. Lon. 5. 17. W. Lat. 55. 50. N.

(2.) ROTHESAY, or ROTHSAY, a pariſh in the iſle of Bute, about 10 miles long, and from 3 to 4 broad. It has 4 bays; viz. ROTHESAY, *Kames, Keils,* and *St Ninians*; all of which have good anchorage. The ſurface is hilly; but there are ſeveral very fertile valleys.

(3.) ROTHESAY BAY, a bay on the coaſt of the above pariſh.

ROTHIEMAY, a pariſh of Scotland, in Banffſhire,

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ise, 8 miles long, and from 5 to 6 broad: wa-
ed by the DEVERON, which runs through it.
the E. the ſurface is pleaſantly diverſified with
ods and corn fields; but on the N. it is hilly
d barren. The population, in 1794, was 1125:
creaſe 75, ſince 1755. The houſe of Rothie-
y, the earl of Fife's property, is pleaſantly
id near the conflux of the Deveron and the
. About a furlong N. from it, is a Druidical
ple, pretty entire.

OTHIEMURCHUS, a pariſh of Scotland, in
rneſs-ſhire, united to that of Duthil in Mur-
ſhire, in 1625. See DUTHIL, N° 1. Rothie-
chus extends 7 miles from E. to W. along the
nks of the Spey; and 4 in breadth. The ſoil
eep and fertile. There is an inexhauſtible
ry of lime-ſtone. There are two ſmall lakes;
melian, the chief one, has an iſland, with an
ent caſtle on it, the walls of which are entire.
population, in 1791, was 289: the number
eep, 2300; of horſes, 95; and black cattle,

OTHMAN, Chriſtopher, a learned German
omer of the 16th century. He became at-
ner to the landgrave of Heſſe. He wrote
atiſe on Comets: and *Letters on Aſtronomy to*
Brahe. He died in 1592.

OTHSAY. See ROTHESAY, N° 1—3.

OTHWELL, or ROWEL, a town of North-
mptonſhire, with a market on Wednſday, on
e of a hill, 15 miles NNE. of Northamp
and 79 NNW. of London. Lon. 1. 7. W.
t. 52. N.

OTHWEIL, a town of Germany, in Suabia.
ng it was taken by the French.

OTING, or ROTENBURG. See ROTENBURG.

OTINGTON, a town of Cumberland, N.
Bees; near the Bluff promontory, St Bee's
.

OTOMAGUS, in ancient geography, a town
ul, now called ROUEN.

OTONDO. See ROTUNDO.

OTTBOELLA, or } in botany; a genus of
OTTOBELLIA } the digynia order, be-
ng to the triandria claſs of plants. The ra-
jointed, roundiſh, and in many caſes fili-
the calyx is ovate, lanceolated, flat, ſimple,
artite; the florets are alternate on the wind-
chis.

ROTTEN. *adj.* [from *rot*.] 1. Putrid; ca-
; putreſcent.—

Truſt not to *rotten* planks. *Shak.*

Proſperity begins to mellow,
nd drops into the *rotten* mouth of death. *Shak.*
O bliſs-breeding ſun, draw from the earth
ften humidity. *Shak.*

here is by invitation or excitation; as when
ten apple lieth cloſe to another apple that is
d. *Bacon.*—

Who braſs as *rotten* wood; and ſteel no more
gards than reeds. *Sandys.*

growеth about the roots of *rotten* trees.
n.—

They ſere wood from the *rotten* hedges took.
Dryden.

ot firm; not truſty.—

Hence, *rotten* thing, or I ſhall ſhake thy bones
ut of thy garments. *Shak.*

3. Not ſound; not hard.—They were left moiled with dirt and mire, by the dunels of the *rotten* way. *Knolles.* 4. Fetid; ſtinking.—

You common cry of curs whoſe breath I hate,
As reek o' th' *rotten* fens. *Shak.*

ROTTENBURG. See ROTENBURG, N° 1—3.

ROTTENMAN, a town of Germany, in Stiria. It was taken by the French republicans in April 1797.

(1)* ROTTENNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *rotten*.] State of being rotten; carouſneſs; putrefaction.—

Diſeaſed ventures.
That play with all infirmities for gold,
Which *rottenneſs* lends nature! *Shak.*

—If the matter ſtink and be oily, it is a certain ſign of a *rottenneſs*. *Wiſeman.*

(2.) ROTTENNESS See PUTREFACTION.

ROTTENSTONE, a mineral found in Derbyſhire, and uſed by mechanics for all ſorts of finer grinding and poliſhing, and ſometimes for cutting of ſtones. According to Ferber, it is a tripoli mixed with calcareous earth.

ROTTER, a ſmall river of the Batavian republic, in the department of the Delft, running into the canal at ROTTERDAM, to which it gives name.

(1.) ROTTERDAM, a city of the Batavian republic, in the dep of Delft, and late province of Holland. It is large and populous; of a triangular figure, handſomely built of brick, the ſtreets wide and well paved. There are ten gates, ſix of which are at the land ſide and four at the ſide of the Maeſe. It is uncertain when firſt built. It is ſuppoſed to be very ancient, but no mention is made of it before the 13th century. In 1270 it was ſurrounded with ramparts, and honoured with ſeveral privileges; but 27 years after it was taken by the Flemings. In 1418, Brederode chief of the Hacks made himſelf maſter of it. Rotterdam is next to Amſterdam, the moſt conſiderable trading town in the republic. Its port is very commodious; for the canals, which run through moſt parts of the town, bring the ſhips, ſome of 200 or 300 tons, up to the merchants door. The great ſhips go up into the middle of the town by the canal into which the Maeſe enters by the old head, as it comes out by the new. A ſtranger, upon his firſt entering this place, is aſtoniſhed at the beautiful confuſion of chimneys, intermixed with tops of trees with which the canals are planted, and ſtreamers of veſſels; inſomuch that he can hardly tell whether it be a fleet, city, or foreſt. The Harring Vliet is a very fine ſtreet; moſt of the houſes are new, and built of hewn ſtone; but the grandeſt as well as the moſt agreeable ſtreet in Rotterdam is the *Bomb Quay*, which lies parallel with the Maeſe; on one ſide it is open to the river, and the other is ornamented with a grand facade of the beſt houſes in the city, inhabited chiefly by the Engliſh; they are 5 or 6 ſtories high, maſſy and very clumſy. The doors are large, and ſtuck with great knobs and clumſy carving; one aſcends to them, not in front, but by 3 or 4 ſteps going up on each ſide, protected by iron rails of immenſe thickneſs. Theſe houſes are almoſt all window: and the window ſhutters and frames being painted green, the glaſs has all a green caſt, which is helped by the reflection from the trees that overſhadow their houſes, which would otherwiſe be

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be intolerably hot. Moſt of them have looking-glaſſes placed on the outſides of the windows, on both ſides, that they may ſee every thing which paſſes up and down the ſtreet. The ſtair caſes are narrow, ſteep, and come down almoſt to the door. In general, the houſes riſe with enormous ſteep roofs, turning the gable end to the ſtreet, and leaning conſiderably forward, ſo that the top often projects near two feet beyond the perpendicular. The Bomb Quay is ſo broad, that there are diſtinct walks for carriages and foot paſſengers, lined and ſhaded with a double row of trees. In looking over the river, ſome beautiful meadows, and a fine avenue of trees appear, which leads to the Peſt-houſe: it ſeems to be an elegant building, and the trees round it are ſo diſpoſed as to appear a thick wood. This ſtreet is at leaſt half a mile in length, and extends from the old to the new head, the two places where the water enters to fill the canals of this extenſive city. Of the *canals*, or ſtreets with canals, running through them, the *Heeren-fleet* has the pre-eminence: the houſes are of free-ſtone and very lofty; the canal is ſpacious, and covered with ſhips: at one end ſtands the Engliſh church, a neat pretty building. This port is more frequented by the Britiſh merchants than Amſterdam. Sometimes 300 ſail of Britiſh veſſels have ſailed out of the harbour at once. The glaſs houſe here is one of the beſt in the republic: glaſs toys and enamelled bowels are made in it, which are ſent to India, and exchanged for china-ware, and other oriental commodities. On the E. ſide of the city there is a large baſon and dock, where ſhip-carpenters are employed by the admiralty, or the Eaſt India company. But the largeſt ſhips belonging to the admiralty of Rotterdam are kept at Helvoetſluys, as the moſt commodious ſtation, that place being ſituated on the ocean; for it requires both time and trouble to work a large ſhip from this dock to the ſea. Rotterdam has 4 churches for the eſtabliſhed religion; two Engliſh churches for the Epiſcopalians and Preſbyterians; one Scotch church; one Lutheran, two Arminian, two Anabaptiſt, four Roman Catholic chapels, and one Jewiſh ſynagogue. There are ſix markets. The Stadthouſe is an old building, but the chambers are large and finely adorned. The Exchange is a noble building, begun in 1720, and finiſhed in 1736. Upon the Great Bridge in the market place there is a fine braſs ſtatue erected to the celebrated ERASMUS, who was born in this city in 1467. ROTTERDAM was ſurrendered to the French under Pichegru, on the 18th Jan. 1795, and Dort on the 19th, without reſiſtance, or rather they were welcomed by the citizens, who have had reaſon to regret their conduct ſince. Rotterdam is ſeated on the Merwe, the N. branch of the Maeſe, 13 miles SE. of Hague, and 30 SSW. of Amſterdam. Lon. 4. 33. E. Lat. 51. 59. N.

(2.) ROTTERDAM, the name given by captain Taſman to the iſland of *Anamooka*, one of the Friendly Iſlands. (See ANNAMOOKA, and FRIENDLY ISLANDS.) Its form is triangular, each ſide extending about 3½ or 4 miles. From the NW. to the S. it is ſurrounded by a great number of ſmall iſlands, which extend very far to the N. It lies N. of the iſland of Amſterdam, and the people are ſimilar in their friendly manners and diſpoſitions to thoſe of that iſland, but not quite ſo ingenious in their manufactures, nor is the ground in ſuch high cultivation. Lon. 174. 31. W. Lat. 20. 15. S.

(3.) ROTTERDAM, NEW, a ſmall town and ſettlement of New York, on Lake Oneida, firſt ſettled by ſome Dutch emigrants.

ROTULA, in anatomy, the ſmall bone of the knee, called alſo PATELLA.

* ROTUND. *adj.* [*rotonde*, Fr. *rotundus*, Lat.] Round; circular; ſpherical.—The croſs figure the chriſtian temples is more proper for ſpacious buildings than the *rotund* of the heathen; the eye is much better filled at firſt entering the *rotund*, but ſuch as are built in the form of a croſs give us a greater variety. *Addiſon.*

* ROTUNDIFOLIOUS. *adj.* [*rotundus* and *folium*, Lat.] Having round leaves.

* ROTUNDITY. *n. ſ.* [*rotunditas*, Latin; *rondité*, Fr. from *rotund.*] 1. Roundneſs; ſphericity; circularity.—

Thou, all-ſhaking thunder,
Strike flat the thick *rotundity* o' th' world.

—With the *rotundity* common to the atoms of fluids, there is ſome difference in bulk. *Grew.* Who would part with theſe ſolid bleſſings for the little fantaſtical pleaſantneſs of a ſmooth convexity and *rotundity* of a globe? *Bentley.* 2. Circularity.—*Rotundity* is an emblem of eternity, as has neither beginning nor end.

(1.) * ROTUNDO. *n. ſ.* [*rotondo*, Italian] A building formed both in the inſide and outſide; as the pantheon at Rome. *Trevoux.*

(2.) ROTUNDO. The moſt celebrated rotundo of the ancients is the pantheon at Rome. See PANTHEON.

ROTUNDUS, in anatomy, a name given to ſeveral muſcles otherwiſe called TERES.

ROTWEIL, a free imperial city of Germany in Suabia. It was in alliance with the Swiſs cantons from 1513 till the late revolutions. There is an abbey about a mile and an half from it, to which none but noble ladies are admitted. It is ſituated on the Neckar near its ſource, and near the ſource of the Danube; 17 miles S. of Tubingen. It is perhaps the ſame with ROTHWEIL. Lon. 9. 0. Lat. 48. 13. N.

ROUAD, the modern name of the ancient Aradus. See ARADUS, N° 1.

ROUANE, or ROUANNE, a populous and commercial town of France, in the department of Rhone and Loire, and late province of Lyonois. It was a village only at the commencement of the 18th century, and is ſeated on the Loire, where it begins to be navigable for barks. Hence the merchandiſe of Lyons, Roſilles, and the Levant, is conveyed down the Loire, and by the canal of Briare, into the Seine, and thence to Paris. Rouanne is 50 miles N. of Clermont, and 210 SE. of Paris. Lon. 4. 12. Lat. 46. 13. N.

(1.) ROVATO, a quadra, or ci-devant diſtrict of the Italian republic, in the department of Mella, new diſtrict and late province of Brefcia, containing 10 pariſhes, and 12,000 citizens, 1797

(2.) ROVAT

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(2.) ROVATO, a well built town, capital of the ore territory, containing 5000 citizens, in 1797.
ROUCOU, in dyeing, the fame with ANOTTA d BIXA.
(2.) * *To* ROVE. *v. n.* [*roffwer*, Daniſh, to ge or plunder.] To ramble; to range; to nder.—
Thou'ſt years upon thee, and thou art too full
Of the wars ſurfeits, to go *rove* with one
That's yet unbruis'd. *Shak.*
Yet charge not with thy guilt his bounteous love,
For who has power to walk, has power to *rove*.
Arbuthnot.
f we indulge the frequent riſe and *roving* of ſons, we thereby procure an unattentive ha- *Watts.*—
I new'd th' effects of that diſaſtrous flame,
Which, kindled by th' imperious queen of love,
Conſtrain'd me from my native realm to *rove*.
Pope.
(3.) * *To* ROVE. *v. a.* To wander over.—
Roving the field, I chanc'd
A goodly tree far diſtant to behold. *Milton.*
Cloacina, as the town ſhe *rov'd*,
Immortal ſcavenger ſhe ſaw, ſhe lov'd. *Gay.*
ROUELLE, William Francis, an eminent ch chemiſt, born at Matthieu, near Caen, in Normandy, in 1702. He was appointed demonſtrator in chemiſtry, at the royal Botanic Garden, Paris. He died at Paris, in 1770, leaving a valuable work on that ſcience in MS.
ROUEN, a city of France, capital of the department of Lower Seine, and in the late province of Normandy; ſeated on the N. bank of the Seine. The ſtreets are narrow, crooked, dirty, and conſiſt of wooden houſes; notwithſtanding which, it is one of the moſt opulent and important places in France. It is two leagues and a half in circuit, (the ſix ſuburbs included) is computed to contain 70,000 inhabitants. Among the public buildings the moſt diſtinguiſhed are, the Great Hall of the Palace, in which the late parliament of Paris met; the old caſtle; and the principal church, ornamented with three towers, in one of which is the great bell, which bears the name of Cardinal George d' Amboiſe. It is 13 feet high, and 11 in diameter, if it was not melted into cannon during the revolution. It weighs 40,000 lbs. Its ſides one foot thick; its circumference is 32 feet; the clapper alone weighs 710 lbs. Near the cathedral church, which is not the only remarkable church, is the public library. The ſteeple of the church of the Benedictines of St Owen is an elegant Gothic ſtructure. The linens of Rouen, particularly what are called the *Siamoiſe*, are much eſteemed. There are alſo manufactures of cloth, and a manufacture of vitriol. The ſuburb of ST SEVER, ſituated on the other ſide of the Seine, communicates with the city by a bridge of boats, which riſes and falls with the tide, and is made to open, ſo as to admit the paſſage of ſhips. It is paved, and 370 paces long. Rouen was beſieged by K. Henry V. of England, for 5 months, from Aug. 31, to Jan. 1419, during which it was bravely defended; but at laſt ſurrendered on the 19th of Jan. 1419. Rouen is the birth-place of the two Corneilles, and of Fontenelle. It is 50 miles SW. of Amiens, and 70 NW. of Paris. Lon. 1. 10. E. Lat. 49. 27. N.

* ROVER. *n. ſ.* [from *rove*.] 1. A wanderer; a ranger. 2. A fickle inconſtant man. 3. A robber; a pirate.—This is the caſe of *rovers* by land, as ſome cantons in Arabia. *Bacon.* 4. *At* ROVERS. Without any particular aim.—Nature ſhoots not *at rovers*. *G'anville.*—Providence never ſhoots *at rovers*. *South.*—Men of great reading ſhow their talents on the meaneſt ſubjects; this is a kind of ſhooting *at rovers*. *Addiſon.*

(1.) ROVERE, or ROVERE DI VELO, a ci-devant diſtrict or commune of Verona, now in the Italian republic, and diſtrict of Verona. It has a church.

(2.) ROVERE, or ROVEREDO, a ſtrong town of the Tyrol, on the confines of Maritime Auſtria, lately in the republic of Venice; ſeated on the Adige, at the foot of a mountain, and on the ſide of a ſtream, over which there is a bridge, defended by two large towers and a ſtrong caſtle, 10 miles S. of Trent. This town is tolerably well built. There are ſeveral churches and convents, and a large ſpinning houſe for a manufacture of ſilk, in which they have a great trade here to the fairs of Bolzano. They have alſo a good trade in wine. Betwixt Trent and Roveredo is the ſtrong fort of *Belem*, belonging to the houſe of Auſtria. It is ſituated on a rock, and commands the roads at the foot of the mountain. Roveredo was taken by the French republicans, under Gen. Bonaparte, on the 4th Sept. 1796; immediately after a battle, in which the Auſtrians loſt 7000 priſoners, 25 cannons, 50 waggons, and 7 ſtandards. Lon. 11. 1. E. Lat. 46. 12. N.

ROUERGUE, a ci-devant province of France, in the government of Guienne, 75 miles long, and 50 broad. It was bounded on the E. by the Cevennes and Gevaudan, on the W. by Querci, on the N. by the ſame and Auvergne, and on the S. by Languedoc. It is not very fertile, but feeds a number of cattle, and has mines of copper, iron, alum, vitriol, and ſulphur. It now forms the department of Aveiron.

ROVERO, or REVERO, a diſtrict and town of the Italian republic. See ITALIAN REPUBLIC, § 6; and REVERO, N° 1. and 2.

(1.) * ROUGE. *n. ſ.* [*rouge*, Fr.] Red paint.

(2.) ROUGE, CAPE, a cape on the N. ſide of the iſland of Hiſpaniola.

(3.) ROUGE CHAPEAU, or RED HAT, a cape on the coaſt of N. America: in Lon. 55. 26. W. Lat. 46. 52. N.

(4.) ROUGE RIVER, a river of Louiſiana, ſo called from its red colour, which is ſo high, that in time of floods, it even tinges the water of the Miſſiſippi. It riſes in New Mexico, and after running about 600 miles, falls into the Miſſiſippi, 187 miles above New Orleans.

* ROUGH. *adj.* [*hrub*, *hrubge*, Saxon; *ruw*, Dutch.] 1. Not ſmooth; rugged; having inequalities on the ſurface.—
O'er bog or ſteep, through ſtrait, *rough*, denſe, or rare,
Purſues his way. *Milton.*
—Were the mountains taken all away, the remaining parts would be more unequal than the *roughſt*

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roughest sea. *Burnet.* 2. Austere the taste: as, rough *wine.* 3. Harsh to the ear.—

Most by the numbers judge a poet's song,
And smooth or *rough* with them is right or wrong. *Pope.*

4. Rugged of temper; inelegant of manners; not soft; coarse; not civil; severe; not mild; rude.

A fiend, a fury, pitiless and *rough.* *Shak.*
Strait with a band of soldiers tall and *rough*
On him he seizes. *Cowley.*
A surly boatman *rough* as seas and wind. *Prior.*

5. Not gentle; not proceeding by easy operation.—He gave not the king time, but forced him to a quicker and *rougher* remedy. *Clarendon.*—Hippocrates, his purgatives are generally very *rough* and strong. *Arbuthnot.* 6. Harsh to the mind; severe.—Kind words prevent a good deal of that perverseness, which *rough* and imperious usage often produces. *Locke.* 7. Hard featured; not delicate.—

A ropy chain of rheums, a visage *rough.* *Dryden.*

8. Not polished; not finished by art: as, *a* rough *diamond.* 9. Terrible; dreadful.—

On the *rough* edge of battle ere it join'd,
Satan advanc'd. *Milton.*

10. Rugged; disordered in appearance: coarse.—

Rough from the tossing surge Ulysses moves,
Urg'd on by want. *Pope.*

11. Tempestuous; stormy; boisterous.—

Time and the hour run through the *roughest* day. *Shak.*

12. Hairy.

ROUGHAM, 3 small towns of England: 1. in Lancashire, near Cartmel: 2. in Norfolk, NE. of Castle-Acre: 3. in Sussex, 4 miles E. of Bury.

* ROUGHCAST. *n. s.* [*rough* and *cast.*] 1. A rude model; a form in its rudiments.—The whole piece seems a loose model and *roughcast* of what I design to do. *Digby.* 2. A kind of plaster mixed with pebbles, or by some other cause very uneven on the surface.—Let him have some plaster, lome, or *roughcast* about him to signify wall. *Shak.*

* *To* ROUGHCAST. *v. a.* [*rough* and *cast.*] 1. To mould without nicety or elegance; to form with asperities and inequalities.—

Nor bodily, nor ghostly negro could
Roughcast thy figure in a sadder mould. *Cleaveland.*

2. To form any thing in its first rudiments.—This *roughcast* unhewn poetry was instead of stage plays for 120 years. *Dryden.*

* ROUGHDRAUGHT. *n. s.* [*rough* and *draught.*] A draught in its rudiments; a sketch.

My elder brothers came
Roughdraughts of nature, ill design'd. *Dryden.*

* *To* ROUGHDRAW. *v. a.* [*rough* and *draw.*] To trace coarsely.—

His victories we scarce could keep in view,
Or polish 'em so fast, as he *roughdrew.* *Dryd.*

(1.) * *To* ROUGHEN. *v. a.* [from *rough.*] To make rough.—Such difference there is in tongues, that the same figure, which *roughens* one, gives majesty to another. *Dryden.*—

Dust confus'd with rain,
Roughens the nap, and leaves a mingled stain.

(2.) * *To* ROUGHEN. *v. n.* To grow rough.

The broken landskip,
Ascending, *roughens* into rigid hills.

* ROUGHFOOTED. *adj.* [from *rough* and *foot.*] Feather-footed.

* *To* ROUGHHEW. *v. a.* [*rough* and *hew.*] To give to any thing the first appearance of form.

There's a divinity that shapes our ends,
Roughhew them how we will.

This does but *roughhew* and design,
Leaves art to polish and refine.

* ROUGHHEWN. *particip. adj.* 1. Rugged; unpolished; uncivil; unrefined.—A *roughhewn* seaman, being brought before a justice for some misdemeanour, was by him ordered away to prison; and would not stir; saying, it was better stand where he was, than go to a worse place. *Bacon.* 2. Not yet nicely finished.—I hope to obtain a candid construction of this *roughhewn* timber'd discourse. *Howel.*

* ROUGHLY. *adv.* [from *rough.*] 1. With uneven surface; with asperities on the surface. Harshly; uncivilly; rudely.—

Ne Mammon would there let him long
main,
But *roughly* him bespake.
Rebuk'd, and *roughly* sent to prison,
Th' immediate heir of England!

3. Severely; without tenderness.—

I the tricks of youth too *roughly* blame.

4. Austerely to the taste. 5. Boisterously; pestuously. 6. Harshly to the ear.

* ROUGHNESS. *n. s.* [from *rough.*] 1. perficial asperity; unevenness of surface.—little *roughnesses* or other inequalities of the against the cavity of the cylinder, now and put a stop to the descent or ascent of the *Boyle.*—

While the steep horrid *roughness* of wood
Strives with the gentle calmness of the

—The diamond is not only found, but the *ness* smoothed. *Dryden.*—Such a persuasion well fixed, will smooth all the *roughness* way that leads to happiness. *Atterbury.* austereness to the taste.—Divers plants contain austere and inconcocted *roughness*, as sloes 3. Taste of astringency.—A tobacco-pipe in my mouth, and the spitting out the piece such a delicious *roughness* on my tongue, champed up the remaining part. *Spectator.* Harshness to the ear.—In the *roughness* of numbers and cadences of this play, you will somewhat more masterly than in any of my mer tragedies. *Dryden.*—The Swedes, Germans, and Dutch attain to the pronunci of our words with ease, because our syllable semble theirs in *roughness.* *Swift.* 5. Rugge of temper; coarseness of manners; tendenc rudeness; coarseness of behaviour and addre *Roughness* is a needless cause of discontent; rity breedeth fear; *roughness* breedeth hate. *con.*—

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They quicken sloth, perplexities unty,
Make *roughness* smooth. *Denham.*

Roughness of temper is apt to discountenance a timorous or modest. *Addison.* 6. Absence of delicacy.—Should feasting and balls once get amongst the cantons, their military *roughness* would be quickly lost. *Addison.* 7. Severity; violence of discipline. 8. Violence of operation in medicines. 9. Unpolished or unfinished state. 10. Inelegance of dress or appearance. 11. Tempestuousness; stormineſs. 12. Coarseness of fare.

* ROUGHT. old pret. of *reach.* [commonly written by *Spenser raught.*] Reached.—

The moon was a month old, when Adam was no more,
And *rought* not to five weeks, when he came to fiveſcore. *Shak.*

ROUGHTY, a river of Ireland, in the county of Kerry, Munster, which runs into the Kenmare.

ROUGHTY-BRIDGE, a town of Ireland, in Kerry on the banks of the above river, where it has a bridge over it.

To ROUGHWORK. *v. a.* [*rough* and *work.*] To work coarsely over without the least nicety. Thus you must continue, till you have *roughwrought* all your work from end to end. *Moxon.*

ROVIGNO, a populous town of Maritime Istria, in Istria, with two good harbours, and mines of fine stone. It is seated in a territory which produces excellent wine, in a peninsula on the W. coast. Lon. 13. 53. E. Lat. 45. 14. N.

ROVIGO, a town of Italy, in Maritime Austria, and late territory of Venice, capital of the Polesine di Rovigo. It is a small place, poorly inhabited, and encompassed with ruinous walls. Formerly it belonged to the duke of Ferrara, but became subject to the Venetians in 1500; and is famous for being the birth place of Cœlius Rhodiginus. It was built upon the ruins of *Adria*, formerly a noble harbour, one mile from Rovigo, which gave name to the gulph, but now a half ruined village, inhabited by a few fishermen. Lon. 11. 25. E. Lat. 45. 6. N.

ROVIGO, a populous district of Maritime Istria, in the Polesine di Rovigo. It is the largest, richeſt, and most populous of the 3 districts into which the Polesine is divided. Its chief towns are ROVIGO, the capital, (See N° 1.) FRATTA, (See that article.) *Canda*, a large place at the junction of the Castagnaro and Tartaro, famous for its fairs and trade in flax; and *Arqua*, a populous village on the road to Rome by Ferrara. The district is very fertile in corn, flax, &c.

ROVIGO, POLESINE OF. See POLESINO. To the account given under that article, we have to add from Dr Oppenheim, that "the Polesino is a peninsula formed by the Adige, Adigetto, Tartaro, Castagnaro, and Po, intersected by several canals; the soil, some few marshes excepted, uncommonly fertile. It abounds in corn, maize, wine, hemp, fruit, and silk. Black cattle and horses are fattened on the luxuriant pastures. It is divided into 3 districts, viz. ROVIGO, N° 2. Lendinara, (See LENDINARA, N° 1 and 2;) and Badia; and contains 3 towns, one borough, 53 villages, and 69,000 inhabitants. *Badia* is a well built, rich and populous town, on the Adigetto, famous for silk and flax.

ROUILLE, Peter Julian, a learned French Jesuit, born at Tours, in 1681. He assisted Father Catrou, in writing the *Roman History*, in 21 vols. 4to. and died at Paris, in 1740, aged 59.

ROUMOIS, a ci-devant territory of France, in Upper Normandy.

* ROUNCEVAL. *n. s.* [from *Rouncesval*, a town at the foot of the Pyrenees.] See PEA, of which it is a species.—

Set as a daintie thy *runcival* peaſe. *Tusser.*

ROUNCESVAL, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Pyrenees, at the foot of the Pyrenees.

(1.) * ROUND. *adj.* [*rond*, French; *rondo*, Italian; *rund*, Dutch; *rotundus*, Latin.] 1. Cylindrical.—

Hollow engines long and *round* thick ram'd. *Milton.*

2. Circular.—

The queen of night
In her increasing hornes, doth *rounder* grow. *Brown.*

His pond'rous shield large and *round* behind him. *Milton.*

3. Spherical; orbicular.—

The outside bare of this *round* world. *Milton.*

4. [*Rotundo ore*, Lat.] Smooth; without defect in sound.—In his satyrs Horace is quick, *round*, and pleasant, and as nothing so bitter, so not so good as Juvenal. *Peacham.*—His style, though *round* and comprehensive, was incumbered sometimes by parentheses. *Fell.* 5. Not broken.—Pliny put a *round* number near the truth, rather than a fraction. *Arbuthnot.* 6. Large; not inconsiderable: this is hardly used but with *sum* or *price.*—

Three thousand ducats! 'tis a good *round sum.* *Shak.*

—They set a *round price* upon your head. *Addison.*—It is not easy to foresee what a *round sum* of money may do among a people, who have tamely suffered the *Franche comptè* to be seized on. *Addison.*—She called for a *round sum* out of the privy purse. *Hooke.* 7. Plain; clear; fair; candid; open.—*Round* dealing is the honour of man's nature. *Bacon.* 8. Quick; brisk.—Painting is a long pilgrimage; if we do not actually begin the journey, and travel at a *round* rate, we shall never arrive at the end of it. *Dryden.*—Sir Roger heard them upon a *round* trot; and after pausing, told them, that much might be said on both sides. *Addison.* 9. Plain; free without delicacy or reserve; almost rough.—

Let his queen mother all alone intreat him,
To shew his griefs; let her be-*round* with him. *Shak.*

—The kings interposed in a *round* and princely manner. *Bacon.*

(2.) * ROUND. *adv.* 1. Every way; on all sides.—The terror of God was upon the cities *round* about. *Gen.*—All sounds whatsoever move *round*; that is, on all sides. *Bacon.*—

In darkness and with dangers compass'd *round.* *Milton.*

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2. [*En rond, à la ronde*, Fr.] In a revolution.—
He comes *round* to practiſe his deceits upon himſelf. *Gov. of the Tongue.* 3. Circularly.—
One foot he center'd, and the other turn'd
Round through the vaſt profundity obſcure.
Milton.

4. Not in a direct line.—
The way they take is ſtrangely *round* about.
Pope.

(3.) * ROUND. *n. ſ.* 1. A circle; a ſphere; an orb.—
Hie thee hither,
That I may pour my ſpirits in thine ear,
And chaſtiſe with the valour of my tongue
All that impedes thee from the golden *round.*
Shak.
I'll charm the air to give a ſound,
While you perform your antick *round.* *Shak.*
Three or four we'll dreſs like urchins,
With *rounds* of waxen tapers on their heads,
And rattles in their hands. *Shak.*
—Hirſute roots are a middle ſort, between the bulbous and fibrous; that, beſides the putting forth ſap upwards and downwards, putteth forth in *round.* *Bacon.*—
What if the ſun
Be centre to the world; and other ſtars
By his attractive virtue and their own
Incited, dance about him various *rounds.* *Milt.*
Knit your hands, and beat the ground
In a light fantaſtick *round.* *Milton.*
He did foretel and propheſy of him,
Who to his realms that azure *round* hath join'd.
Denham.
Then in a *round* the mingled bodies run;
Flying they follow, and purſuing ſhun. *Dryden.*
In a *round*, what order can be ſhew'd,
Where all the parts ſo equal perfect are. *Dryd.*
—The mouth of Veſuvio has 400 yards in diameter; for it ſeems a perfect *round.* *Addiſon.*—
This image on the medal plac'd,
With its bright *round* of titles grac'd,
And ſtampt on Britiſh coins ſhall live. *Addiſon.*
2. Rundle; ſtep of a ladder.—
When he once attains the upmoſt *round,*
He then unto the ladder turns his back. *Shak.*
—Many are kick'd down ere they have climbed the two or three firſt *rounds* of the ladder. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—
All the *rounds* like Jacob's ladder riſe. *Dryd.*
—This is the utmoſt *round* of the ladder whereby we aſcend to heaven. *Norris.* 3. The time in which any thing has paſſed through all hands, and comes back to the firſt: hence applied to a carouſal.—
A gentle *round* fill'd to the brink,
To this and t'other friend I drink. *Suckling.*
Women to cards may be compar'd; we play
A *round* or two; when us'd, we throw away.
Granville.
To the king's pleaſure went the mirthful
round. *Prior.*

4. A revolution; a courſe ending at the point where it began.—
The ſtarry quire,
Who, in their mighty watchful ſpheres,
Lead in ſwift *rounds* the months and years.
Milton.
'Tis nought but a perpetual fruitleſs *round,*
Cowley.
—If nothing will pleaſe people, unleſs they be greater than nature intended, what can they expect, but the aſs's *round* of vexations change? *L'Eſtrange.*—
An endleſs *round* of ſtill returning woes.
Sa
—Some preachers run the ſame *round* from end of the year to another. *Addiſon.*—
Compell'd our common impotence to mo
Thus through the *round* of age, to childh
we return. *P*
5. Rotation; ſucceſſion in viciſſitude.—Such Utopians would have a *round* of government. *lyday.* 6. [*Ronde*, Fr.] A walk performed guard or officer, to ſurvey a certain diſtrict.
(4.) * ROUND. *prep.* 1. On every ſide of.
To officiate light *round* this opacious ca
Mi
2. About; circularly about.—
He led the hero *round*
The confines of the bleſt Elyſian ground.
Dry
3. All over; here and there in.—
Round the world we roam. *Dry*
(5.) ROUND BAY, in geography, a fine on the W. ſide of St Lucia, with good a rage.
(6.) ROUND CAPE, a cape on the coaſt of brador, in N. America.
(7.) ROUND ISLAND, an iſland near the co W. Florida.
(8.) ROUND ROCK, one of the VIRGIN ISLA lying N. of Ginger Iſland. Lon. 62. 53. W. 18. 10. N.
(1.) * *To* ROUND. *v. a.* [*rotundo*, Lat. from noun.] 1. To ſurround; to encircle.—
Would that th' incluſive verge
Of golden metal, that muſt *round* my bro
Were redhot ſteel to ſear me to the brain.
Our little life
Is *rounded* with a ſleep.
The many-coloured Iris *rounds* thine ey
The vileſt cockle gaping on the coaſt,
That *rounds* the ample ſea.
2. To make ſpherical, circular, or cylindric Worms with many feet, which *round* them into balls, are bred chiefly under logs of ti *Bacon.*—When ſilver has been leſſened in any carrying the publick ſtamp, by clipping, wa or *rounding*, the laws have declared it not t lawful money. *Locke.*—With the draw-knife off the edges to make it fit for the lathe. *M* —Can any one tell, how the ſun, planets, an tellites were *rounded* into their particular ſph dical orbs? *Cheyne.* 3. To raiſe to a relief.— figures on our modern medals are raiſed and *r ed* to a very great perfection. *Addiſon.* 4. To about any thing.—
The low ſun,
To recompence his diſtance, in your ſight
Had *rounded* ſtill th' horizon. *Mil*
5. To mould into ſmoothneſs.—Theſe acc pliſhments appear by a quaint, terſe, florid ſt *rounded* into periods and cadencies, without pr priety. *Swift.*

(2.)

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(2.) * *To* ROUND. *v. n.* 1. To grow round form.—

The queen, your mother, *rounds* apace. *Shak.*

[*Runen*, German; whence *Chaucer* writes it *ritter roun*] To whisper.—Being come to the ripping place, one of Kalander's servants *rounded* his ear. *Sidney.*—

As God's own soldier, *rounded* in the ear.
Shak.

They're here with me already; whispering, *rounding*
Sicilia is a so forth; 'tis far gone. *Shak.*

Cicero was at dinner, where an ancient lady
If she was but forty: one that sat by *rounded*
him in the ear, she is far more. *Bacon.*—The fox
and the new elect in the ear, with a piece of
great service that he could do him. *L'Estrange.*

To go rounds, as a guard.—

They keep watch, or nightly *rounding* walk.
Milton.

ROUNDABOUT. *adj.* [This word is used as adjective, though it is only an adverb united to a substantive by a colloquial licence of language, which ought not to have been admitted into books.] 1. Ample; extensive.—Those sinews follow reason, but for want of having large, and *roundabout* sense, have not a full view of all things relates to the question. *Locke.* 2. Indirect; circuitous.—Paraphrase is a *roundabout* way of translating, invented to help the barrenness, which translators, overlooking in themselves, have appended in our tongue. *Felton.*

* ROUNDEL. } *n. s.* 1. [*Rondelet*,
* ROUNDELAY. } French.] A kind of light poetry, which commonly consists of 13 lines, of which 8 are of one kind of rhyme and 5 of another: it is divided into three couplets; at the end of the second and third, the beginning of the *roundel* is repeated in an equivocal sense if possible. *Trevoux.*—

Either, like a *roundle* never heard I none.
Spenser.

To hear thy rimes and *roundelays*,
Which thou wert wont in wastful hills to sing,
More delight than lark in summer days.
Spenser.

Come now a *roundel* and a fairy song. *Shak.*

The fawns, satyrs, and nymphs did dance their *roundelays*. *Howel.*—

They list'ning heard him, while he search'd
the grove,
And loudly sung his *roundelay* of love. *Dryden.*

Rondelle, Fr.] A round form or figure.—The lords, casting themselves into *roundels*, and the strongest ships walling in the rest, made a march to Calais. *Bacon.*

ROUNDELAY, or ROUNDO, derived its name, according to Menage, from its form, and because it turns back again to the first verse, and thus is round. The roundelay is a popular poem in France, but is little known among us. Marot and Voiture have succeeded the best in it. Rapin remarks, that if the roundelay be not very exquisite, it is intolerably bad. In all the ancient ones, Menage says, that the verse preceding has a less complete sense, and yet joins agreeably with that of the close, without depending necessarily thereon. This makes the roundelay more ingenious, and is one of the finesses of the poem. Some of the ancient writers speak of the roundelay as a kind of air appropriated to dancing; and in this sense the term seems to indicate little more than dancing in a circle with the hands joined.

* ROUNDER. *n. s.* [from *round*.] Circumference; inclosure.—

'Tis not the *rounder* of your old fac'd walls
Can hide you from our messengers of war. *Shak.*

(1.) * ROUNDHEAD. *n. s.* [*round* and *head*.] A puritan so named from the practice once prevalent among them of cropping their hair round.—Your petitioner always kept hospitality, and drank confusion to the *roundheads*. *Spect.*

(2.) ROUND-HEAD RIVER. See N° 3.

(3.) ROUND-HEADS, a nation of N. American Indians, who inhabit the *Riviere aux Tetes Boules*, or ROUND-HEAD RIVER, in N. America. They have 200 warriors.

(1.) * ROUNDHOUSE. *n. s.* [*round* and *house*.] The constable's prison, in which disorderly persons, found in the street, are confined.—

They march'd to some sam'd *roundhouse*. *Pope.*

(2.) ROUND-HOUSE, in a ship, the uppermost room or cabin on the stern of a ship, where the master lies.

* ROUNDISH. *adj.* [from *round*.] Somewhat round; approaching to roundness.—It is not every small crack that can make such a receiver, as is of a *roundish* figure useless to our experiment. *Boyle.*

* ROUNDLY. *adv.* [from *round*.] 1. In a round form; in a round manner. 2. Openly; plainly; without reserve.—Injoin gainsayers, giving them *roundly* to understand, that where our duty is submission, weak oppositions betoken pride. *Hooker.*—

You'll prove a jolly surly groom,
That take it on you at the first so *roundly*. *Shak.*

—Mr de Mortier *roundly* said, that, he would propose two means for peace. *Hayward.*—From a world of phœnomena, there is a principle that acts out of wisdom and counsel, as was abundantly evidenced, and as *roundly* acknowledged. *More.* He affirms every thing *roundly*, without any art, or circumlocution. *Addison.* 3. Briskly; with speed.—When the mind has brought itself to attention, it will be able to cope with difficulties, and then it may go on *roundly*. *Locke.* 4. Completely; to the purpose; vigorously; in earnest.—I would have done any thing, indeed too, and *roundly* too. *Shak.*—This lord justice caused the earl of Kildare to be arrested, and cancelled such charters as were lately resumed, and proceeded every way so *roundly* and severely, as the nobility did much distaste him. *Davies.*

* ROUNDNESS. *n. s.* [from *round*.] 1. Circularity; sphericity; cylindrical form.—The same reason is of the *roundness* of the bubble; for the air within avoideth discontinuance, and therefore casteth itself into a round figure. *Bacon.*—

Bracelets of pearl gave *roundness* to her arm,
And ev'ry gem augmented ev'ry charm. *Prior.*

—*Roundness* is the primary essential mode or difference of a bowl. *Watts.* 2. Smoothness.—The whole period and compass of this speech was de-

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ſightſome for the *roundneſs*, and grave for the ſtrangeneſs. *Spenſer.* 3. Honeſty; openneſs; vigorous meaſures.

ROUNDO. See ROUNDELAY, § 2.

(1.) ROUNDS, in military matters, a detachment from the main-guard, of an officer or a non-commiſſioned officer and ſix men, who go round the rampart of a garriſon to liſten if any thing be ſtirring without the place, and to ſee the ſentinels be diligent upon their duty, and all in order. In ſtrict garriſons the rounds go every half hour. The ſentinels are to challenge at a diſtance, and to reſt their arms as the round paſſes. All guards turn out, challenge, exhange the parole, and reſt their arms, &c. ROUNDS are ordinary and extraordinary. The ordinary rounds are three; the town-major's round, the grand round, and the viſiting-round.

(2.) ROUNDS, MANNER OF GOING THE. When the town-major goes his round, he comes to the main-guard, and demands a ſerjeant and 4 or 6 men to eſcort him to the next guard; and when it is dark, one of the men is to carry a light. As ſoon as the ſentry at the guard perceives the round coming, he ſhall give notice to the guard, that they may be ready to turn out when ordered; and when the round is advanced within about 20 or 30 paces of the guard, he is to challenge briſkly; and when he is anſwered by the ſerjeant who attends the round, *Town major's round*, he is to ſay, *Stand round!* and reſt his arms; after which he is to call out immediately, *Serjeant, turn out the guard, town-major's round.* Upon the ſentry calling, the ſerjeant is to turn out the guard immediately, drawing up the men in good order with ſhouldered arms, the officer placing himſelf at the head of it, with his arms in his hand. He then orders the ſerjeant and 4 or 6 men to advance toward the round, and challenge: the ſerjeant of the round is to anſwer, *Town major's round*; upon which the ſerjeant of the guard replies, *Advance, ſerjeant, with the parole!* at the ſame time ordering his men to reſt their arms. The ſerjeant of the round advances alone, and gives the ſerjeant of the guard the parole in his ear, that none elſe may hear it; during which period the ſerjeant of the guard holds the ſpear of his halbert at the other's breaſt. The ſerjeant of the round then returns to his poſt, whilſt the ſerjeant of the guard, leaving his men to keep the round from advancing, gives the parole to his officer. This being found right, the officer orders his ſerjeant to return to his men; ſays, *Advance, town major's round!* and orders the guard to reſt their arms; upon which the ſerjeant of the guard orders his men to wheel back from the centre, and form a lane, through which the town-major is to paſs (the eſcort remaining where they were), and go up to the officer and give him the parole, laying his mouth to his ear. The officer holds the ſpear of his eſponton at the town-major's breaſt while he gives him the parole. The deſign of rounds is not only to viſit the guards, and keep the ſentinels alert; but likewiſe to diſcover what paſſes in the out-works, and beyond them.

(1.) ROUP, *n. ſ.* in the Scottiſh dialect, an auction; a public ſale. *Aſh.*

(2.) ROUP, [from *rump.*] a diſeaſe incident to poultry. *Bailey.*

To ROUP. *v. a.* To ſell by auction.

ROUPING. *n. ſ.* A ſale by auction.

To ROURIDGE, *v. a. obſ.* To gnaw. *Bailey.*

(1.) ROUSAY, one of the Orkney iſlands, about 9 miles long and 4 broad; NW. of Mainland. It conſiſts entirely of a range of hills with ſome ſtripes of arable land on the coaſt. The ſoil is fertile. The population in 1792, was 7[illegible]. It has ſeveral ſmall lakes, from which many [illegible] lets riſe; and has fundry ſafe harbours on its coaſt. The inhabitants proſecute the fiſheries with great diligence, and have 24 boats. It is on the whole one of the moſt pleaſant of the Orkney Iſles.

(2.) ROUSAY AND EGLISHAY, two united pariſhes of Scotland in Orkney, comprehending the 4 iſlands of ROUSAY, (N° 1.) *Egliſhay*, [illegible] and WEIR; all of which are ſituated about miles NW. of Kirkwall. *Egliſhay* lies low, is pleaſant and has an old Gothic church with a pyramidical ſteeple, dedicated to St Magnus, the tutelar ſaint of Orkney. Its population, in 1792, was 210. It has 12 boats; with a lake of freſh water and the ſoil is good; as is alſo that of *Ballow* and *Weir*. Inhallow had only 25 inhabitants, in 1792, and 2 boats. The total population of the whole, was 1072; increaſe 94 ſince 1755. There are alſo 2 uninhabited iſlets in the pariſh. A great quantity of kelp is made annually. There were 2500 black cattle in 1792, beſides many ſheep, ſmall horſes, ſwine and numerous flocks of geeſe.

(1.) ROUSE, John, an Engliſh antiquary in the 15th century, who flouriſhed in Warwickſhire and lived at Guy's Cliff, near Warwick. He wrote 1. *A Chronicle of the Kings of England*, and 2. *The Antiquities of Warwick.* He died 1491.

(2.) * ROUSE. *n. ſ.* [*ruſch*, German, half] A doſe of liquor rather too large. Not in

They have given me a *rouſe* already.

The king's *rouſe* ſhall bruit it back [illegible]

Reſpeaking earthly thunder.

(1.) * *To* ROUSE. *v. a.* [of the ſame words with *raiſe* and *riſe.*] 1. To wake; reſt.—

Mars was early up, and *rous'd* the ſky

Rev'rent I touch thee! but with how

To *rouſe* the watchmen of the publick

2. To excite to thought or action.—

Then *rouſe* that heart of thine.

The Dane and Swede, *rous'd* up by

arms,

Bleſs the wiſe conduct of her pious arms

I'll thunder in their ears their country

And try to *rouſe* up all that's Roman [illegible]

—The heat, with which Luther treated [illegible] verſaries, though ſtrained too far, was [illegible] well fitted by the providence of God to [illegible] a people, the moſt phlegmatick of any in Chriſtendom. *Atterbury.* 3. To put into action.—

As an eagle, ſeeing prey appear,

His airy plumes doth *rouſe* full *rudely* [illegible]

So ſhaked he, that horror was to hear. *F.* [illegible]

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Bluſt'ring winds had *rous'd* the ſea. *Milton.*

To drive a beaſt from his laire.—

To *rouze* a lion, or to ſtart a hare. *Shak.*

As an old lion, who ſhall *rouſe* him up? *Gen.* xlix. 9.—

Rous'd with the noiſe, he ſcarce believes his ear. *Denham.*

The youth ruſh eager to the ſylvan war:
Rouſe the fleet hart, and cheer the op'ning hound. *Pope.*

(2.) * *To* ROUSE. *v. n.* 1. To awake from ſlumber.—

Men, ſleeping found by whom they dread,
Lay and beſtir themſelves. *Milton.*

Richard, who now was half aſleep,
Rous'd; nor would longer ſilence keep. *Prior.*

Morpheus *rouſes* from his bed. *Pope.*

2. To be excited to thought or action.—

Night's black agents to their prey do *rouze.* *Shak.*

ROUSELAER. See ROUSSELART.

* ROUSER. *n. ſ.* [from *rouſe.*] One who rouſes.

(1.) ROUSSEAU, JAMES, an eminent painter, born at Paris in 1630. He ſtudied firſt under Bonnevelt, after which he travelled into Italy, applying in perſpective, architecture, and landſcape. On his return home, he was employed at Paris. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf in painting buildings, and by his knowledge of perſpective Lewis XIV. employed him to decorate his hall at St Germaine-en-Laie, where he repreſented the opera of Lulli. But being a Proteſtant, he quitted France on the perſecution of his brethren, and retired to Switzerland. Lewis invited him back; he refuſed, but ſent his deſigns and recommended a proper perſon to execute them. After a ſhort ſtay in Switzerland, he went to Holland; whence he was invited to England by Ralph duke of Montague, to adorn his new houſe in Bloomſbury. Some of his pictures, both in landſcape and architecture, are at Hampton court; and he etched ſome of his own deſigns. Such of them as remain are monuments of an excellent genius. He died in Soho-ſquare, London, in 1693, aged 63.

(2.) ROUSSEAU, John Baptiſt, a celebrated French poet, born at Paris in April 1671. His father, who was a ſhoemaker in good circumſtances, made him ſtudy in the beſt colleges of Paris. He publiſhed ſeveral ſhort poetical pieces, filled with lively images, which made him ſought for by perſons of the firſt rank, and genius. He was admitted in quality of *clerc*, into the academy of Inſcriptions and Belles Lettres, in 1701. He attended marſhal Tallard into England as his ſecretary, and contracted a friendſhip with St Evremond. At his return to Paris, he was admitted into the politeſt company, and lived among the courtiers, when, in 1708, he was proſecuted as the author of ſome couplets, in which the characters of ſeveral perſons of merit were calumniated. This made much noiſe; and Rouſſeau was baniſhed in 1712 out of the kingdom, by a decree of the parliament of Paris. However, he always ſtedily denied, and even on his death-bed, his being the author of theſe couplets.—After this ſentence he lived in foreign countries, where he found illuſtrious protectors. The count de Luc, ambaſſador of France in Switzerland, took him into his family, and took him with him to the treaty of Baden in 1714, where he was a plenipotentiary, and preſented him to prince Eugene, who took him to Vienna, and introduced him to the emperor. Rouſſeau lived about three years with prince Eugene; but having loſt his favour by ſatiriſing one of his miſtreſſes, he retired to Bruſſels, where he afterwards uſually reſided. It was here that he became acquainted with Voltaire, who admired his turn for poetry, and made him a preſent of all his works. Rouſſeau, flattered by his reſpect, announced him as a man who would one day be a glory to the age. Voltaire continued to conſult him about his productions, and to laviſh on him the higheſt encomiums, while their friendſhip daily increaſed. When they again met at Bruſſels, however, they harboured the blackeſt malice againſt one another. The cauſe of this enmity appears to have been envy and rivalſhip. Rouſſeau, from this period, always repreſented Voltaire as a buffoon, as a writer poſſeſſing neither taſte nor judgment. As a poet he conſidered him as little ſuperior to Pracon. Voltaire treated him ſtill worſe. Rouſſeau, according to him, was nothing better than a plagiariſt. In conſequence of the little eſteem in which Rouſſeau was held at Bruſſels, he could never forget Paris. The grand-prior of Vendome and the baron de Breteuil ſolicited the regent duke of Orleans to allow him to return; which favour was obtained. But our poet, demanded a review of his proceſs, which he wiſhed to be repealed, by a judgment of court; but his petition was refuſed. He then came over, in 1721, to England, where he printed *A collection of his Works*, in 2 vols. 12mo, at London. This edition, publiſhed in 1723, brought him near 10,000 crowns, which he placed in the hands of the Oſtend company, but ſoon loſt the whole of it; by which unfortunate event Rouſſeau, in his old age, had nothing to depend upon but the generoſity of ſome friends. Boutet, notary in Paris, was peculiarly generous to him. He found a ſtill greater aſylum in the duke of Aremberg, whoſe table was open to him at all times; who, being obliged in 1733 to go into the army in Germany, ſettled on him a penſion of 1500 livres. But having been imprudent enough to publiſh in a Journal (of which Voltaire accuſed him), that the duke d'Aremberg was the author of thoſe verſes for which he himſelf had been baniſhed France, he was diſmiſſed from his table, and his pride would not allow him to accept the penſion after this rupture. Bruſſels now became inſupportable to him; and the count du Luc, and M. de Senozan, receiver general of the church revenue, being informed of his diſappointments, invited him to come privately to Paris, in the hopes of procuring a diminution of the period of his baniſhment. Some time previous to this, Rouſſeau had publiſhed two new letters; one to P. Brumoi, *on tragedy*; the other to Rollin, *on hiſtory*. It is ſaid, he expected from his letter to Brumoi to get the favour of all the Jeſuits; and from the one to Rollin the patronage of the Janſeniſts. He had likewiſe written an Ode, in praiſe of cardinal Fleury, *on Peace*, which met with a favourable reception. Some ſay, that Rouſſeau had irritated ſome perſons

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ſons in power, by an allegory called *The Judgment of Pluto;* in which he deſcribes one of the principal judges, whoſe ſkin Pluto had cauſed to be taken off, and ſtretched out on the ſeat in the bench. This ſatire, joined to the machinations of enemies, rendered all the attempts of his friends to procure his return abortive. After having ſtaid three months at Paris, he returned to Bruſſels in February 1740, where he died March 17, 1741, ſtrongly impreſſed with religious ſentiments. Immediately before he received the viaticum, he proteſted he was not the author of thoſe horrid verſes which had ſo much embittered his life. Some repreſent Rouſſeau as profane, troubleſome, capricious, forward, vindictive, envious, a flatterer, and a ſatiriſt. Others as a man full of candour and openneſs, a faithful and grateful friend, and as a Chriſtian affected with a ſenſe of religion. Such as wiſh to know more of this great poet may conſult the Dictionary of M. Chaupepie, who endeavours to give a juſt idea of his character. From what he ſays, it does not appear that Rouſſeau can be cleared from the accuſation brought againſt him of having attacked his benefactors. M. Seguy, in concert with M. the prince of la Tour Taſſis, has given a very beautiful edition of his works, agreeable to the poet's laſt corrections. It was publiſhed in 1743, at Paris, in 3 vols. 4to, and in 4 vols. 12mo, containing nothing but what was acknowledged by the author as his own. It contains, 1. *Four Books of Odes.* 2. *Two books of Epiſtles, in verſe.* 3. *Cantatas.* He is the father of this ſpecies of poetry, in which he ſtands unrivalled. 4. *Allegories*, the moſt of which are happy, but ſome forced. 5. *Epigrams*, after the manner of Martial and Marot. 6. A book of *Poems on Various Subjects*, which ſometimes want both eaſe and delicacy. 7. Four comedies in verſe; the *Flatterer*, whoſe character is well ſupported; the *Imaginary Forefathers*, a piece which had much leſs ſucceſs, although it affords ſufficiently good ſentiment; the *Capricious Man*, and the *Dupe of Herſelf*, pieces of inconſiderable merit. 8. Three comedies in proſe; the *Coffee-houſe*, the *Magic Girdle*, and the *Madragore*, which are little better than his other theatrical pieces. 9. A *Collection of Letters*, in proſe. In this edition he has ſelected the moſt intereſting.—There is a larger collection in 5 volumes, which did both injury and honour to his memory, as he in it ſpeaks both in favour of and againſt the very ſame perſons. He appears too haſty in tearing to pieces the characters of thoſe who diſpleaſed him. A bookſeller in Holland publiſhed his *port-folio*, which does him no honour. An edition of his *Select Pieces* appeared at Paris in 1741, in 12mo. His portrait engraved by the celebrated Aved, his old friend, made its appearance in 1778.

(3.) ROUSSEAU, John James, a very celebrated writer, born at Geneva, June 28, 1712. His father was a watchmaker. At his birth, which, he ſays, was the firſt of his misfortunes, he endangered the life of his mother, and he himſelf was long after in a very languiſhing ſtate of health; but as his ſtrength increaſed, his mental powers gradually opened, and afforded the happieſt preſages of future greatneſs. His father, who was a citizen of Geneva, was a well informed tradeſman; and in his work ſhop he kept a Plutarch and a Tacitus, which of courſe ſoon became familiar to his ſon. A raſh juvenile ſtep occaſioned his leaving his father's houſe. "Finding himſelf a fugitive in a ſtrange country, and without money or friends, he changed (ſays he himſelf) his religion in order to procure a ſubſiſtence." Bonnet, in ſhop of Anneci, from whom he ſolicited an alum, committed the care of his education to Mad. de Warrens, an amiable lady, who had in 1725 left part of her wealth, and the Proteſtant religion, to throw herſelf into the church. This generous lady ſerved in the triple capacity of mother, a friend, and a lover, to the new proſelyte, whom ſhe regarded as her ſon. The neceſſity of procuring for himſelf ſome ſettlement however, or his unſettled diſpoſition, obliged Rouſſeau often to leave his tender mother. He poſſeſſed more than ordinary talents for muſic, and he commenced teaching muſic at Chambery, where he remained till 1741, when he went to Paris, where he was long in very deſtitute circumſtances. Meanwhile he began to emerge from obſcurity. His friends placed him with M. Montaigu, ambaſſador from France to Venice. But, by his own confeſſion, a proud miſanthropy and a peculiar contempt of riches and pleaſure conſtituted the chief traits in his character, and miſunderſtanding ſoon took place between him and the ambaſſador. The place of depute, to M. Dupin, farmer general, a man of parts, gave him ſome temporary relief, and enabled him to do of ſome benefit to Mad. de Warrens. The year 1750 was the commencement of his literary career. The academy of Dijon had propoſed the queſtion: "Whether the *revival* of the arts and ſciences has contributed to the refinement of manners?" Rouſſeau at firſt inclined to ſupport the affirmative. "This is the *pons aſinorum*, (ſays philoſopher, a friend of his) take the negative of the queſtion, and I'll promiſe you the greateſt ſucceſs." His diſcourſe *againſt* the ſciences, accordingly, having been found to be the beſt written, and replete with the deepeſt reaſoning, was publicly crowned with the approbation of the learned body. Never was a paradox ſupported with more eloquence: it was not however a new one; but he enriched it with all the advantages which either knowledge or genius could confer on it. Immediately after its appearance, he was with ſeveral opponents of his tenets, which he defended; and from one diſpute to another, he found himſelf involved in a formidable train of correſpondence, without having ever almoſt dreamed of ſuch oppoſition. From that period he decreaſed in happineſs as he increaſed in celebrity. His "Diſcourſe on the cauſes of inequality among mankind, and on the origin of ſocial compacts," a work full of almoſt unintelligible maxims and wild ideas, was written with a view to prove that mankind are equal; that they were born to live apart from each other; and that they have perverted the order of nature in forming ſocieties. He beſtows the higheſt praiſe on the ſtate of nature, and depreciates the idea of every ſocial compact. This diſcourſe, and eſpecially the dedication of it to the republic of Geneva, are the *chef d'œuvres* of that kind of eloquence, of which

the

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he ancients alone had given us any idea. By
ſenting this performance to the magiſtrates, he
s received again into his native country, and
ſtated in all the privileges and rights of a citi-
, after having with much difficulty prevailed
himſelf to abjure the Catholic religion. He
, however, returned and lived for ſome time
aris. He afterwards gave himſelf up to retire-
t, to eſcape the ſhafts of criticiſm, and fol-
the regimen which the ſtrangury, with which
as tormented, demanded of him. It is ow-
to this circumſtance, perhaps, that we have the
elegant works that have come from his pen.
Letter to M. d'Alembert on the deſign of e-
g a theatre at Geneva, written in his retire-
, and publiſhed in 1757, contains, along
ſome paradoxes, ſome very important and
handled truths. This letter firſt drew down
him the envy of Voltaire, and was the cauſe
indignities with which that author never
to load him. What is ſingular in him, is,
although ſo great an enemy to theatrical re-
ations himſelf, he cauſed a comedy to be
d, and in 1752 gave to the theatre a paſto-
The Village Conjuror), of which he compoſed
e poetry and muſic, both of them abound-
h ſentiment and elegance, and full of inno-
ral ſimplicity. His *Dictionary of Muſic* af-
ſeveral excellent articles; ſome of them,
r, are very inaccurate. Rouſſeau, ſoon
Village Conjuror, publiſhed a Letter *on*
Muſic, or rather *againſt* French muſic,
with as much freedom as livelineſs. The
ated partiſans of French comedy treated
h as much fury as if he had conſpired againſt
e. He was inſulted, menaced, and lam-
. Harmonic fanaticiſm went even to hang
in effigy. That intereſting and tender
hich is ſo conſpicuous in the Village Con-
imates ſeveral letters in the *New Heloiſa*,
arts, 1761, 12mo. This epiſtolary ro-
of which the plot is ill-managed, and the
ment bad, has its beauties as well as its
Some of the letters are indeed admi-
om the force and warmth of expreſſion,
effervescence of ſentiments, from the
rity of ideas which always characteriſe
n carried to its height. But why is ſo
a letter ſo often accompanied with an
rtant digreſſion, an inſipid criticiſm, or
ntradicting paradox? When he wiſhes to
his ſtyle, and adopt that of the ſpeaker,
eaſily be obſerved that he does not long
it, and every attempt embarraſſes the au-
d cools the reader. In the Heloiſa, Rouſ-
unlucky talent of rendering every thing
matical, appears very conſpicuous; as in
uments in favour of and againſt duelling,
afford an apology for ſuicide, and a juſt
nation of it: in his facility in palliating the
of adultry, and his very ſtrong reaſons to
it abhorred: on the one hand, in declama-
againſt ſocial happineſs; on the other, in
rts in favour of humanity; here, in violent
dies againſt philoſophers; there, by a rage
opting their opinions: the exiſtence of God
ed by ſophiſtry, and Atheiſts confuted by
ſt irrefragable arguments; the Chriſtian re-
ligion combated by the moſt ſpecious objections, and celebrated with the moſt ſublime eulogies. His *Emilius* afterwards made more noiſe than the New Heloiſa. This moral romance, which was publiſhed in 1762, in 4 vols. 12mo, treats chiefly of education. Rouſſeau wiſhed to follow nature in every thing; and though his ſyſtem in ſeveral places differs from received ideas, it deſerves in many reſpects to be put in practice, and with ſome neceſſary modifications it has been ſo. See our article EDUCATION. His precepts are expreſſed with the force and dignity of a mind full of the leading truths of morality. His ſtyle is peculiar to himſelf. What is moſt to be lamented is, that in wiſhing to educate a young man as a Chriſtian, he has filled his 3d volume with objections againſt Chriſtianity. He has indeed given a very ſublime eulogium on the goſpel, and an affecting portrait of its divine Author: but the miracles, and the prophecies which ſerve to eſtabliſh his miſſion, he attacks without the leaſt reſerve. Admitting only natural religion, he weighs every thing in the balance of reaſon; and this reaſon, being falſe, leads him into dilemmas very unfavourable to his own repoſe and happineſs. He dwelt from 1754 in a ſmall houſe in the country near Montmorenci; a retreat which he owed to the generoſity of a farmer general. The cauſe of his love for this retirement was, according to himſelf, "that invincible ſpirit of liberty which nothing could conquer, and in competition with which honours, fortune, and reputation, could not ſtand. It is true, this deſire of liberty has occaſioned leſs pride than lazineſs; but this indolence is inconceivable. Every thing ſtartles it; the moſt inconſiderable reciprocalities of ſocial life are to it inſupportable. A word to ſpeak, a letter to write, a viſit to pay, things neceſſary to be done, are to me puniſhments. Hear my reaſons. Although the ordinary intercourſe between mankind be odious to me, intimate friendſhip appears to me very dear; becauſe there are no mere ceremonies due to it; it agrees with the heart, and all is accompliſhed. Hear, again, why I have always ſhunned kindneſſes ſo much; becauſe every act of kindneſs requires a grateful mind, and I find my heart ungrateful, from this alone, that gratitude is a duty. Laſtly, that kind of felicity which is neceſſary for me, is not ſo much to do that which I wiſh, as not to do what I wiſh not to do." Rouſſeau enjoyed this felicity, which he ſo much wiſhed, in his retirement. Without entirely adopting that too rigorous mode of life purſued by the ancient Cynics, he deprived himſelf of every thing that could in any meaſure add fuel to this wiſhed-for luxury, which is ever the companion of riches, and which inverts even cuſtom itſelf. He might have been happy in this retreat, if he could have forgot this *public*, which he affected to deſpiſe; but his deſire after a great name got the better of his ſelf-love, and it was this thirſt after reputation which made him introduce ſo many dangerous paragraphs into his Emilius. The French parliament condemned this book in 1762, and entered a criminal proſecution againſt the author, which forced him to make a precipitate retreat. He went to his native country, which ſhut its gates upon him. Proſcribed in his birth place, he found

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found an asylum in Neufchatel. His first care was to defend his Emilius against the Abp. of Paris, by whom it had been anathematised. In 1763 he published a letter, in which he re-exhibits all his errors, set off with the most animated display of eloquence, and in the most insidious manner. In this letter he describes himself as "more vehement than celebrated in his researches, but sincere, on the whole, even against himself; simple and good, but sensible and weak; often doing evil, and always loving good; united by friendship, never by circumstances, and keeping more to his opinions than to his interest; requiring nothing of men, and not wishing to be under any obligation to them; yielding no more to their prejudices than to their will, and preserving his own as free as his reason; disputing about religion without licentiousness; loving neither impiety nor fanaticism, but disliking precise people more than bold spirits," &c. &c. *Two letters of La Montagne* appeared soon after; but this work, far less eloquent, and full of envious diversions on the magistrates and clergy of Geneva, irritated the Protestant ministers without effecting a reconciliation with the Romish clergy. Rousseau had solemnly abjured the latter religion in 1753, and yet had then resolved to live in France, a Catholic country. The Protestant clergy were not fully reconciled, and the protection of the king of Prussia, to whom Neufchatel belonged, was not sufficient to rescue him from that obloquy which the minister of Monticrs-Travers, the village to which he had retired, had excited against him. He preached against Rousseau, and his sermons produced an uproar among the people. On the night between the 6th and 7th Sept. 1765, some fanatics, excited by wine and the declamations of their minister, threw some stones at the windows of the Genevan philosopher, who, fearing new insults, in vain sought an asylum in Bern. As this canton was connected with Geneva, they did not allow him to remain in the city. Neither his broken state of health, nor the approach of winter, could soften the hearts of these obdurate Spartans. In vain, did he even beseech them to shut him up in prison till the spring; even this favour was denied him. Obliged to set out on a journey, in a very inclement season, he reached Strasbourg in a very destitute situation. He received from marshal de Contades every accommodation dictated by generosity, humanity, and compassion. He waited there till the weather was milder, when he went to Paris, where Mr Hume then was, who proposed taking him with him to England. After some stay in Paris, Rousseau set out for London in 1766. Hume, much affected with his situation and his misfortunes, procured for him a very agreeable settlement. Our Genevan philosopher was not, however, long satisfied with this new place. He did not make such an impression on the minds of the English as he had done on the French. His free disposition, his obdurate and melancholy temper, was deemed no singularity in England. He was there looked upon as an ordinary man, and the periodical prints were filled with satires against him. They published a forged letter from the king of Prussia, ridiculing the principles and conduct of this new *Diogenes*. Rousseau imagined there was a plot between Hume and some philosophers in France, to destroy his fame and repose. He sent a letter to him filled with the most abusive expressions, and reproaching him for his conduct. From this time he looked upon Hume as a wicked and perfidious person, who had brought him to England with no other view than to expose him to public ridicule. He imagined that the English philosopher, amidst all his kindnesses, had something disagreeable in his manner of expressing them. The bad health of Rousseau, a strong and melancholy imagination, a nice sensibility, a jealous disposition, joined to philosophic vanity, cherished by the false insinuations of his governess, who possessed an unbounded power over him; all these together might prepossess him with unfavourable sentiments of some innocent freedoms his benefactor might have taken with him. Meanwhile, these false conjectures and probabilities ought never to have had the weight with an honest mind to withdraw itself from its friend and benefactor. The Genevan philosopher, however, returned to France. In passing through Amiens, the magistrates willing to confer on him some mark of their esteem; which he absolutely refused. His disordered imagination viewed these flattering civilities as nothing else than insults, such as were lavished on Sancho in the island of Barataria. But these wrongs did not prevent him from aspiring after a residence in Paris, where he was more looked on as a spectacle than in any other place whatever. On the 1st of July 1770, Rousseau appeared, for the first time, at the Regency coffee-house, dressed in ordinary clothing, having for some time previously worn an Armenian habit. It was first thought a person under sentence of imprisonment should wish to live in so public a manner, in the very place where his sentence was in force against him, and of which he had spoken so much ill. His friends procured for him, however, liberty of staying, on condition that he should neither write on religion nor politics: he kept his word: he wrote none at all. He was contented with living in a calm philosophical manner, enjoying the society of a few tried friends, shunning the company of the great, appearing to have given up his whimsies, and affecting neither the character of a philosopher nor a *bel esprit*. He died of an apoplexy at Ermenon-ville, belonging to the marquis de Girardin, about ten leagues from Paris, July 2, 1778, aged 66. This nobleman has erected to his memory a very plain monument in a grove of poplars, which constitutes part of his beautiful gardens. On his tomb is inscribed in French—"*Here repose the Man of Nature, and of Truth.*" The curious who visit this tomb may see the cloak which the Genevan philosopher wore. Rousseau, during his stay near Paris, married Mad. le Vasseur, his governess, a woman who, without beauty or talents, had gained over him a great ascendancy. She waited on him in health and in sickness: But, as if she had been afraid of possessing him alone, she drove from his presence by the most perfidious insinuations, all those who came to entertain him; and when Rousseau would not dismiss them, she prevented their return by invariably refusing them admittance. By

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nerous the more eaſily led her huſband into inconſiſtencies of conduct, which the originality of his character as well as of his opinions ſo much contributed to aſſiſt. He did not incline to aſſociate with any perſon; and as this method of living and living was uncommon, it procured him a name, and he diſplayed a kind of fantaſticalneſs in his behaviour and his writings. Like Diogenes, he united ſimplicity of manners with the pride of genius; and a large ſtock of indolence, with an extreme ſenſibility, ſerved to render his character ſtill more uncommon. "An independent mind (ſays he), terrified at every application, a warm, bilious, and irritable temperament, which alſo in a high degree to every thing that could affect it, appear not poſſible to be united in the ſame perſon: and yet theſe two contrarieties compoſe the chief of mine. An active life has no charms for me. I would a hundred times rather chuſe to be idle than to do any thing againſt my will; and I have a hundred times thought that I could live not amiſs in the Baſtile, provided I had nothing to do but juſt continue there." He has exaggerated his misfortunes to himſelf as much as to others. Yet he was charitable, generous, ſober, juſt, contenting himſelf with what was purely neceſſary, and refuſing the means which might have procured him wealth and offices. When he is ſpeaking of the duties of mankind, of the principles neceſſary to our happineſs, of the reſpect we owe to ourſelves and to our equals, it is with a copiouſneſs, a charm, and an impetuoſity that could only proceed from the heart. He was acquainted at an early age with the works of the Greek and Roman authors; and the republican virtues there held forth to view, the rigorous ſentiments of Cato, Brutus, &c. carried him beyond the limits of a ſimple eſtimation of them. He admired every thing in the ancients, and ſaw nothing in his contemporaries but enervated minds and degenerated bodies. His ideas about politics were as much as eccentric as his paradoxes about religion. Some reckon his *Social Compact*, which Voltaire calls the *Unſocial Compact*, the greateſt effort his genius produced. Others find it full of contradictions, errors, and cynical paſſages, obſcure, deranged, and by no means worthy of his ſhining pen. There are ſeveral other ſmall pieces written by him, to be found in a collection of his works publiſhed in 25 vols. 8vo and 12mo, to which there is appended a very inſignificant ſupplement in 6 vols. The moſt uſeful and moſt important truths in this collection are picked out of his *Thoughts*; in which the confident ſophiſt and impious author diſappear, and nothing is offered to the reader but the eloquent writer and contemplative moraliſt. There were found in his port-folio his *Confeſſions*, in 12 books; the firſt ſix of which were publiſhed. "In the preface to theſe memoirs, which abound with characters well drawn, and written with warmth, energy, and elegance, he declaims (ſays M. Palliſſot) like a peeviſh miſanthrope, who boldly introduces himſelf on the ruins of the world, to declare to mankind, whom he ſuppoſes aſſembled on theſe ruins, that, in that innumerable multitude, none could dare to ſay *I am better than that man*. This affectation of ſeeing himſelf alone in the univerſe, and of continually directing every thing to himſelf, may appear to ſome moroſe minds a fanatiſm of pride, of which we have no examples, at leaſt ſince the time of Cardan." But this is not the only blame which may be attached to the author of the Confeſſions. Under the pretext of ſincerity, he diſhonours the character of his benefactreſs Lady Warren. There are inuendos no leſs offenſive againſt celebrated characters, which ought to have been ſuppreſſed. M. Sennebier, author of the Literary Hiſtory of Geneva, ſays, "His Confeſſions appear to me to be a very dangerous book, and paint Rouſſeau in ſuch colours as we would never have ventured to apply to him. The excellent analyſes which we meet with of ſome ſentiments, and the delicate anatomy which he makes of ſome actions, are not ſufficient to counterbalance the deteſtable matter which is found in them, and the unceaſing obloquies everywhere to be met with." Rouſſeau, in what he ſays of himſelf, makes ſuch acknowledgments as certainly prove that there were *better* men than he, if we may judge him from the firſt ſix books of his memoirs, where nothing appears but his vices. They ought not perhaps to be ſeparated from the ſix laſt books, where he ſpeaks of the virtues which make reparation for them; or, rather, the work ought not to have been publiſhed at all, if in his Confeſſions he injured the public manners, both by the baſeneſs of the vices he diſcloſed, and by the manner in which he united them with the virtues. The other pieces in this new edition of his works are, 1. *The Reveries of a Solitary Wanderer*, being a journal of the latter part of his life. In this he confeſſes, that he liked better to ſend his children into hoſpitals deſtined for orphans, than to take upon himſelf the charge of their maintenance and education; and endeavours to palliate this error, which nothing can exculpate. 2. *Conſiderations upon the Government of Poland.* 3. *The adventures of Lord Edward*, a novel, being a kind of ſupplement to the New Heloiſa. 4. *Various Memoirs and Fugitive Pieces*, with a great number of letters. 5. *Emilia and Sophia.* 6. *The Levite of Ephraim*, a poem in proſe, in 4 cantos; written in a truly ancient ſtyle of ſimplicity. 7. *Letters to Sara.* 8. *An Opera and a Comedy.* 9. *Tranſlations of the firſt book of Tacitus's Hiſtory, of the Epiſode of Olinda and Sophronia, taken from Taſſo*, &c. &c. Like all the other writings of Rouſſeau, we find in theſe poſthumous pieces many admirable and ſome uſeful things; but they alſo abound with contradictions, paradoxes, and ideas very unfavourable to religion. In his letters eſpecially we ſee a man chagrined at misfortunes, which he never attributes to himſelf, ſuſpicious of every body about him, calling and believing himſelf a lamb in the midſt of wolves. This is the reflection of M. Servant, who knew him, aſſiſted him, and careſſed him during his retreat at Grenoble in 1768. This magiſtrate, having been very attentive in obſerving his character, ought the rather to be believed, as he inſpected it without malice, envy, or reſentment, and only from the concern he had for this philoſopher, whom he loved and admired.

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(4.) Rousseau, or Rouseau. See Rousbau.

ROUSSELART, a town of France, in the dep. of the North, and ci-devant prov. of French Flanders; 10 miles NE. of Ypres, and 20 SE. of Oftend. Lon. 3. 0. E. Lat. 50. 58. N.

ROUSSILLON, a late province of France, 50 miles long and 25 broad. It was bounded on the E. by the Mediterranean, on the W. by Cerdagna, on the N. by Lower Languedoc, and on the S. by Catalonia, from which it is feparated by the Pyrenees. See Pyrenees, Eastern.

(1.) * ROUT. *n. f.* [*rot*, Dutch.] 1. A clamorous multitude; a rabble; a tumultuous crowd.—

Befides the endlefs *routs* of wretched thralls,
Which thither were aſſembled. *Spenſer.*

A *rout* of people there aſſembled were,
Of every ſort and nation under ſky. *Spenſer.*

Rebellion
Came like itſelf in baſe and abject *routs*,
Led on by bloody youth. *Shak.*

—Farmers were to forfeit their holds in caſe of unlawful retainer, or partaking in *routs* and unlawful aſſemblies. *Bacon.*—Such a tacit league is againſt ſuch *routs* and ſhrowls. *Bacon.*—

Nor do I name of men the common *rout*. *Milt.*

Fancy, wild dame, with much laſcivious pride,
By twin chameleons drawn, does gaily ride,
Her coach there follows, and throngs round about,
Of ſhapes and airy forms an endleſs *rout*. *Cowley.*

The mad ungovernable *rout*,
Full of confuſion and the fumes of wine,
Lov'd ſuch variety and antick tricks. *Roſcom.*

The doctor faſten'd by the eyes
At Charing-croſs among the *rout*,
Where painted monſters are hung out. *Swift.*

2. [*Route*, Fr.] Confuſion of an army defeated or diſperſed.—

Thy army,
Diſpers'd in *rout*, betook them all to fly. *Daniel.*

Deformed *rout*
Enter'd, and foul diſorder. *Milton's Par. Loſt.*

(2.) Rout, in law, is applied to an aſſembly of perſons going forcibly to commit ſome unlawful act, whether they execute it or not. See Riot.

(3.) Rout, in faſhionable life, a numerous meeting of ladies and gentlemen at the expence of the inviter, with muſic, dancing, and other entertainments.

(1.) * *To* Rout. *v. a.* To diſſipate and put into confuſion by defeat.—The next way to end the wars with him, and to *rout* him quite, ſhould be to keep him from invading of thoſe countries adjoining. *Spenſer on Ireland.*—That party of the king's horſe that charged the Scots, ſo totally *routed* and defeated their whole army, that they fled. *Clarendon.*

(2.) * *To* Rout. *v. n.* To aſſemble in clamours and tumultuous crowds.—The meaner ſort *routed* together, and ſuddenly aſſailing the earl in his houſe, ſlew him. *Bacon.*

(1.) * ROUTE. *n. f.* [*route*, Fr.] Road; way.—

Wide thro' the furzy field their *route* they take.
Gay.

(2.) Route is particularly uſed for that courſe which military forces take. It is alſo uſed for the defeat and flight of an army.

ROUTER, a town of England, in Derbyſhire, in the High Peak.

ROUX, Auguſtine, M. D. a learned French phyſician, born at Bourdeaux in 1726, and educated in that univerſity, of which he became a profeſſor, and afterwards profeſſor of medicine at Paris. He wrote *Annales Typographiques*, from 1757 till 1762; and continued Vendermond's *Journal de Medicine*, from July 1754 to June 1775, when he died.

(1.) * ROW. *n. f.* [*reih*, Germ.] A rank or file; a number of things ranged in a line—

Lips never part, but that they ſhow
Of precious pearl the double *row*. *Sidney.*

After them all dancing on a *row*,
The comely virgins came with garlands dight,
As freſh as flowers. *Spenſer.*

Where any *row*
Of fruit trees, overwoody, reach'd too far
Their pamper'd boughs. *Milton's Par. Loſt.*

A triple mounted *row* of pillars, laid
On wheels. *Milton.*

Where the bright ſeraphim in burning *row*
Their loud uplifted angel trumpets blow. *Addiſon.*

A new born wood of various lines there grew,
And all the flouriſhing letters ſtand in *rows*. *Cowley.*

The victor honour'd with a nobler veſt,
Where gold and purple ſtrive in equal *rows*. *Dryden.*

Why bows the ſidebox from its inmoſt *row*

(2.) Row, in geography, a pariſh of Scotland in Dumbartonſhire, about 14 miles long and 4 broad. The greateſt part of it is hilly; towards the NE. mountainous. The ſoil is light, and by cultivation fertile, in barley, oats, peaſe, &c. The air is ſharp, but healthy. The ſea coaſt extends about 12 miles, along the Frith of Clyde, Loch Long, and Gairloch. Salmon, haddocks, herrings, whitings, flounders, &c. are caught. Whales ſometimes run a ground on the coaſt, as well as ſeals and porpoiſes. The population, in 1755, was about 1000: increaſe 147, ſince 1755. The number of ſheep was about 4,750.

(1.) * *To* Row. *v. n.* [*rowan*, Saxon.] To impel a veſſel in the water by oars.—He ſaw them labouring in *rowing*. *Mark*, vi. 48.—Some of their troughs or canoes were ſo great, that above twenty men have been found *rowing* in one. *Abbot.*—

The bold Britons then ſecurely *row'd*. *Waller.*

—The watermen turned their barge, and *rowed* ſoftly. *Dryden.*

(2.) * *To* Row. *v. a.* To drive or help forward by oars.—

The ſwan *rows* her ſtate with oary feet.

ROWAN, a populous county of N. Carolina, bounded on the N. by Iredell, E. by Guildford, S. by Cabarrus, and SW. by Lincoln counties. In 1795, it contained 14,086 citizens, and 1742 ſlaves. Salisbury is the capital.

(1.) ROWANELLY, a river of Ceylon, in Candy.

(2.) Rowanelly, a populous and commercial town of Ceylon, in the kingdom of Candy, which was taken by the Britiſh under Capt. Pollock, on the 29th Sept. 1802; with all its ſtores, magazines, artillery, ammunition, and proviſions, which

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ing of Candy had long been accumulating, for a grand expedition againſt the Britiſh, beſides his palace, which he erected in a very ſumptuous ſtyle. This palace, with 11,000 houſes, were burnt.

ROWCESTER, a town of England, in Staffordſhire, on the NE. of Uttoxeter, near the confluence of the Dove and the Churnel.

(1.) ROWE, Nicholas, an eminent Engliſh poet, deſcended of an ancient family in Devonſhire, was the ſon of John Rowe, Eſq. ſerjeant at law, and was born at Little Berkford, Bedfordſhire, in 1673. He acquired a complete taſte of the claſſic authors under the famous Dr Buſby in Weſtminſter ſchool; and poetry was his early and darling ſtudy. His father, who deſigned him for his own profeſſion, entered him a ſtudent in the Middle Temple. He made remarkable advances in the ſtudy of the law; but the love of the belles lettres and poetry ſtopt him in his career. His firſt tragedy, *the Ambitious Stepmother*, meeting with univerſal applauſe, he laid aſide all thoughts of the law. He afterwards produced ſeveral tragedies; but he valued himſelf chiefly upon his *Tamerlane*. The others are, the *Fair Penitent*, *Ulyſſes*, the *Royal Convert*, *Jane Shore*, and *Lady Jane Gray*. He alſo wrote a poem called *Biter*, and ſeveral poems upon different ſubjects, which have been publiſhed under the title of *Miſcellaneous Works*, in one volume, as his dramatic works have been in two. "Rowe is chiefly to be conſidered (ſays Dr Johnſon) in the light of a tragic writer and a tranſlator. In his attempt at ſatire, he failed ſo ignominiouſly, that his *Biter* is not inſerted in his works; and his occaſional verſes are rarely worthy of either praiſe or cenſure. The conſtruction of his dramas there is not much to blame: he is not a nice obſerver of the unities. Nor does he much affect the auditor, except in *Jane Shore*, who is always ſeen and heard with pity. Alicia is a character of empty noiſe, with no reſemblance to real ſorrow or to natural madneſs. Whence then has Rowe his reputation? From the eaſineſs and propriety of ſome of his ſcenes, the elegance of his diction, and the ſuavity of his verſe. He ſeldom moves either pity or terror, but he often elevates the ſentiment; he ſeldom pierces the breaſt, but he always delights the ear, and often improves the underſtanding." Being an admirer of Shakeſpeare, he gave the public an edition of his plays; to which he prefixed an account of that great man's life. But the moſt conſiderable of Mr Rowe's performances was his tranſlation of Lucan's *Pharſalia*, which he juſt lived to finiſh, but it did not appear in print till about ten years after his death. Meanwhile, the purſuit of poetry and books did not make him unfit for buſineſs; for nobody applied cloſer to it when buſineſs required. The Duke of Queenſberry, then ſecretary of ſtate, made him ſecretary for foreign affairs. After the Duke's death all avenues ſeemed ſtopped to his preferment; and during the reſt of queen Ann's reign he paſſed his time in retirement. On the acceſſion of George I. he was made poet laureat, and one of the land ſurveyors of the cuſtoms in the port of London. The prince of Wales conferred on him the clerkſhip of his council; and the lord chancellor Parker made him his ſecretary for the preſentations. He did not enjoy his new promotions long, for he died Dec. 6, 1718, aged 45. He was twice married, and had a ſon by his firſt wife, and a daughter by his ſecond. He was a handſome, genteel man; and his mind was as amiable as his perſon. He was interred in Weſtminſter abbey, in the Poet's Corner, oppoſite to Chaucer.

(2, 3.) ROWE, Elizabeth, an Engliſh lady, eminent for her excellent writings, born at Ilcheſter in Somerſetſhire, in 1674. She was the daughter of worthy parents, Mr Walter Singer and Mrs Elizabeth Portnel. She received the firſt ſerious impreſſions of religion as ſoon as ſhe was capable of it. She had a taſte for both painting and poetry, and was very fond of muſic. But poetry was her favourite employment, her diſtinguiſhing excellence: ſo that even her proſe is all poetical. In 1696, a collection of her poems was publiſhed. Her paraphraſe on the xxxviiith chapter of Job was written at the requeſt of Bp. Ken. The hon. Mr Thynne taught her the French and Italian languages. Her merit, with the charms of her perſon and converſation, had procured her many admirers. Among others, the famous Mr Prior made his addreſſes to her. But Mr THOMAS ROWE was the happy man. He was honourably deſcended; and his ſuperior genius, and inſatiable thirſt after knowledge, were conſpicuous in his earlieſt years. He had formed a deſign to compile the lives of all the illuſtrious perſons in antiquity omitted by Plutarch; which, indeed, he partly executed. Eight lives were publiſhed ſince his deceaſe. They were tranſlated into French by the abbé Bellenger in 1734. He ſpoke with eaſe and fluency; had a frank and benevolent temper, an inexhauſtible fund of wit, and a communicative diſpoſition. Such was the man who, charmed with the perſon, character, and writings, of our authoreſs, married her in 1710, and made it his ſtudy to repay the felicity with which ſhe crowned his life. Too intenſe ſtudy broke his health, and threw him into a conſumption, which put a period to his valuable life in May, 1715, when he was but juſt 28. Mrs Rowe wrote a beautiful elegy on his death; and continued to the laſt moments of her life to expreſs the higheſt veneration and affection for his memory. Soon after his deceaſe, ſhe indulged her inclination for ſolitude, by retiring to Frome, in Somerſetſhire, near which great part of her eſtate lay. In this receſs ſhe compoſed the moſt celebrated of her works, *Friendſhip in Death*, and *Letters Moral and Entertaining*. In 1736, ſhe publiſhed, *The Hiſtory of Joſeph*; a poem written in her younger years. She died of an apoplexy, Feb. 20, 1736-7. In her cabinet were found letters to ſeveral of her friends, which ſhe had ordered to be delivered after her deceaſe. The Rev. Dr Iſaac Watts, agreeably to her requeſt, reviſed and publiſhed, in 1737, her *Devout Exerciſes of the Heart in Meditation and Soliloquy, Praiſe and Prayer*; and, in 1739, her *Miſcellaneous Works*, in proſe and verſe, were publiſhed in 2 vols. 8vo, with an account of her life and writings prefixed. As to her perſon, ſhe was not a regular beauty, yet poſſeſſed a large ſhare of the charms of her ſex. She was of a moderate ſtature, her hair of a fine colour, her eyes of a darkiſh gray inclining to blue, and full of fire. Her complexion was very fair, and a natural bluſh glowed in her cheeks. She ſpoke gracefully; her voice was exceedingly ſweet

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and harmonious; and she had a softness in her aspect which inspired love, yet not without some mixture of that awe and veneration which distinguished sense and virtue, apparent in the countenance, are wont to create.

(4.) Rowe, John, an English divine of the 17th century, born at Crediton, in Devonshire; educated at Oxford, and ordained pastor at Witney, A room in that town giving way while a company of players were performing, whereby some of them were killed, he printed 3 sermons on the occasion, which rendered him very popular. He was settled, as a preacher in Westminster Abbey, but was ejected in 1662, and died in 1677.

(5.) Rowe, in geography, a township of Massachusetts, in Hampshire county: containing 443 citizens, in 1795.

(1.) * ROWEL. *n. f.* [*rouelle*, Fr.] 1. The points of a spur turning on an axis.—

He gave his able horse on the head,
And, bending forward, struck his agile heels
Against the panting sides of his poor jade
Up to the *rowel* head. *Shak. Henry* IV.

A rider like myself, who ne'er wore *rowel*
Nor iron on his heel. *Shak. Cymbeline.*

—A mullet is the *rowel* of a spur, and hath never but five points; a star hath six. *Peacham.*—

He spurr'd his fiery steed
With goring *rowels*. *Dryden.*

2. A seton; a roll of hair or silk put into a wound to hinder it from healing, and provoke a discharge.

(2.) Rowel, among farriers, § 1, *def.* 2. See Farriery.

* *To* Rowel. *v. a.* To pierce through the skin, and keep the wound open by a rowel.—*Rowel* the horse in the cheft. *Mortimer.*

* ROWEN. *n. f.* *Rowen* is a field kept up till after Michaelmas, that the corn left on the ground may sprout into green. *Notes on Tusser.*—

Then spare it for *rowen*, till Michel be past.
Tusser.

—Turn your cows, that give milk, into your *rowens*, till snow comes. *Mortimer.*

ROWENA, the daughter of Hengist the Saxon, and wife of the British king, Vortigern. See England, § 13.

* ROWER. *n. f.* [from *row.*] One that manages an oar.—

Four gallies first, which equal *rowers* bear,
Advancing in the wat'ry lists, appear. *Dryden.*

—The bishop of Salisbury ran down with the stream thirty miles in an hour, by the help of but one *rower*. *Addison.*

(1.) ROWLEY, a monk who is said to have flourished at Bristol in the 15th century, and to have been an author voluminous and elegant. Of the poems attributed to him, and published some time ago, various opinions have been entertained, which we have noticed elsewhere. They seem now to be almost forgotten. See Chatterton.

(2.) Rowley, William, a dramatic writer of the 3d rank, who lived in the reign of Charles I. and was educated at the university of Cambridge. He was intimate with all the principal wits and poetical geniuses of that age, by whom he was well beloved, and with some of whom he joined in their writings. Wood styles him "the ornament, for wit and ingenuity, of Pembroke-hall, in Cambridge." In a word, he was a great benefactor to the English stage, having, exclusive of his aid lent to Middleton, Day, Heywood, Webster, &c. in us five plays of his own composing, and one in which even the immortal Shakespeare afforded him some assistance.

(3.) Rowley, Samuel, another English dramatic writer, cotemporary with the preceding. He published two historical plays.

(4.) Rowley, in geography, a township of Massachusetts, in Essex county.

ROWNING, John, an ingenious English mathematician and philosopher, born in 1699. He was fellow of Magdalen College, Cambridge, afterwards rector of Anderby in Lincolnshire. He was a constant attendant at the Spalding Soc and was a man of a philosophical habit, though a cheerful disposition. He had a peculiar ge for mechanical contrivances. In 1738 he pu at Cambridge, *A Compendious System of Na Philosophy*, in 2 vols 8vo; reprinted in 1745. wrote also two pieces in the *Philos. Trans.* vi A Description of a Barometer, wherein the S of Variation may be increased at pleasure; vo p. 39. And, 2. Directions for making a Ma for finding the Roots of Equations univer with the Manner of using it; vol. 60. p. 240. died in Carey-street, London, Nov. 1771, age

ROXALL, two small towns of England: the Isle of Wight, in E. Medina: 2. in Wa shire, NW. of Warwick.

ROXANA, a Persian princess, daughter o rius, who, being taken prisoner by Alexand Great, captivated her conqueror, who ma her. After his death she behaved with great elty, for which she was put to death by Cass See Macedon, § 16, 19.

ROXAS, mountains of Hispaniola, in th trict of Bayaguna, towards the E.

ROXBOROUGH, a township of Pen nia, in the county of Philadelphia.

(1.) ROXBURGH, a parish of Scotland, burghshire, about 8 miles long and 4 broa extremities, containing an area of 7000 The surface is flat and sloping; the soil loam. It is watered by the Tweed and th viot, whose banks are adorned with be plantations. The greater part is inclosed, high cultivation. The beauties of the scen this parish, particularly that part of it whic rounds the site of the ancient city of Rox exceed all description. The D. of Roxbu seat at *Fleurs*; and Sir George Maxwe *Spring-wood Park*; the Tweed and the T with their bridges, and the town of Kel add to the embellishment of the scenery. population, in 1796, was 840; increase 54 1755. There are two petrifying springs ne Tweed.

(2.) Roxburgh, an ancient city of Roxbu shire in the above parish, once famed for lence and magnificence, of which very few now remain. It stood on a rising ground, o site Kelso, at the W. end of a fertile plain, p sulated by the Tweed and the Teviot, near a nificent Cistertian monastery, founded by D I. At the point of the peninsula stood the o memorable in the Scottish history, as an objec frequ

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equent mortal contention between the Scots
d English; and before which K. James II. was
led by the burſting of a cannon. This caſtle
now entirely in ruins.

(1.) ROXBURGH, a modern village in the above
ſhh, 2 miles W. of the above ruins, pleaſantly
ted on the banks of the Teviot, on a declivity
the S. It is divided by a rivulet into the Up-
r and Nether towns; both of which contain a-
ne 200 inhabitants. The county courts are held
this village.

(2.) ROXBURGH, or } a county of Scotland, ſo
ROXBURGHSHIRE, } named from the above
ent city, called alſo TEVIOTDALE, from the
viot which runs through it; extending about
miles from E. to W. and 15 in breadth from
Engliſh border to the Blue Cairn in Lauder-
Moor; but of an irregular figure. It is
ded on the N. by Lauderdale and Berwick-
; on the E. and SE. by Northumberland and
berland; on the S. and SW. by Annandale;
on the W. by Dumfries and Selkirk-ſhires.
divided into 3 diſtricts, called TEVIOTDALE,
OLSDALE, and ESKDALE, from their chief
rs, the Teviot, Liddal, and Eſk. On the N.
W. the county is mountainous, and chiefly
propriated to paſture; but on the S. and E.
derably level and fertile. The whole abounds
the moſt romantic ſcenery, exhibiting the
appearance of hills, moſſes, rocks, and
ains, interſperſed with delightful fertile
s, through which run numerous rivers and
ts. Beſides the rivers above-mentioned, it
tered by the *Ale*, the *Kail*, the *Jed*, the *Rule*,
the *Slittrick*, all which run into the Tweed;
the *Hermitage*, *Tweeden*, *Tinnis*, *Kerſhope*, and
ttburn, which run into the Solway Frith; and
the TYNE and *Coquet*, which run into Eng-
, and fall into the ſea, the former at *Tyne-
th*, and the latter at *Coquet Iſle*. The chief
ntains are the CHEVIOT and *Cockraw Hills*,
h are ſituated in what was called the *Debate-
Lands*; from the property of them being of-
the ſubject of debate between the two king-
s, but finally adjudged to Scotland at the
. This county contains one royal borough,
EDBURGH; and ſeveral conſiderable towns,
ALSO, HAWICK, MELROSE, CASTLETOWN,
ROXBURGH. Roxburghſhire contains 31 pa-
es; the total population of which, between
1 and 1798, amounted to 31,273; and had
creaſed 747 ſince 1755. The population, how-
r, has decreaſed greatly ſince the Union. Be-
e the Union of the Crowns, while predatory wars
re frequent between the two kingdoms, 10,000
ſtemen, well armed and accoutred, could have
en raiſed in 24 hours. Even after that period,
d before the union of the kingdoms, the pro-
s of a very lucrative contraband trade, enriched
e people, and kept up the population. The
cent improvements, however, in cultivation,
manufactures, improvements in the breed of ſheep
d wool, and other arts of peace, are now ma-
ng up for theſe deficiencies, and increaſing the
opulation and proſperity of the borders of both
ngdoms, in a more rational way, without dan-
r of interruption and depredations from preda-
ry inroads on either ſide. This county ſends
one member to the Imperial Britiſh Parliament.
Beſides the gentlemen's houſes mentioned under
the pariſh (N° 1.) there are DRYBURGH ABBEY,
the ſeat of the E. of Buchan; *Mount Teviot*, a ſeat
of the marquis of Lothian; *Ancrum*, of Sir John
Scott, *Harden* of Mrs Scott, *Minto* and *Stobbs* of
the Eliotts, &c. There are many ancient forts and
caſtles; and the ancient Roman road, called the
Rugged Cauſeway, can be traced from Hounam to
the Tweed. The valued rent is 315,594l. 14s. 6d.
Scots; the real rent is eſtimated at 102,350l.
Sterling.

(1.) ROXBURY, a town of Maſſachuſetts,
in Norfolk county, one mile SW. of Boſton. The
Rev. John Elliot, ſtiled by Dr Morſe, "the A-
poſtle of the Indians," was the firſt miniſter who
ſettled here; he tranſlated the Bible and ſome o-
ther books into the Indian language, and founded
many religious ſocieties among the Indians.

(2.) ROXBURY, a townſhip of New Jerſey, in
Morris county.

(3.) ROXBURY, a townſhip of Vermont, in the
W. part of Orange county.

ROXBY, two ſmall towns of England: 1. in
Lincolnſhire, E. of Burton upon Trent: 2. in
Yorkſhire, near Pickering.

ROXENT, CAPE, or ROCK OF LISBON, a
mountain and remarkable promontory in Portugal,
ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, at the N. entrance
of the Tagus, 22 miles N. of Liſbon.

ROXEY, a town of Middleſex, near Harrow.

ROXHAM, a town of Lincolnſhire, near Sleaford.

ROXO, a cape of the iſland of Porto Rico,
on the SW. coaſt. Lon. 67. 53. W. Lat. 18. 11. N.

ROXOLANI, an ancient people of European
Sarmatia, who were very rebellious under the
Roman emperors. They inhabited part of what
is now called Ruſſia. See PHILOLOGY, *Sect.* XII.
and SARMATIA.

ROXTON, a town of England, in Bedford-
ſhire, E. of Bedford.

ROXWELL, a town of Eſſex, near Writtle.

(1.)* ROYAL. *adj.* [*roial*, Fr.] 1. Kingly; be-
longing to a king; becoming a king; regal.—

The *royal* ſtock of David. *Milton.*

The *royal* bow'rs
Of great Seleucia built by Grecian kings. *Milt.*

Of *royal* maids how wretched is the fate!
Granville.

2. Noble; illuſtrious.—

How doth that *royal* merchant, good Antonio? *Shak.*

(2.) ROYAL BAY, a bay of Antigua, on the N.
coaſt, SE. of Boon's Point.

(3.) ROYAL FAMILY. The firſt and moſt conſi-
derable of the king's royal family, regarded by the
laws of England, is the queen. 1. The queen of
England is either queen *regent*, queen *conſort*, or
queen *dowager*. The queen *regent*, *regnant*, or *ſo-
vereign*, is ſhe who holds the crown in her own
right; as Q. Mary I. and II. Q. Elizabeth, and Q.
Anne; and ſuch a one has the ſame powers, pre-
rogatives, rights, dignities, and duties, as if ſhe
had been a king. This is expreſsly declared by
ſtat. 1 Mar. I. ſt. 3. c. 1. But the queen *conſort*
is the wife of the reigning king; and ſhe by vir-
tue of her marriage is participant of divers pre-
rogative

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rogatives above women. And, firſt, ſhe is a public perſon, exempt and diſtinct from the king; and not, like other married women, ſo cloſely connected as to have loſt all legal or ſeparate exiſtence ſo long as the marriage continues. For the queen is of ability to purchaſe lands, to convey them, to make leaſes, to grant copyholds, and do other acts of ownerſhip, without the concurrence of her lord; which no other married woman can do: a privilege as old as the Saxon æra. She is alſo capable of taking a grant from the king, which no other wife is from her huſband. The queen of England has ſeparate courts and officers diſtinct from the king's; and her attorney and ſolicitor general are entitled to a place within the bar of his majeſty's courts, together with the king's counſel. She may likewiſe ſue and be ſued alone, without joining her huſband. She may alſo have a ſeparate property in goods as well as lands, and has a right to diſpoſe of them by will. In ſhort, ſhe is in all legal proceedings looked upon as a *feme ſole*, and not as a *feme covert*; as a ſingle, not as a married woman. She has alſo many exemptions, and minute prerogatives. She pays no toll; nor is ſhe liable to any amercement in any court. But, in general, unleſs where the law has expreſsly declared her exempted, ſhe is upon the ſame footing with other ſubjects; being the king's ſubject, and not his equal. The queen has alſo ſome pecuniary advantages, which form her a diſtinct revenue: as, 1. an ancient perquiſite called *queen gold*, or *aurum reginæ*, (ſee QUEEN GOLD;) but no ſuch payment is due for any aids granted to the king in parliament, or for fines impoſed by courts on offenders, or for voluntary preſents to the king, without any conſideration moving from him to the ſubject; nor for any ſale or contract whereby the preſent revenues or poſſeſſions of the crown are granted away or diminiſhed. The original revenue of our ancient queens, before and ſoon after the Conqueſt, ſeems to have conſiſted in certain reſervations or rents out of the demeſne lands of the crown, which were expreſsly appropriated to her majeſty, diſtinct from the king. It is frequent in domeſday-book, after ſpecifying the rent due to the crown, to add likewiſe the quantity of gold or other renders reſerved to the queen. Theſe were frequently appropriated to particular purpoſes; to buy wood for her majeſty's uſe, to purchaſe oil for lamps, or to furniſh her attire, &c. From the time of Henry II. downwards, it was regularly claimed and enjoyed by all the queen-conſorts of England till the death of Henry VIII; though, after the acceſſion of the Tudor family, the collecting of it ſeems to have been much neglected; and, there being no queen conſort afterwards till the acceſſion of James I., a period of near 60 years, its very nature and quantity then became a matter of doubt; and being referred by the king to the chief juſtices and chief baron, their report of it was ſo very unfavourable, that his conſort queen Anne, though ſhe claimed it, yet never thought proper to exact it. In 1635, 11 Car. I. a time fertile of expedients for raiſing money upon dormant precedents in our old records, the king, at the petition of his queen Henrietta Maria, iſſued out his writ for levying it; but afterwards purchaſed it of his conſort at the price of 10,000l. And when afterwards, at the Reſtoration, by the abolition of military tenures, and the fines conſequent upon them, the little that legally remained of this revenue was reduced to almoſt nothing at all. Another ancient perquiſite belonging to the queen-conſort mentioned by all our old writers, is this: that on the taking a whale on the coaſts, which is a royal fiſh, it ſhall be divided between the king and queen; the head only being the king's property, and the tail of it the queen's. But a ſturgeon was to be entirely the king's. The reaſon of this whimſical diviſion, as aſſigned by our ancient records, was, to furniſh the queen's wardrobe with whale-bone. But though the queen is in all reſpects a ſubject, yet, in point of the ſecurity of her life and perſon, ſhe is put upon the ſame footing with the king. It is equal treaſon (by the ſtat. 25 Edward III.) to imagine or compaſs the death of our lady the king's conſort, as of the king himſelf; and to violate or defile the queen-conſort, amounts to the ſame high crime; as well in the perſon committing the fact, as in the queen herſelf if conſenting. If, however, the queen be accuſed of any ſpecies of treaſon, ſhe ſhall (whether conſort or dowager) be tried by the peers of parliament, as queen Anne Boleyn was in 28 Hen. VIII. The huſband of a queen regnant, as prince George of Denmark to queen Anne, is her ſubject; and may be guilty of high treaſon againſt her; but, in the inferior of conjugal fidelity, he is not ſubjected to the ſame penal reſtrictions. For which the reaſon ſeems to be, that if a queen conſort is unfaithful to the royal bed, this may debaſe or baſtardize the heirs to the crown; but no ſuch danger can be conſequent on the infidelity of the huſband of a queen regnant. 2. As to a queen *dowager*. (ſee QUEEN, § 3.) But ſhe, though an alien born, ſhall be entitled to dower after the king's death, which no other alien is. A queen dowager who married again to a ſubject, doth not loſe her dignity, as peereſſes-dowager do when they marry commoners. For Katharine, queen dowager of Henry V. though ſhe married a private gentleman, Owen ap Meredith ap Theodore, commonly called *Owen Tudor*; yet, by the name of *Katharine queen of England*, maintained an action againſt the biſhop of Carliſle. And ſo the dowager queen Navarre marrying with Edmond the brother of Edward I. maintained an action of dower by the name of *queen of Navarre*. 3. The princeſs of Wales, or heir apparent to the crown, and conſort, and the princeſs royal, or eldeſt daughter of the king, are likewiſe peculiarly regarded by laws. For, by ſtat. 25 Edward III. to compaſs or conſpire the death of the former, or to violate the chaſtity of either of the latter, is as much high treaſon as to conſpire the death of the king, or violate the chaſtity of the queen. And this upon the ſame reaſon as was before given; becauſe the prince of Wales is next in ſucceſſion to the crown, and to violate his wife might taint the blood-royal with baſtardy; and the eldeſt daughter of the king is alſo alone inheritable to the crown on failure of iſſue male, and therefore more reſpected by the laws than any of her younger ſiſters. The heir apparent to the

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rown is uſually made prince of Wales and earl of
hester, by ſpecial creation and inveſtiture; but
ing the king's eldeſt ſon, he is by inheritance
uke of Cornwall. 4. The reſt of the royal fa-
ily may be conſidered in two different lights,
cording to the different ſenſes in which the
m *royal family* is uſed. The larger ſenſe in-
des all thoſe who are by any poſſibility inhe-
ible to the crown. Such, before the revolu-
, were all the deſcendants of William the Con-
or; who had branched into an amazing ex-
by intermarriages with the ancient nobility.
e the revolution and act of ſettlement, it
as the Proteſtant iſſue of the princeſs Sophia.
more confined ſenſe includes only thoſe who
a certain degree of propinquity to the reign-
prince, and to whom therefore the law pays an
dinary regard and reſpect; but after that de-
is paſt, they fall into the rank of ordinary ſub-
and are ſeldom conſidered any further unleſs
to the ſucceſſion upon failure of the nearer
. The younger ſons and daughters of the king,
ther branches of the royal family, who are
the immediate line of ſucceſſion, were there-
little further regarded by the ancient law,
to give them a certain degree of precedence
all peers and public officers as well eccle-
al as temporal. This is done by the ſtat. 31
VIII. c. 10. which enacts, that no perſon
the king's children ſhall preſume to fix or
lace at the ſide of the cloth of eſtate in the
ent chamber; and that certain great offi-
erein named ſhall have precedence above
es, except only ſuch as ſhall happen to be
ng's ſon, brother, uncle, nephew (which
ward Coke explains to ſignify grandſon or
or brother's or ſiſter's ſon. But under the
ption of the king's *children*, his *grandſons* are
be included, without having recourſe to
ard Coke's interpretation of *nephew*; and
e when king George II. created his grand-
ward, the 2d ſon of Frederick prince of
deceaſed, duke of York, and referred it to
houſe of Lords to ſettle his place and pre-
, they certified that he ought to have pre-
next to the late duke of Cumberland, the
ng's youngeſt ſon; and that he might
ſeat on the left hand of the cloth of eſtate.
ce, on the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty,
royal perſonages ceaſed to take place as
ildren, and ranked only as the *brother* and
of the king, they alſo left their ſeats on the
of the cloth of eſtate; ſo that when the duke
ceſter, his majeſty's ſecond brother took
s in the Houſe of Peers, he was placed on
pper end of the earl's bench (on which the
uſually ſit) next to his royal highneſs the
of York. And in 1717, upon a queſtion
d to all the judges by king George I. it was
ed, by the opinion of ten againſt the other
that the education and care of all the king's
children, while minors, did belong of right
majeſty as king of this realm, even during
father's life. But they all agreed, that the
and approbation of their marriages, when
s up, belonged to the king their grandfa-
And the judges have more recently con-
d in opinion, that this care and approba-
tion extend alſo to the preſumptive heir of the crown; though to what other branches of the royal family the ſame did extend, they did not find preciſely determined. The moſt frequent inſtances of the crown's interpoſition go no further than nephews and nieces: but examples are not wanting of its reaching more diſtant collaterals. By ſtatute 12 Geo. III. c. 11. no deſcendant of the body of king George II. (other than the iſſue of princeſſes married into foreign families) is capable of contracting matrimony, without the previous conſent of the king ſignified under the great ſeal; and any marriage contracted without ſuch a conſent is void. Provided, that ſuch of the ſaid deſcendants as are not above 25, may after a 12 month's notice given to the king's privy council, contract and ſolemnize marriage without the conſent of the crown: unleſs both Houſes of Parliament ſhall, before the expiration of the ſaid year, expreſsly declare their diſapprobation of ſuch intended marriage. And all perſons ſolemnizing, aſſiſting, or being preſent at any prohibited marriage, ſhall incur the penalties of the ſtatute of *præmunire*.

(4.) ROYAL FORT, a fort of St George's in Grenada; which, formerly gave name to that town.

(5.) ROYAL ISLE, a fertile iſland of N. America, in the St Lawrence; 60 miles below lake Ontario. The French had a fort on it, which was taken by Gen. Amherſt in 1760.

(6.) ROYAL NAVY. See MARINE, § 3, 7; and NAVY, § 1—6.

(7.) ROYAL OAK, a fair ſpreading tree at Boſcobel, in the pariſh of Donnington in Staffordſhire, the boughs whereof were once covered with ivy; in the thick of which king Charles II. ſat in the day-time with colonel Careleſs, and in the night lodged in Boſcobel houſe: ſo that they are miſtaken who ſpeak of it as an old hollow oak; it being then a gay flouriſhing tree, ſurrounded with many more. The remains thereof are now fenced in with a handſome wall, with this inſcription in gold letters: *Feliciſſimam arborem, quam in aſylum potentiſſimi regis Caroli II. Deus op. max. per quam reges regnant, hic creſcere voluit*, &c.

(8.) ROYAL RIVER, a river of the United States, in Cumberland county, Maine, which runs into Caſco Bay.

(9.) ROYAL SOCIETY. See SOCIETY.

* ROYALIST. *n. ſ.* [from *royal*.] Adherent to a king.—

Where Candiſh fought, the *royaliſts* prevail'd.
Waller.

—The old church of England *royaliſts*, another name for a man who prefers his conſcience before his intereſts, are the moſt meritorious ſubjects in the world. *South.*

* *To* ROYALIZE. *v. a.* [from *royal*.] To make royal.—

Ere you were queen, ay, or your huſband king,
To *royalize* his blood, I ſpilt mine own. *Shak.*

* ROYALLY. *adv.* [from *royal*.] In a kingly manner; regally; as becomes a king.—

It ſhall be my care,
To have you *royally* appointed. *Shak. W. Tale.*
His body ſhall be *royally* interr'd. *Dryden.*

ROYALSTON,

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ROYALSTON, a townſhip of Maſſachuſetts in Worceſter county.

ROYALTON, a townſhip of Vermont, in Windſor county, NW. of Hartford. It contained 748 citizens, in 1795.

(1.) * ROYALTY. *n. ſ.* [*roialte*, Fr.] 1. Kingſhip; character or office of a king.—Draw, you raſcal; you come with letters againſt the king, and take vanity the puppet's part againſt the *royalty* of her father. *Shak. King Lear.*

He will loſe his head, ere give conſent,
His maſter's ſon, as worſhipfully he terms it,
Shall loſe the *royalty* of England's throne. *Shak.*

—*Royalty* by birth was the ſweeteſt way of majeſty. *Holyday.*—If they had held their *royalties* by this title, either there muſt have been but one ſovereign, or elſe every father of a family had as good a claim to *royalty* as theſe. *Locke.*—

I will, alas! be wretched to the great,
And ſigh in *royalty*, and grieve in ſtate. *Prior.*

3. Emblems of royalty.—

Wherefore do I aſſume
Theſe *royalties*, and not refuſe to reign? *Milt.*

(2.) ROYALTY, or rather, in the *plural*, ROYALTIES, are the rights of the king, otherwiſe called the *king's prerogatives*, and *regalia*. See PREROGATIVE and REGALIA.

ROYAN, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Charente, and ci-devant prov. of Saintonger; famous for a ſiege ſuſtained by the Hugonots, or proteſtants, againſt Lewis XIII. in 1622. It is ſeated at the mouth of the Garonne, 30 miles S. of Rochelle. Lon. 0. 57. W. Lat. 45. 38. N.

ROYENA, in botany, *African Bladder-nut*; a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the decandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 18th order, *Bicornes*. The calyx is urceolated; the corolla monopetalous, with the limb revoluted; the capſule is unilocular and quadrivalved.

ROYES, a ſtrong town of France, in the department of Somme, and ci-devant prov. of Picardy, near mineral waters. It is 12 miles NW. of Noyon, and 60 N. by E. of Paris. Lon. 2. 51. E. Lat. 49. 46. N.

* *To* ROYNE. *v. a.* [*rogner*, Fr.] To gnaw; to bite. *Spenſer.*

* ROYNISH. *adj.* [*rogneux*, Fr. mangy, paltry.] Paltry; ſorry; mean; rude.—

The *roynish* clown, at whom ſo oft
Your grace was wont to laugh. *Shak.*

ROY-ROYAN, in Bengal, the chief officer in the revenue department, next to the Dewan under the native government.

(1.) ROYSE, George, D. D. an Engliſh divine, born at Martock, in Somerſetſh. about 1655; and educated at St Edmund Hall, Oxford. He became chaplain to K. William III, and attended him to Ireland in 1690. He was made dean of Briſtol, and died in 1708.

(2.) ROYSE, Job, M. A. a popular Engliſh preacher during the commonwealth. He wrote a treatiſe entitled, *The Spirit's Touchſtone*; and died in 1662.

ROYSTON, a large town of Hertfordſhire, ſeated in a fertile vale, full of inns. The market on Wed. is very conſiderable for corn. There was lately diſcovered, almoſt under the market-place, a ſubterraneous chapel of one Roſia, a Saxon lady: it has ſeveral altars and images cut out of the chalky ſides, and is in form of a ſugar loaf, having no entrance but at the top. Royſton is 15 miles S. by E. of Huntingdon, and 37 N. of London. Lon. 0. 1. E. Lat. 52. 6. N.

* ROYTELET. *n. ſ.* [French.] A little or petty king.—Cauſing the American *roytelets* to ſwear all homagers to that king and the crown of Britain. *Heylyn.*

ROZEE, Madam, an extraordinary painter born at Leyden, in 1632. She neither uſed oil nor water colours, but wrought on the rough ſide of the pannel, with a preparation of *ſilk aſhes*, diſpoſed in different boxes, according to the different degrees of bright and dark tints out of which ſhe applied the colours requiſite, and blended ſoftened and united the tints with ſuch art, that ſhe imitated the warmth of fleſh as well as could be done with oil. In this ſingular manner ſhe executed portraits, landſcapes and hiſtorical ſubjects, with the moſt exquiſite beauty. She died in 1682, aged 50.

ROZIERES. See ROSIERES, N° 1, 2.

RUABAN, a town of N. Wales, in Denbighſhire with 3 fairs; laſt Frid. in Feb. May 12, and Nov.

RUAIL, a river of Scotland, in Argyleſhire which runs into Loch-Long. It was anciently called *Black Water*; but a great ſlaughter of Norwegian invaders happening on its banks, it was called *Ruail*, which ſignifies *Red Blood*.

RUATAN, or *Rattan*, in iſland in the bay of Honduras, 30 miles long, and 13 broad; naturally defended by rocks, except at the entrance which is ſo narrow that only one ſhip can paſs at a time. The harbour is ſpacious and ſafe, and can afford ſafe anchorage to 500 ſail of ſhips at once. Lon. 88. 12. W. Lat. 17. 6. N.

* RUB. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Friction; act of rubbing. 2. Inequality of ground that hinders the motion of a bowel.—

The world is full of *rubs*.

3. Colliſion; hinderance; obſtruction.—

The breath of what I mean to ſpeak
Shall blow each duſt, each ſtraw, each hair,
Out of the path. *Shak. King.*

Now every *rub* is ſmoothed in our way.

Thoſe you make friends,
And give your hearts to, when they once perceive
The leaſt *rub* in your fortunes, fall away.

—Upon this *rub*, the Engliſh ambaſſadors thought fit to demur. *Hayward.*—

A path clear as the day,
Where no churliſh *rub* ſays nay. *Crowley.*

Though conſcience checks him, yet the *rub* gone o'er,
He ſlides on ſmoothly.

—All ſort of *rubs* will be laid in the way. *Tennant.*—Upon the death of a prince, the adminiſtration goes on without any *rub* or interruption. *Swift.* 4. Difficulty; cauſe of uneaſineſs.—

To ſleep; perchance to dream; ay, there's the *rub*. *Sh*

(1.) * *To* RUB. *v. a.* [*rubio*, Welch; *reiben*, German, to wipe.] 1. To clean or ſmooth a thing by paſſing ſomething over it; to ſcour; to wipe; to perfricate. 2. To touch ſo as to have ſomething of that which touches left

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Their straw-built citadel new *rub'd* with balm. *Milton.*

-In narrow clefts, in the monument that stands ver him, catholicks *rub* their beads, and smell his ones, which they say have in them a natural per- ime, though very like apoplectick balsam; and hat would make one suspect that they *rub* the arble with it, it is observed, that the scent is ronger in the morning than at night. *Addison.*

To move one body upon another.—Look, how e *rubs* her hands. *Shak. Macbeth.*—The govern- ent at that time was by kings, before whom the ople, in the most formal expressions of duty and verence, used to *rub* their noses. *Heylyn.*—The re *rubbing* of two bodies violently produces heat, d often fire. *Locke.*—Two bones, *rubbed* hard ainst one another, produce a sweet smell. *Ar- thnot.* 4. To obstruct by collision.—

'Tis the duke's pleasure,
Whose disposition all the world well know
Will not be *rubb'd* nor stop'd. *Shak. King Lear.*

To polish; to retouch.—The whole business our redemption is, to *rub* over the defaced co- of the creation, to reprint God's image upon soul. *South.* 6. To remove by friction: with *r out.*—A forcible object will *rub out* the fresh- colours at a stroke. *Collier.*—If their minds are principled with inward civility, a great part e roughness, which sticks to the outside for of better teaching, will *rub off. Locke.* 7. touch hard.—He, who before he was espied, afraid, after being perceived, was ashamed, being hardly *rubbed* upon, left both fear and me, and was moved to anger. *Sidney.* 8. *To b down.* To clean or curry a horse.—

When his fellow beasts are weary grown,
He'll play the groom, give oats, and *rub* 'em *down. Dryden.*

To Rub *up.* To excite; to awaken.—You will me not to have *rubbed up* the memory of what e heretofore in the city did. *South.* 10. *To b up.* To polish; to refresh.

(L.) * *To* Rub. *v. n.* 1. To fret; to make a tion.—

Indeed it *rubb'd* upon the sore. *Dryden.*

To get through difficulties.—

Hunters, that the tops of mountaines scale,
And *rub* through woods with toile. *Chapman.*

Many lawyers, when once hampered, *rub* off as as they can. *L'Estrange.*—'Tis as much as can do, to *rub* through the world. *L'Estrange.*

* RUBBAGE. See Rubbish.

(L.) * RUBBER. *n. f.* [from *rub.*] 1. One that bs. 2. The instrument with which one rubs.—

The *rubbers*, and the bathing sheets display. *Dryden.*

Rub the dirty tables with the napkins, for it ll save your wearing out the common *rubbers. wift.* 3. A coarse file.—The rough or coarse s, if large, is called a *rubber. Moxon.* 4. A me; a contest; two games out of three.—The was to stand by, to see two boobies try their e to him by a *rubber* of cuffs. *L'Estrange.*—If rchers had but the manners to go to sharps, ntlemen would be contented with a *rubber* at ffs. *Collier.* 5. A whetstone. *Ainsworth.*

(L.) Rubber, India. See Caoutchouc, un- r Chemistry, *Index;* and Resin, § 3.

* RUBBISH. Rubbage. *n. f.* [from *rub;* as perhaps meaning, at first, dust made by rubbing. *Rubbage* is not used.] 1. Ruins of a building; fragments of matter used in building.—

What trash is Rome?
What *rubbish*, and what offal? *Shak.*

—Such conceits seem too fine among this *rubbage. Wotton.*—A fabrick, though high and beautiful, if founded on *rubbish*, is easily made the triumph of the winds. *Glanville.*—When the foundation of a state is once loosened, the least commotion lays the whole in *rubbish. L'Estrange.*—

He saw the town's one half in *rubbish* lie. *Dryd.*—Knowledge lying under abundance of *rubbish*, his scope has been to remove this *rubbish. Dacenant.*—The enemy hath taken a surer way to consume us, by letting our courage evaporate against stones and *rubbish. Swift.* 2. Confusion; mingled mass.—That noble art of political lying ought not to lie any longer in *rubbish. John Bull.* 3. Any thing vile and worthless.

* Rubble-stone. *n. f.*—*Rubble-stones* owe their name to their being rubbed and worn by the water, at the latter end of the deluge. *Woodw.*

RUBEÆ, the ancient name of the North Cape, at the N. point of Scandinavia.

RUBELLITE. See Mineralogy, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *Class* I. *Order* I. *Gen.* VI. ii. *Sp.* 4.

RUBENS, Sir Peter Paul, the most eminent of the Flemish painters, was born in 1577, at Cologne. His father, who was a counsellor in the senate of Antwerp, had been forced by the civil wars to seek refuge in Cologne, and during his residence there, Rubens was born. The genius of Rubens, which appeared in his earliest years, was cultivated with care, and embellished with every branch of literature. He soon discovered a strong inclination for designing. His mother, perceiving her son's bias, permitted him to attend the instructions of Tobias Verhaecht, a painter of architecture and landscape. He next became the pupil of Adam Van Oort, but he soon found that his abilities were insufficient, and his surly temper was disgustful to Rubens, whose natural disposition was amiable. He then became the disciple of Octavio Van Vien, or Otho Venius, a painter of singular merit, and who was not only skilled in the principles of his art, but also distinguished for learning. Between the master and scholar, a remarkable similarity appeared in temper and inclination. Thus animated, Rubens gave up his whole mind to painting, and soon equalled his master. To arrive at that perfection which he already beheld in idea, he travelled through Italy, visiting the most valuable collections of paintings and antique statues, with which that country abounds. Having finished some fine paintings for the archduke Albert's palace, he recommended him to the D. of Mantua, by whom he was received with the most flattering marks of distinction, and where he studied the works of Julio Romano. He next visited Rome, where he examined the productions of Raphael. The paintings of Titian and Paul Veronese called him to Venice. He continued in Italy 7 years. At length hearing that his mother was ill, he hastened to Antwerp, but she died before his arrival. He married soon after, but his wife dying in 4 years,

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he retired from Antwerp, and endeavoured to soothe his melancholy by a journey to Holland. At Utrecht he visited Hurtort, for whom he had a great value. His fame now spread over Europe. He was invited by Mary of Medicis queen of Henry IV. of France to Paris, where he painted the galleries in the palace of Luxemburg. These form a series of paintings which delineate the history of Mary: and afford a decisive proof of his superiority in such compositions. At Paris he became acquainted with the D. of Buckingham, who was so taken with his accomplishments, that he judged him qualified to explain to Isabella, the wife of Albert the archduke, the cause of the misunderstanding between the courts of England and Spain. In this employment Rubens acquitted himself with such propriety, that Isabella appointed him envoy to the king of Spain, to propose terms of peace. Philip was no less captivated with Rubens: he conferred on him the honour of knighthood, and made him secretary to his privy council. Rubens returned to Brussels, and thence passed over into England in 1630 with a commission from the Catholic king to negotiate a peace. He was successful, and a treaty was concluded. Charles I. treated him with every mark of respect. Having engaged him to paint some of the apartments of Whitehall, he not only gave him a handsome sum of money, but, as an acknowledgment of his merit, created him a knight; and the duke of Buckingham purchased of him a collection of pictures, statues, medals, and antiques, at 10,000l. He returned to Spain, where he was highly honoured and rewarded for his services. He was made a gentleman of the king's bedchamber, and secretary to the council of state in the Netherlands. Rubens, however, did not lay aside his profession. He returned to Antwerp, where he married a 2d wife called *Helena Forment*, who, being an eminent beauty, helped him much in the figures of his women. He died on the 30th of May 1640, aged 63, leaving vast riches to his children. Albert his eldest son succeeded him in the office of secretary of state in Flanders. Rubens was possessed of all the ornaments and advantages that render a man worthy to be esteemed. His figure was noble, his manners engaging, and his conversation lively; his learning was universal. Though his favourite study must have occupied him much, yet he found time to read the works of the most celebrated authors. He spoke several languages perfectly, and was an excellent statesman. His house at Antwerp was enriched with every thing rare. It contained one spacious apartment, in imitation of the rotunda at Rome, adorned with a choice collection of pictures which he had purchased in Italy; part of which he sold to the duke of Buckingham. He excelled equally in every thing that can enter into the composition of a picture. His invention was so fertile, that when he painted the same subject several times, he always supplied something new. The attitudes of his figures are natural and varied, the carriage of the head is peculiarly graceful, and his expression noble and animated. He carried the art of colouring to its highest pitch: he understood so thoroughly the chiaro-scuro, that he gave to his figures the utmost harmony, and a prominence resembling real life. The great excellence of Rubens appears in his grand compositions; he touched them in such a manner as to give them a lasting force, beauty, and harmony. Yet with all his merits, Rubens is accused of want of correctness in designing. Though he had spent 7 years in Italy in studying those antiques by which other celebrated artists had modelled their taste; tho' he had examined them with such minute attention as not only to perceive their beauties, but to be qualified to describe them in *a Dissertation* which he wrote on that subject; yet he seems never to have divested himself of that heavy style of painting, which, being peculiar to his native country, he had so nobly acquired. The admirable rapidity too with which he painted, made him a fault into inaccuracies, from which those of most that he finished with care are entirely exempted. Among his finished pieces is the Crucifixion, seen by to be seen at Antwerp; but of all his works the paintings in the palace of Luxemburg best display his genius and his style. Algarotti says that he was more moderate in his movements than Tintoretto, and more soft in his chiaro-scuro than Caravaggio; but not so rich in his compositions, nor so light in his touches, as Paul Veronese; in his carnations less true than Titian and less delicate than Vandyck. Yet he gave his colours the utmost transparency and harmony notwithstanding their extraordinary deepness, and he had a strength and grandeur of style entirely his own.

RUDER'S Law, a hill of Scotland, in Roxburghshire, in the parish of Bedrule; 1419 feet above the level of the sea.

RUBI, an ancient town of Italy, in Apulia; bounding with bramble bushes, hence called *Rubos. Virg. Georg.* 1. 266. It is now called Ruvo.

RUBIA, in botany, MADDER, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the tetrandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 47th order, *Stellatæ*. The corolla is monopetalous and campanulated; and there are two monospermous berries. There are 3 species, of which the most remarkable is the

RUBIA TINCTORUM, or *dyer's madder*, so much used by the dyers and calico printers. This has a perennial root and annual stalk; the root is composed of many long, thick, succulent fibres, about as large as a man's little finger; these are joined at the top in a head like asparagus, and run very deep into the ground. From the upper part or head of the root come out many long roots, which extend just under the surface of the ground to a great distance, whereby it propagates very fast: for these send up a great number of shoots, which, if carefully taken off in the spring soon after they are above ground, become so many plants. These roots are of a reddish colour somewhat transparent; and have a yellowish pith in the middle, which is tough and of a bitterish taste. From this root arise many large four cornered jointed stalks, which in good land will grow 5 or 6 feet long, and, if supported, sometimes 7 or 8: they are armed with short herbaceous prickles; and at each joint are placed 5 or 6 spear shaped leaves: their upper surfaces are

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smooth: but their mid rib on the under ſide is armed with rough herbaceous ſpines, and the leaves ſit cloſe to the branches in whorls. From the joints of the ſtalk come out the branches, which ſuſtain the flowers: they are placed by pairs oppoſite; each pair croſſing the other: the have a few ſmall leaves toward the bottom, ſuch are by threes, and upwards by pairs oppoſite: the branches are terminated by looſe branched ſpikes of yellow flowers, which are cut into 4, and are ſometimes ſucceeded by ſeeds, which ſeldom ripen in England. For the manner of its cultivation and preparation for the uſe of dyers, ſee MADDER. See alſo DYEING, *Part* III. *Sect.*

Madder root is uſed in medicine. The virtues attributed to it are thoſe of a detergent and aperient; whence it has been uſually ranked among the opening roots, and recommended in obſtructions of the viſcera, particularly of the kidneys, in coagulations of the blood from falls or bruiſes, in the jaundice, and beginning dropſies. It is an ingredient in the icteric decoction of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia. This root, taken internally, tinges the urine of a deep red colour; and in the Philoſophical Tranſactions we have an inſtance of its producing a like effect upon the bones of animals who had it mixed with their food: all the bones, particularly the more ſolid ones, were ſaid to be changed, both externally and internally, to a deep red; but neither the membranous nor cartilaginous parts ſuffered any alteration: ſome of theſe bones macerated in water for many weeks together, and afterwards ſteeped and boiled in ſpirit of wine, loſt none of their colour, nor communicated any tinge to the liquors. The root, therefore, was concluded to be poſſeſſed of great ſubtility of parts, and its medical virtues hence to deſerve inquiry. The ſame trials, however, made by others, have not been found to produce the ſame effects as thoſe above mentioned. Of late the root has come into great reputation as an emmenagogue.

RUBICAN. *adj.* [*rubican*, Fr.] *Rubican* colour of a horſe is one that is bay, ſorrel, or black, with a light, grey, or white upon the flanks, but not this grey or white is not predominant there. *Dict.*

RUBICELL, a ſpecies of ruby. See RUBY, N° 2.

(1.) RUBICON, in ancient geography, a ſmall river of Italy, which it ſeparated from Gallia Cisalpina. It riſes in the Appenine mountains, and runs into the Adriatic Sea. Julius Cæſar, by croſſing it, and thus going beyond the boundaries of his province, declared war againſt Pompey and the Senate, and thus began the Civil War. (*Strabo*. *Sueton.* 32.) His deſperate ſituation, and hesitation before he did ſo, are deſcribed under CÆSAR, § 33. Hence when a diſpute between nations or individuals is brought to a deſperate criſis, and a deciſive ſtep is taken, which cannot be retracted, ſuch a perſon or nation is ſaid to have *paſſed the Rubicon*. It is now called RUGONE, according to Mr Lempriere; but Dr Oppenheim ſays its modern name is *Luſo*.

(2.) RUBICON, a department of the ITALIAN REPUBLIC, ſo named from the above river, (N° 1.) which comprehends the ci-devant papal territory of ROMAGNA. (See that article.) It was divided on the 13th May, 1801, into 6 diſtricts; named from their capitals, CESENA, FORLI, FAENZA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, and PESARO. (See theſe articles.) Its total population, in May 1801, was 304,846 citizens. For that of the particular diſtricts, ſee ITALIAN REPUBLIC, § 6.

* RUBICUND. *adj.* [*rubiconde*, Fr. *rubicundus*, Lat.] Inclining to redneſs.

* RUBIED. *adj.* [from *ruby*.] Red as a ruby.

Thrice upon thy *rubied* lip. *Milton.*

Angels food, and *rubied* nectar flows. *Milt.*

RUBIERA, a ſmall but ſtrong town of the Italian republic, in the department of Panaro, diſtrict, and late duchy of Modena; with a fort, ſeated on a river of the ſame name, which runs into the Sechia, 8 miles from Modena. Lon. 11. 14. E. Lat. 44. 39. N.

RUBIFACIENT, *adj.* in medicine; giving a red colour: making red.

* RUBIFICK. *adj.* [*ruber* and *facio*, Latin.] Making red.—The ſeveral ſpecies of rays, as the *rubifick*, are by refraction ſeparated one from another. *Grew.*

* RUBIFORM. *adj.* [*ruber*, Lat. and *forma*.] Having the form of red.—Of thoſe rays, which paſs cloſe by the ſnow, the *rubiform* will be the leaſt refracted. *Newton.*

* *To* RUBIFY. *v. a.* To make red.—This topically applied, becomes a phæniginus or *rubifying* medicine, and of ſuch fiery parts as to conceive fire of themſelves, and burn a houſe. *Brown.*

RUBIGO. See ROBIGO.

RUBININSKA, one of the northern provinces of Ruſſia, bounded by the province of Dwina on the N. by Syrianes on the E. by Belozera on the S. and by the lake Onega on the W.

RUBINUS RUSSICUS. See RUBY, N° 9.

* RUBIOUS. *adj.* [*rubeus*, Lat.] Ruddy; red; Not uſed.—

Diana's lip

Is not more ſmooth and *rubious*. *Shak.*

RUBLE. See MONEY, § 9.

RUBO, the ancient name of the river DWINA.

RUBRIC. See RUBRICK.

* RUBRICATED. *adj.* [from *rubrica*, Latin.] Smeared with red.

(1.) * RUBRICK. *n. ſ.* [*rubrique*, Fr. *rubrica*, Lat.] Directions printed in books of law and in prayer books; ſo termed, becauſe they were originally diſtinguiſhed by being in red ink.—

No date prefix'd,

Directs me in the ſtarry *rubrick* ſet. *Milton.*

—They had their tables or *rubricks* to inſtruct them. *Stilling fleet.*—The *rubrick* and the rules relating to the liturgy are eſtabliſhed by royal authority. *Nelſon.*

(2.) * RUBRICK. *adj.* Red.—The light and rays, which appear red, or rather make objects appear ſo, I call *rubrick* or red making. *Newton.*

What tho' my name ſtood *rubrick* on the walls. *Pope.*

* *To* RUBRICK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To adorn with red.

RUBRUM MARE, the Red Sea. See RED, § 22.

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* RUB STONE. *n. ſ.* [*rub* and *ſtone*.] A ſtone to ſcour or ſharpen.—

A raſle for barlie, with *rub-ſtone* and ſand. *Tuſſer.*

RUBUS, the BRAMBLE, or RASPBERRY BUSH; a genus of the polygamia order, belonging to the icoſandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 35th order, *Senticoſæ*. The calyx is quinquefid, the petals 5; the berry conſiſting of monoſpermous acini or pulpy grains. The principal ſpecies is the *common raſpberry*, which, with its varieties, demands culture in every garden for their fruit; particularly the common *red kind*, *white ſort*, and *twice bearing raſpberry*; all of which are great bearers: but, for the general plantations, the common red and the white kind are chiefly preferred, as being generally the greateſt bearers of all; planting alſo a ſhare of the twice bearing ſort, both as a curioſity and for the ſake of its autumnal crops of fruit, which in favourable ſeaſons ripen in tolerable perfection; obſerving to allow all the ſorts ſome open expoſure in the kitchen garden, though they will proſper in almoſt any ſituation. The other ſpecies are conſidered as plants of variety, for hardy plantations in the ſhrubbery. Some of them are alſo very ornamental flowering plants; particularly the *Virginian flowering raſpberry*, and the *double bloſſomed bramble*, which have great merit as furniture for ornamental compartments; and the *white berried bramble*, which is a great curioſity. All the other ſpecies and varieties ſerve to diverſify large collections.

(1.) * RUBY. *n. ſ.* [from *ruber*, Lat.] 1. A precious ſtone of a red colour, next in hardneſs and value to a diamond.—

Up, up, fair bride! and call
Thy ſtars from out their ſeveral boxes, take
Thy *rubies*, pearls, and diamonds forth. *Donne.*

—Melpomene would be repreſented like a manly lady, upon her head a dreſſing of pearl, diamonds, and *rubies*. *Peacham.*—

Crowns were on their royal ſcutcheons plac'd,
With ſaphires, diamonds, and with *rubies* grac'd.
Dryden.

2. Redneſs.—

You can behold ſuch ſights,
And keep the natural *ruby* of your cheeks,
When mine is blanch'd with fear. *Shak.*

3. Any thing red.—

Deſire of wine
Thou couldſt repreſs, nor did the dancing *ruby*
Allure thee from the cool cryſtalline ſtream. *Milt.*

4. A blain; a blotch; a carbuncle.—He's ſaid to have a rich face, and *rubies* about his noſe. *Capt. Jones.*

(2.) * RUBY. *adj.* [from the noun.] Of a red colour.—Wounds, like dumb mouths, do ope their *ruby* lips. *Shak.*—

Diana's lip
Is not more ſmooth and *ruby* than thy ſmall pipe
Is at the maiden's organ ſhrill. *Shak.*

(3.) RUBY, a genus of precious ſtones of various colours; as, 1. Of a deep red colour inclining a little to purple; the *carbuncle* of Pliny. 2. The SPINELL, of the colour of a bright corn poppy flower. 3. The BALASS, or pale red inclining to violet; ſuppoſed to be the mother of rubies. 4. The RUBICELL, of a reddiſh yellow. (See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *Claſs* I. *Gen.* IV.) Tavernier and Dutens inform us, that in the Eaſt Indies all coloured gems are named *rubies*, without regard to what their colours may be; and that the particular colour is added to the name of each to diſtinguiſh them from one another. There are, however, ſome ſoft ſtones of this kind which they call *bacan*. The ſpinell rubies are about half the value of diamonds of the ſame weight; the balaſs is valued at 30 ſhillings per carat. Tavernier mentions 108 rubies in the throne of the Great Mogul, from 100 to 200 carats, and of a round one almoſt 2½ ounces: other travellers mention rubies exceeding 200 carats in weight. According to Dutens, a perfect ruby, if it weighs more than 3½ carats, is of greater value than a diamond of the ſame weight. If it weighs a carat, it is worth 10 guineas; if two carats, 40 guineas; three carats, 150 guineas; if ſix carats upwards of 1000 guineas. It is fuſible with borax in a ſtrong and long-continued heat, running into a tranſparent glaſs of a pale green colour; the ſame effect is produced by microcoſmic ſalt, but with ſedative ſalt, or mineral or vegetable kali, the glaſs is opaque and differently coloured. From the experiments of M. d'Arcet, it appears that the ruby does not loſe its colour in the greateſt fire; but Henckel ſays, that, by means of a burning glaſs, he ſoftened it in ſuch a manner as to receive the impreſſion of a ſeal of jaſper. In the courſe of experiments made on precious ſtones by order of the Grand Duke of Tuſcany, (See DIAMOND, § vii.) rubies, in the heat which diſſipated diamonds, were ſoftened, and loſt ſome of their colour, but preſerved their form and weight. By addition of a third lens, a further degree of fuſion was given to rubies. Even theſe rubies could not be made to unite with glaſs, having been expoſed to this heat, the ſurfaces of the rubies which had ſuffered fuſion, loſt much of their original hardneſs, and were nearly as hard as cryſtal. But their internal parts, which had not been fuſed, retained their hardneſs. Emeralds in this heat were rendered white, or of various colours, and ſoon afterwards were fuſed. They were found to have loſt part of their weight, and to be rendered leſs hard and brittle. Rubies become electric by being rubbed. They are found with in the Capeian mountains of Pegu in the Eaſt Indies; and at Caos, Ava, Biſnagar, Calicut, Cananor, Ceilan, and Braſil. They are found in the ſands of rivers of a red colour, in an argillaceous earth of a hard texture and greeniſh colour, ſometimes they adhere to red rocks. The ſpinell rubies are met with in Hungary, Sileſia, Bohemia, and Braſil. The balaſs comes principally from Braſil, though ſome are alſo brought from the Eaſt Indies. The rubicell comes alſo from Braſil, but they loſe their colour in the fire. A variety of this gem, but of a ſoft quality, is found in great plenty on the ſea-ſhore near Ely in Fifeſhire, Scotland. There is alſo a ſtone which comes near the ruby found near Portſoy, Banffſhire, and at Inverary, in Argyleſhire. The *rubino* of the Italians is a true garnet of a deep red and violet, or of the amethyſt colour. Rubies may be artifica

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ficially made from Brafilian topazes of a fmoky appearance, by giving them a gradual heat in a crucible filed with aſhes, until it be red-hot.

(4.) RUBY, OCCIDENTAL. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *Claſs* I. *Gen.* VI. *Sp.* 1.

(5.) RUBY OF ARSENIC, a name given to REGAR, when cryſtallized. See CHEMISTRY, *Ind.* MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* VII. *Ord.* XIV. II. *Sp.* 1.

(6.) RUBY OF SILVER, in chemiſtry is the red ore.

(7.) RUBY OF ZINC, the red BLENDE.

(8.) RUBY, ORIENTAL. See MINERALOGY, II. *Chap.* IV. *Claſs* I. *Gen.* I.

(9.) RUBY, ROCK, the *amethiſtizontas* of the ancients, is found in Syria, Calcutta, Cananore, Cambay, and Ethiopia. It is the moſt valued of all the ſpecies of garnets, and is frequently ſold as a ruby under the name of RUBINUS RUSSICUS. See GARNET.

RUCHIL, a river of Perthſhire, which riſes in the hill of Glenairtney, above Stratherne, and falls into the Erne, at the houſe of Aberuchil, near Comrie.

RUCTATION. *n. ſ.* [*ructo*, Lat.] A belching ariſing from wind and indigeſtion.

RUCTATION. See ERUCTATION.

To RUD. *v. a.* [*rudu*, Saxon, redneſs.] To redden. Obſolete.—

Her cheek, like apples, which the ſun had *rudded*. *Spenſer.*

RUDBECK, Olaus, a learned Swediſh phyſician of an ancient and noble family, born in 1630. He became profeſſor of medicine at Upſal, where he acquired great applauſe by his extenſive knowledge; and died in 1702. His principal works are, 1. *Exercitatio anatomica, exhibens ductus nonnullos hepaticos aquoſos, & vaſa glandularum ſeroſa*, 1653. He there claims the diſcovery of the lymphatic veſſels, againſt Thomas Bartholin. 2. *Atlantica, ſive Manheim, vera Japheti poſterorum ſedes & patria*, 4 vols. folio, is full of ſtrange paradoxes ſupported with profound learning: he endeavours to prove, that Sweden was the country whence all the ancient Pagan divinities and our firſt parents were derived; and that the Germans, Engliſh, French, Danes, Greeks, and Romans, with all other nations, originally came from thence.

RUDBECKIA, in botany; *Dwarf Sunflower*; a genus of the polygamia fruſtranea order, in the ſyngenelia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compoſitæ*. The receptacle is paleaceous and conical; the pappus conſiſts of a quadridentate margin; the calyx of double ſeries of ſcaly leaves.

(1.) RUDDER. *n. ſ.* [*roeder*, Dutch.] 1. The inſtrument at the ſtern of a veſſel, by which its courſe is governed.—

My heart was to thy *rudder* ty'd. *Shak.*

They looſed the *rudder* bands.—*Acts*, xxvii. 40.

Thoſe, that attribute unto the faculty any ſole power, have no other underſtanding, than one, who, looking into the ſtern of a ſhip, and finding it guided by the helm and *rudder*, doth aſcribe the abſolute virtue to the piece of wood, without all conſideration of the hand that guides it. *Raleigh.*—

Fiſhes firſt to ſhipping did impart;
Their tail the *rudder*, and their head the prow.
Dryden.

Thou held'ſt the *rudder* with a ſteady hand,
Till ſafely on the ſhore the bark did land. *Dryd.*

2. Any thing that guides or governs the courſe.—

For rhyme the *rudder* is of verſes. *Hudibras.*

(2.) *The* RUDDER, in navigation, is a piece of timber turning on hinges in the ſtern of the ſhip, and which, oppoſing ſometimes one ſide in the water and ſometimes another, turns or directs the veſſel this way or that. See HELM. In the 7th vol. of the Tranſactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, there is explained a method of ſupplying the loſs of a ſhip's rudder at ſea. The invention, which is captain Pakenham's of the royal navy, has been approved by admiral Cornwallis, the commiſſioners of the admirality, by the ſociety in whoſe Tranſactions the account of it was firſt publiſhed, and who preſented to captain Pakenham their gold medal, by the Trinity-houſe, by the managing owners of Eaſt India ſhipping, by the duke of Sundermania the preſent regent of Sweden, and by the ſociety for the improvement of naval architecture. The ſubſtitute here recommended for a loſt rudder is formed of thoſe materials without which no ſhip goes to ſea, and its conſtruction is ſimple and ſpeedy. Captain Pakenham, before he gave a particular account of his invention to the ſociety, and to whom he ſent a model of his invention, had an opportunity of reducing his theory to practice. On the 7th of July 1788, he made this trial with the Merlin of Newfoundland; and he declares that, during the different manœuvres of tacking and wearing, he could not diſcover the leaſt variation between the operation of the machine and that of the ſhip's rudder; ſhe was ſteered with the ſame eaſe by one man, and anſwered the helm in every ſituation fully as quick. Adm. Cornwallis certifies the ſame with reſpect to the Crown of 64 guns, which loſt her rudder on the Kentiſh Knock, when, with the ſubſtitute ſhe was ſteered to Portſmouth with the utmoſt eaſe in a heavy gale; and, the admiral aſſerts, it would have taken her to the Eaſt Indies. The materials and conſtruction are thus deſcribed: "*Fig.* 1. *Pl.* 297. a top-maſt inverted; the ſid-hole to ſhip the tiller in, and ſecured with hoops from the anchor-ſtocks; the heel forming the head of the rudder. 2. The inner half of a jib boom. 3. The outer half of a jib-boom. 4. A fiſh: the whole of theſe materials well bolted together:—in a merchantman her ruff-tree. 5. A cap, with the ſquare part cut out to fit the ſtern poſt, and acting as a lower gudgeon, ſecured to the ſtern-poſt with hawſers, from the bolts of the cap, under the ſhip's bottom, into the hawſe-holes, and hove well tort. 6. A plank, or, if none on board, the ſhip's gangboards. 7. Anchor ſtocks, made to fit the topmaſt as partners, ſecured to the deck, and ſupplying the place of the upper gudgeon, and in a merchant-ſhip the clamps of her windlaſs. 8. A ſtern poſt. 9. Hoops from the anchor-ſtocks. 10. Pigs of ballaſt, to ſink the lower part. The head of the rudder to paſs through as many decks as you wiſh."

(1.) RUDDIMAN, Thomas, M. A. one of the moſt

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moſt eminent grammarians which Scotland has produced, was born in October 1674, at Raggel, in the pariſh of Boyndie, and county of Banff. His father James Ruddiman was a farmer, and ſtrongly attached to the houſe of Stuart. Mr Ruddiman was inſtructed in the principles of Latin grammar at the pariſh ſchool of Boyndie, where his progreſs was ſo rapid, that he quickly ſurpaſſed all his claſs-fellows. His maſter, George Monſon, who was a ſkilful and attentive teacher, being unwilling to check his ardour for learning, permitted him to follow the impulſe of his genius, and to advance without waiting the ſlow progreſs of the other boys. The pleaſure which the youthful mind receives from vivid deſcription, though wild and romantic, approaches to ecſtaſy, and often makes an indelible impreſſion. While at ſchool, the firſt book which charmed the opening mind of Ruddiman was *Ovid's Metamorphoſes*; and during the reſt of his life Ovid was his favourite poet. At the age of 16 he became anxious to purſue his ſtudies at the univerſity; but his father, thinking him too young, oppoſed his inclination. Hearing of the competition trial, annually held at King's college, Aberdeen, for a certain number of burſaries, Ruddiman, without the knowledge of his father, and with only a ſingle guinea in his pocket, which his father had privately given him, ſet out for that city. On the road he was met by a company of gypſies, who robbed him of his coat, ſhoes, ſtockings, and guinea. This loſs did not damp his enterprining ſpirit: he continued his journey to Aberdeen, preſented himſelf as a candidate; and though he had neither clothes to give him a decent appearance, nor friends to recommend him, he gained the firſt prize. After attending the univerſity 4 years, he obtained the degree of M. A. The theſis ſays, the diſputation on this occaſion laſted *ab aurora uſque ad veſperum*, i. e. *from morning till night*. Though Ruddiman was only 20, when he left the univerſity, it appears from a book entitled *Rerioricorum Libri tres*, compoſed before this period, but never publiſhed, that he had then read the Roman claſſics with uncommon advantage. He was ſoon after engaged as a tutor to the ſon of Robert Young, Eſq. of Auldbar, the great grandſon of Sir Peter Young, who, under Buchanan, had been preceptor of James VI. Within a year he accepted the office of ſchoolmaſter of Laurence-kirk. When Ruddiman had ſpent 3½ years in this employment, the celebrated Dr PITCAIRNE, happening to paſs through Laurence-kirk, was detained in that village by a violent ſtorm. Pitcairne, wanting amuſement, inquired of the hoſteſs if ſhe could procure an agreeable companion to bear him company at dinner. She replied, that the ſchoolmaſter, though young, was learned, and, though modeſt, ſhe was ſure could talk. Pitcairne, delighted with his converſation and learning, invited him to Edinburgh, and promiſed him his patronage. When Ruddiman arrived in Edinburgh, the advocates library, which had been founded eighteen years before by Sir George Mackenzie, attracted his curioſity and attention, and he was ſoon after appointed aſſiſtant keeper under Mr Spottiſwoode the librarian. His ſalary for executing this laborious office was 8l. 6s. 8d. He had beſides a ſmall honorary preſent from thoſe who were admitted advocates, for correcting their theſes: he was alſo paid for copying MSS. for the uſe of the library. And the faculty, before he had held the office two years, were ſo highly pleaſed with his conduct, that they made him a preſent of 50l. Scots, or 4l. 3s. 4d. ſterling. During the ſitting of the court of ſeſſion he attended the library from 10 till 3; and a part of his time was occupied in teaching young gentlemen Latin. When Ruddiman's merit became better known, his aſſiſtance was anxiouſly ſolicited by thoſe engaged in literary publications. Freebairne, a reſpectable bookſeller of that period, prevailed upon him to correct and prepare for the preſs Sir Robert Sibbald's *Introductio ad hiſtoriam rerum naturalium gentiarum, in ea Borealis Britannia parte ultra murum Pictorum eſt*. He received for his labour 3l. ſterling. At the requeſt of Mr Spottiſwoode, librarian, for 5s. ſterling, he contributed his aid to the publication of Sir Robert Spottiſwoode's Practiques of the Laws of Scotland. In 1707 he commenced auctioneer, an employment not very ſuitable to the dignified character of a man of letters; and publiſhed an edition of *Boethii de Animi Tranquillitate Dialogus*, to which he prefixed the Life of Voluſenus. VOLUSENUS *Florentius* was a learned Scotſman, and was patroniſed by Cardinal Wolſey. (See WILSON, N° 21.) In 1709 he publiſhed *Johnſtoni Cantici Salomonis paraphraſis Poetica*, and *Johnſtoni Cantica* with notes, which he dedicated in Latin verſe to Dr Pitcairne. The philological talents of Ruddiman were ſoon directed to a more important object. Freebairne propoſed to publiſh a new edition of the Scottiſh tranſlation of Virgil's *Æneid* by Gawin Douglas, Bp. of Dunkeld. Of the contributions which ſome eminent characters of the age preſented, the moſt valuable were ſupplied by Ruddiman. He corrected the work and wrote the gloſſary; and there is ſtrong reaſon to believe that he was the author of the 42 general rules for aſſiſting the reader to underſtand the language of Douglas. To thoſe who wiſh to be acquainted with the ancient language of this iſland, the gloſſary is a treaſure, as it forms a compendious dictionary of the Anglo-Saxon. Ruddiman was now invited by the magiſtrates of Dundee to be rector of the grammar ſchool of that town; but the faculty of advocates, anxious to retain him, augmented his ſalary to 30l. 6s. 8d. ſterling, and he declined the offer. In 1711 he aſſiſted Bp. Sage in publiſhing *Drummond of Hawthorden's works*; and performed the ſame favour to Dr Abercrombie, who was then preparing for the preſs his *Martial Atchievements*. In 1713, Dr Pitcairne died, when he teſtified all the reſpect which friendſhip could inſpire to the memory of his deceaſed patron. He compoſed Pitcairne's epitaph, and conducted the ſale of his library, which was diſpoſed of to Peter the Great. In 1714, he publiſhed *the Rudiments of the Latin tongue*: 18 or 19 Latin grammars, compoſed by Scotſmen, had appeared before this period; but ſuch is the intrinſic value of this treatiſe, that it ſoon ſuperſeded all other books on the ſubject, and is ſtill taught in all the grammar ſchools of Scotland. It has alſo been tranſlated into other Languages

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ngages. He was next called upon to publiſh
e works of BUCHANAN. The value of theſe he
anced much by an elaborate preface, his *Ta-
le Regum Scotiæ Chronologica*, and *Propriorum
minum Interpretatio*. The interpretation of
per names was highly requiſite; for Buchanan
ſo diſguiſed them in the Roman dreſs, that the
inal name is ſcarcely diſcernible; and the pre-
puts the reader on his guard againſt the chro-
gical errors and factious ſpirit of the hiſtory.
diman alſo added a learned diſſertation, enti-
De Metris Buchananeis Libellus, and ſubjoin-
notations critical and political on the Hiſto-
Scotland. As he eſpouſed the cauſe of queen
, he raiſed a hoſt of enemies, and gave occa-
to that celebrated controverſy, which has
carried on with much keeneſs and animoſity,
nth little intermiſſion to the preſent times.
d now been ſo long accuſtomed to ſuperin-
the preſs, that he was led to erect a printing-
himſelf. In 1715, he commenced printer in
rſhip with his brother Walter, who had been
to the buſineſs. Some years after he was ap-
d printer to the univerſity, along with James
ſon, bookſeller. The firſt literary ſociety
d in Scotland was inſtituted in 1718. The
d, anxious to find ſome reſpite from the po-
diſſenſions of the day, endeavoured to pro-
in elegant amuſement; for one of the fun-
al articles of the new aſſociation was, that
fairs of church and ſtate ſhould not be in-
ed." Ruddiman and the maſters of the
ſchool founded this ſociety. They were af-
ds joined by Lord Kaimes. In 1725 the
art of his *Grammaticæ Latinæ Inſtitutio-
s* etymology,) was publiſhed. The 2d part,
ntax,) appeared in 1731. He wrote a 3d
n orthography, and a 4th part on proſody,
is ſaid to be more copious and correct than
her publication on the ſubject. When ur-
gave it to the public, he ſaid dryly, "The
s ſo little taſte, the ſale would not pay the
." Of this work he publiſhed an abridge-
containing an abſtract of all the four parts,
has gone through many editions for the uſe
ols. Ruddiman next engaged in the ma-
ent of a newſpaper, an employment for
his genius and induſtry rendered him very
ualified. The newſpaper which he con-
d was the *Caledonian Mercury*, and it was eſta-
d in 1720, by William Rolland, a lawyer.
iman acted only in the capacity of printer
e years; but upon the death of Mr Rolland
, the property was transferred to his bro-
Walter and him conjunctly. This paper con-
d in the family of Ruddiman till 1772, when
ſold by the truſtees of his grandchildren
John Robertſon, at about L. 1200. This
firſt printed three times a week, on Mon-
Tueſday, and Thurſday, in a ſmall 4to of
ages, with two columns in each page, and
es in each column; ſo that the whole paper
ined only 400 lines. Mr Ruddiman, after
eath of Mr Spottiſwoode librarian, remained
me time in his former ſtation; but was at
appointed keeper of the library, though
ut any increaſe of ſalary; and ſome years af-
r Goodall, the defender of queen Mary, ſuc-
ceeded him in the office of ſub-librarian. The aſ-
ſiduous application of Ruddiman, ſupported by
ſuch learning, was entitled to wealth, which now
indeed flowed upon him, in what was at that pe-
riod deemed great abundance. On the 1ſt of Oc-
tober 1735, he was worth 1882l. 5s. 2d. ſterling;
and on the 20th of May, 1736, his wealth had in-
creaſed to 1985l. 6s. 3d. ſterling. In 1710 he va-
lued his effects at 24l. 14s. 9d. ſterling. In 1737
the ſchoolmaſters in Edinburgh formed themſelves
into a ſociety, to eſtabliſh a fund for the ſupport
of their widows and children. Of this ſcheme
Ruddiman was an active promoter, and was cho-
ſen treaſurer. This aſſociation, in 1742, gave the
idea to the Scots clergy of forming their widows'
ſcheme. In 1739 he publiſhed *Selectus Diploma-
tum et Numiſmatum Scotiæ Theſaurus*. This work
was projected and begun by Anderſon, (hence cal-
led *Anderſon's Diplomata,)* but was finiſhed by
Ruddiman. The preface, which is an excellent
commentary on Anderſon's performance, was
written by Ruddiman, and diſplays a greater ex-
tent of knowledge than any of his other produc-
tions. As Ruddiman had imbibed from his fa-
ther his political prejudices in favour of the houſe
of Stuart, he was not an unconcerned ſpectator of
the civil commotions in 1745. He did not, how-
ever, take any active part in the rebellion. He re-
tired to the country, and while his fellow citizens
were ſpilling each others' blood, he was more
happily engaged in writing *Critical Obſervations on
Burman's Commentaries on Lucan's Pharſalia*. The
Caledonian Mercury was in the mean time mark-
ed with a jealous eye. His ſon, who had for ſome
time been the principal manager of that newſpa-
per, having copied a paragraph which was rec-
koned ſeditious from an Engliſh paper, was im-
priſoned. The ſolicitation of his father procured
his releaſe: but it was too late; for he had con-
tracted a diſtemper in the jail which brought him
to his grave. During the laſt 17 years of his life,
Ruddiman was almoſt inceſſantly engaged in con-
troverſy. He was firſt called upon by Benſon, au-
ditor in the exchequer, to determine the compa-
rative merit of BUCHANAN and JOHNSTON as
poets. He gave a decided preference to Buchan-
an in perſpicuity, purity, and variety of ſtyle;
but allowed Johnſton to be ſuperior in the harmo-
ny of his numbers. His next antagoniſt was Lo-
gan, one of the miniſters of Edinburgh, an obſti-
nate polemic. The ſubject of conteſt was, Whe-
ther the crown of Scotland was ſtrictly hereditary,
and whether the birth of Robert III. was legiti-
mate. Ruddiman maintained the affirmative in
both points, and far ſurpaſſed his antagoniſt in
the powers of reaſoning. He proved the legiti-
macy of Robert by the public records of the king-
dom, with a force of argument which admits of
no reply; but in diſcuſſing the firſt queſtion (on
the conteſt between Bruce and Baliol) he was not
ſo ſucceſsful: for there are many inſtances in the
hiſtory of Scotland, in which the brother ſucceed-
ed to the crown in preference to the ſon. (See
SCOTLAND.) He ſhowed, however, that the Scot-
tiſh crown was at no period properly elective; and
that, according to the old conſtitution of the king-
dom, the right of Bruce, who was the neareſt in
blood, was preferable to the claim of Baliol, tho'

deſcended

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deſcended from the eldeſt daughter. Ruddiman was ſoon after attacked by Love, ſchoolmaſter of Dalkeith, who maintained, that Buchanan had neither repented of his treatment of Q. Mary, nor had been guilty of ingratitude to that princeſs. That Buchanan ever repented there is reaſon to doubt. Whether he was guilty of ingratitude, let the unbiaſſed determine, when they are aſſured by authentic records that Mary conferred on him a penſion for life of 500l. Scots. When Ruddiman had arrived at his 80th year, and was almoſt blind, he was aſſailed by James Man, maſter of an hoſpital at Aberdeen, with a degree of rancour and virulence, united with learning and ability, which muſt have touched him ſenſibly. He was called a *finiſhed pedant*, a *furious calumniator*, and a *corrupter of Buchanan's works*. The venerable old man again entered the liſts, and gained a complete victory. Man, with all his acuteneſs, could only point out 20 errors in two folio volumes. Some of theſe were typographical, ſome trifling, and ſome doubtful. Ruddiman, with much pleaſantry, drew up againſt Man an account of 469 errors, conſiſting of 14 articles, of which two or three may be produced as a ſpecimen. 1. Falſehoods and prevarications, 20. 2. Abſurdities, 69. 3. Paſſages from claſſic authors miſunderſtood by Man, 10. The triumph gained over this virulent adverſary he did not long enjoy; for he died at Edinburgh on the 19th Jan. 1757, in his 83d year. He was three times married, but left behind him only one daughter, Aliſon, who was married in 1747 to James Stewart, Eſq. He died worth about 3000l. ſterling. He was of the middle ſize, of a thin ſtraight make, and had eyes remarkably piercing. Of his talents and learning, his works afford the moſt ſatisfactory proofs. His memory was tenacious and exact. He could repeat long paſſages of Ovid, to the amount of 60 lines, and without omitting a word. He was ſo great a maſter in the Latin language, that he has perhaps been equalled by none ſince the days of Buchanan. Ruddiman was unſtained by vice, and diſtinguiſhed by many virtues. His piety was exemplary. He ſpent Sunday in religious employment. He was frugal of his time, and ſo remarkably temperate, that he was never intoxicated. His candour was much admired in the favourable character which he publiſhed in the Caledonian Mercury of his antagoniſt Love, after his deceaſe. Upon the whole, Ruddiman has been of great ſervice to claſſical literature, and an honour to his country.

(2.) RUDDIMAN, Walter, nephew of the grammarian, was born about 1720, and bred a printer. After having carried on buſineſs in that line for many years in Edinburgh, ſometimes in partnerſhip with others, and ſometimes alone, he, in 1770, commenced a new periodical publication, in 8vo. under the title of *The Weekly Magazine, or Edinburgh Amuſement*; in which he met with uncommon and indeed well merited ſucceſs. No periodical work ever attempted in Scotland met with more encouragement, either in point of ſale, or literary aſſiſtance. At one period above 3000 impreſſions were thrown off weekly, and many gentlemen of the firſt abilities in the kingdom, who have ſince done honour to themſelves and the republic of letters, by their avowed publications, commenced their literary career by anonymous eſſays on various important ſubjects in the Magazine. Mr Ruddiman himſelf, too, contributed greatly to the merit and ſucceſs of the work by his own original pieces, in proſe and verſe; his well written addreſſes to the public, upon proper occaſions; by his judicious and often humorous Notes to his Correſpondents, and by a conciſe and ſummary view of the News and the actions of the weeks, foreign and domeſtic. To the extraordinary ſucceſs of the Weekly Magazine, which was univerſally read by all ranks of people, proved at laſt the cauſe of its ruin. The jealouſy and envy of certain rival printers was excited by its ſucceſs to that degree, that hints were given to the Commiſſioners of the ſtamp duties, that the uncommon ſale of this weekly Magazine hurt the revenue ariſing from News-papers, and therefore it ought to be ſubjected, as other News-papers, to the ſtamp duty. A proceſs was accordingly commenced againſt him before the Court of Exchequer; and, altho' the Magazine as it *then* ſtood, was by no means *clear*, but rather ſeemed to leave all ſuch publications ſcot-free, yet his Magazine was found liable to the ſtamp duty in its *future* publication, but without any *retroſpect*, as to the period that was paſt. Upon this Mr Ruddiman ſeparated the intelligence from the literary department, publiſhing the latter under its old title, and the former as a news-paper, in 4to under the title of *Ruddiman's Weekly Mercury*, in the ſize and form of the *Edinburgh Advertiſer*. But neither the one nor the other ever met with the ſucceſs of the former Magazine, wherein both were conjoined. Though poſſeſſed of uncommon literary abilities, Mr Ruddiman never had ſpirit to make the ſame exertions after this diſappointment. The work, however, was continued while he lived, and for ſome years after his death by his two ſons to the length of the 60th volume of the Magazine; every quarter 13 Numbers completing a volume. Mr Ruddiman died in 1786, much regretted by all who knew him.

* RUDDINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ruddy*.] The quality of approaching to redneſs.—

The *ruddineſs* upon her lip is wet.

—If the fleſh loſe its *ruddineſs*, and look pale, you may ſuſpect it corrupting. *Wiſeman.*

(1.) * RUDDLE. *n. ſ.* [*rudel*, Iſlandick] A kind of earth.—*Ruddle* owes its colour to an admixture of iron. *Woodward.*

(2.) RUDDLE, a town of England in Glouceſterſhire in the pariſh of Newnham.

(1.) * RUDDOCK. *n. ſ* [*rubecula*, Lat.] A ſpecies of bird. The redbreaſt.—Of finging birds we have linnets, and *ruddocks*. *Carew.*

(2.) RUDDOCK, or RED-BREAST. See MOTACILLA, N° 12.

* RUDDY. *adj.* [*rudu*, Saxon.] 1. Approaching to redneſs; pale red.—

We may ſee the old man in a morning,
Luſty as health, come *ruddy* to the field. *Ozell.*

New leaves on ev'ry bough were ſeen:
Some *ruddy* colour'd. *Dryden.*

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Ten wildings have I gather'd for my dear:
How *ruddy* like your lips their ſtreaks appear!
Dryden.

Ceres, in her prime,
Seems ſerene, and with *ruddieſt* freight bedeckt.
Philips.

f phyſick, or iſſues, will keep the complexion
n inclining to coarſe, or *ruddy*, ſhe thinks
m well employed. *Law.* 2. Yellow. Uſed,
) be uſed at all, only in poetry.—
A crown of *ruddy* gold incloſe her brow.
Dryden.

RUDE. *adj.* [*rede*, Saxon; *rudis*, Latin.] 1. aught; barbarous; ſavage.—Nor is there any on in the world, now accounted civil, but him the memory of books, were utterly *rude* barbarous. *Wilkins.* 2. Rough; coarſe of ace s; uncivil; brutal.—
Ruffian, let go that *rude* uncivil touch. *Shak.*
lam's bold anſwers, termed *rude* and ruffian-, furthered his condemnation. *Hayward.*—
You can with ſingle look inflame.
The coldeſt breaſt, the *rudeſt* tame. *Waller.*
t has been ſo uſual to write prefaces, that a n thought *rude* to his reader, who does not him ſome account beforehand. *Walſh.* 3. Vio- tumultuous; boiſterous; turbulent.—
Clouds puſh'd with winds *rude* in their ſhock.
Milton.
e *rude* agitation breaks it into foam. *Boyle.*
ſh: inclement.—
Spring does to flow'ry meadows bring,
hat the *rude* winter from them tore. *Waller.*
norant; raw; untaught.—Though I be *rude* ech, yet not in knowledge. 1 *Cor.* H: was t *rude* in the profeſſion of arms. *Wotton.*—
Such to his as art yet *rude* had form'd. *Milt.*
ude, Fr.] Rugged; uneven; ſhapeleſs; un- ed.—
In their ſo *rude* abode,
ot the poore ſwineherd would forget the Gods.
Chapman.
was the cuſtom to worſhip *rude* and unpoliſh- ones. *Stilling fleet.* 7. Artleſs; inelegant.—I ld know if he have any of the *rude* Iriſh books. r.—One example may ſerve, till you view neis in the original, unblemiſhed by my anſlation. *Dryden.* 8. Such as may be done ſtrength without art.—
Rude work well ſuited with a ruſtick mind.
Dryden.

RUDELSTADT, a town of Germany, in the e of Weſtphalia, landgravate of Thuringia, county of Schwartzburg, with a caſtle; near Sala.

RUDELY. *adv.* [from *rude*.] 1. In a rude mer; fiercely; tumultuouſly.—
Whether to knock againſt the gates of Rome,
r *rudely* viſit them in parts remote. *Coriol.*
Without exactneſs; without nicety; coarſely.
I that am *rudely* ſtampt, and want love's ma- jeſty
To ſtrut before a wanton ambling nymph. *Shak.*
Unſkilfully.—
My muſe, though *rudely*, has deſign'd
ome faint reſemblance of his godlike mind.
Dryden.
Violently; boiſterouſly.—

With his truncheon he ſo *rude'ly* ſtroke
Cymocles twice. *Spenſer.*

RUDEN, a town of Germany, in Weſtphalia, on the Moen, on the borders of the biſhopric of Paderborn.

* RUDENESS. *n. ſ.* [*rudeſſe*, Fr. from *rude*.] 1. Coarſeneſs of manners; incivility.—
This *rudeneſs* is a ſauce to his good wit. *Shak.*
Kings the *rudeneſs* of their joy muſt bear.
Dryden.
—The *rudeneſs*, tyranny, the oppreſſion, and ingratitude of the late favourites towards their miſtreſs, were no longer to be born. *Swift.*—The *rudeneſs*, ill-nature, or perverſe behaviour of any of his flock, uſed at firſt to betray him into impatience. *Law.* 2. Ignorance; unſkilfulneſs.—What he did amiſs, was rather through *rudeneſs* and want of judgment, than any malicious meaning. *Hayward.* 3. Artleſſneſs; inelegance; coarſeneſs.—
Leave the *rudeneſs* of that antique age
To them, that liv'd therein. *Spenſer.*
4. Violence; boiſterouſneſs.—
The ram, that batters down the wall,
For the great ſwing and *rudeneſs* of his poize,
They place before his hand that made the engine. *Shak.*
5. Storminess; rigour.—The not obſerving of this, deſtroys more plants than all the *rudeneſſes* of the ſeaſon. *Evelyn.*

* RUDENTURE. *n. ſ.* [French.] In architecture, the figure of a rope or ſtaff, ſometimes plain and ſometimes carved, wherewith the flutings of columns are frequently filled up. *Bailey.*

* RUDERARY. *adj.* [*rudera*, Lat.] Belonging to rubbiſh. *Dict.*

* RUDERATION. *n. ſ.* In architecture, the laying of a pavement with pebbles or little ſtones. *Bailey.*

* RUDESBY. *n. ſ.* [from *rude*.] An uncivil turbulent fellow. A low word, now little uſed.—
I muſt be forced
To give my hand, oppoſed againſt my heart,
Unto a mad-brain *rudeſby*, full of ſpleen. *Shak.*
Out of my ſight, *rudeſby* be gone. *Shak.*

RUDESHEIM, a town of Germany, now in the French empire and department of the Rhine and Moſelle, and late electorate of Mentz, 3 miles from Bingen. Lon. 7. 56. E. Lat. 49. 49. N.

RUDGWICK, a town of England, in Suſſex, W. of Horſham; with a fair on Trinity Monday.

RUDHAM, EAST, } two towns of England, in
RUDHAM, WEST, } Norfolk, near Houghton Hall. They have fairs May 17, and Oct. 2.

RUDIÆ, an ancient town of Italy, in Calabria; built by a Grecian colony: the birth-place of the poet ENNIUS. *Cic. Ital.* xii. 396.

* RUDIMENT. *n. ſ.* [*rudiment*, Fr. *rudimentum*, Lat.] 1. The firſt principles; the firſt elements of a ſcience.—Such as were trained up in the *rudiments*, and were ſo made fit to be by baptiſm received into the church, the fathers uſually term hearers. *Hooker.*—
To learn the order of my fingering,
I muſt begin with *rudiments* of art. *Shak.*
Thou ſoon ſhalt quit
Thoſe *rudiments*. *Milton.*
—Could it be believed, that a child ſhould be fo-ed

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forced to learn the *rudiments* of a language, which he is never to use? *Locke.* 2. The first part of education.—He was nurtured where he was born in his first *rudiments. Wotton.*—

The skill and *rudiments* austere of war. *Philips.* 3. The first, inaccurate, unshapen beginning or original of any thing.—Moss is but the *rudiment* of a plant. *Bacon.*—The *rudiments* of nature are very unlike the grosser appearances. *Glanville.*—

Th' essay and *rudiments* of great success,
Which all-maturing time must bring to light.
Dryden.

—Shall that man pretend to religious attainments, who is defective and short in moral? which are but the *rudiments*, the beginnings, and first draught of religion. *South.*—God beholds the first imperfect *rudiments* of virtue in the soul. *Addison.*—

The sappy boughs
Attire themselves with blooms, sweet *rudiments*
Of future harvest. *Philips.*

* RUDIMENTAL. *adj.* [from *rudiment.*] Initial; relating to first principles.—Your first *rudimental* essays in spectatorship were made in my shop. *Spectator.*

RUDLAM, a town of N. Wales, in Flintshire; 4 miles from St Asaph; with fairs on Feb. 2d, March 25, and Sept. 2d.

RUDLAND, a river of Northumberland.

RUDOLFWERD, a strong town of Germany, in Carniola, with an abbey, on the Gurck, in a county fertile in vines: 45 miles SE. of Lawbach. Lon. 15. 20. E. Lat. 46. 8. N.

RUDSTON, a town of Yorkshire, NE. of Kilham.

(1.) RUE, Charles De La, a French orator and poet, born at Paris in 1643. He was educated at the college of the Jesuits, where he became a professor of humanity and rhetoric. In 1667, he composed a Latin poem on the conquests of Lewis XIV. which was so much esteemed by the celebrated Peter Corneille, that he translated it into French, presented it to the king, and passed so high encomiums on the superior merit of the original, that the author was received into the favour of that monarch. De la Rue commenced preacher, and became one of the most eminent orators of his age. In France it was customary not to read sermons, but to recite them from memory. He was of opinion that reading sermons was preferable.—The preacher, with his discourse before him, could read it with ease, free from that timidity and embarrassment which frequently attends the act of recollection; and he would save all the time usually spent in committing it to memory. De la Rue died at Paris on the 27th of May 1725, aged 82. He was as amiable in society as he was venerable in the pulpit. He published *Panegyrics, Funeral Orations*, and *Sermons.* His best sermon is entitled *Des Calamities Publiques*, and his most admired funeral oration was composed on the Prince of Luxemburg. There are also tragedies of his writing, both in Latin and French, which were approved by Corneille. He was one of those learned men who published editions of the classics for the use of the Dauphin. Virgil, which fell to his share, was published with notes, and a Life of the poet, in 1675, 4to. and is a valuable and useful edition.

(2.) Rue, Charles De La, a learned Benedictine monk, born in 1685. He assisted Montfaucon in finishing the remains of *Origen's Hexapla.* He died in 1739.

(3.) Rue, in geography, a river of N. Wales, in Montgomeryshire.

(4.) Rue, a town of France, in the dep. of the Somme, and ci-devant county of Ponthieu, in the late prov. of Picardy.

(5.) * Rue. *n. s.* [*rue*, Fr. *ruta*, Latin.] An herb, called herb of grace, because holy water was sprinkled with it. *Miller.*—

What favor is better,
For places infected, than wormwood and rue.
Tusser.

I'll set a bank of *rue*, sour herb of grace;
Rue, even for Ruth, here shortly shall be seen.
Sidney.

—The weasel, to encounter the serpent, arms herself with eating of *rue. Moore.*

(6.) Rue, in botany. See Ruta.

(7.) Rue, Dog's. See Scrophularia.

(8.) Rue, Goat's. See Galega.

(9.) Rue, Meadow. See Thalutrum.

(10.) Rue, Wall. See Asplenium.

(11.) Ruf, Wild Syrian. See Peganum.

* *To* Rue. *v. a.* [*reowsin*, Saxon.] To grieve for; to regret; to lament.—

To tempt the thing which daily yet I rue.
Spenser.

You'll *rue* the time,
That clogs me with this answer.
Shakspeare.
France, thou shalt *rue* this treason.
Shakspeare.
Oh! treacherous was that breast, to whom
Didst trust our counsels, and we both may rue.
Dryden.

Thy will
Chose freely what it now so justly *rues.*
Milton.

RUEDOCK, a river of N. Wales, in Montgomeryshire; with a village of the same name.

* RUEFUL. *adj.* [*rue* and *ful.*] Mournful; woeful; sorrowful.—

Spur them to *rueful* work, rein them from ruth.

Cocytus, nam'd of lamentation loud,
Heard on the *rueful* stream.
Milton.
He sigh'd, and cast a *rueful* eye.
Dryden.

* RUEFULLY. *adv.* [from *rueful.*] Mournfully; sorrowfully.—Why should an ape run away from a snail, and very *ruefully* and frightfully look back, as being afraid? *More.*

* RUEFULNESS. *n. s.* [from *rueful.*] Sorrowfulness; mournfulness.

RUEL, a town of France, in the department of Paris, 5 miles from Paris; with a fine castle, built by Card. Richelieu.

* RUELLE. *n. s.* [French.] A circle; an assembly at a private house. Not used.—The poet who flourished in the scene, is condemned in the *ruelle.*

RUELLIA, in botany, a genus of the angiospermia order, belonging to the didynamia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 40th order, *Personatæ.* The calyx is quinquepartite; the corolla sub-campanulated; the stamina approaching together in pairs; the capsule springing asunder by means of its elastic ligaments.

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RUER, or ROER. See ROER.

(1.) * RUFF. *n. f.* 1. A puckered linen ornament, formerly worn about the neck. See RUFFLE.—You a captain; for what? for tearing a whore's *ruff* in a bawdy-house? *Shak.*—

We'll revel it,
With *ruffs*, and cuffs, and fardingals. *Shak.*
Some tore a *ruff*, and some a gown. *Drayton.*
What fashion'd hats, or *ruffs*, or suits next year,
Our giddy-headed antick youth will wear.
Donne.

—The ladies freed the neck from those yokes, those linen *ruffs* in which the simplicity of their grandmothers had enclosed it. *Addison.* 2. Any thing collected into puckers or corrugations.—

Soft on the paper *ruff* its leaves I spread. *Pope.*

[From *rough* scales.] A small river fish.—A *ruff* or pope is much like the pearch for shape, and taken to be better, but will not grow bigger than a gudgeon; he is an excellent fish, and of a pleasant taste. *Walton.* 4. A state of roughness. Obsolete.—

As fields set all their bristles up; in such a *ruff* were thou. *Chapman.*

New state.—This seems to be the meaning of the cant word, unless it be contracted from *ruffle*. How many princes that, in the *ruff* of all their glory, have been taken down from the head of a victorious army to the wheel of the victor's chariot. *L'Estrange.*

(2.) RUFF, in ichthyology; a species of PERCA.

(3.) RUFF, in ornithology, a species of TRINGA.

To RUFF, *v. n.* To beat on a drum rapidly, and with a continued noise. See RUFFING.

RUFFAC, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Rhine, and ci devant prov. Alsace: seated on the Rotbach, 7 miles S. of Colmar, and 17 NW. of Basle. Lon. 7. 27. E. Lat. 47. 58. N.

RUFFEC, or RUFFECQ, a town of France, in the dep. of Charente, and ci-devant prov. Angoumois; seated on the Anche, 24 miles S. of Angoulesme.

RUFFHEAD, Dr OWEN, was the son of his majesty's baker, in Piccadilly; who buying a lottery ticket for him in his infancy, which happened to be drawn a prize of 500 l. this sum was applied to educate him for the law. He accordingly entered in the Middle Temple; and seconded so well the views of his father, that he became a good scholar and an acute barrister. While he was waiting for opportunities to distinguish himself in his profession, he wrote a variety of pamphlets on temporary politics; and was afterwards distinguished by his accurate edition of *The Statutes at Large*, in 4to. He now obtained good business, though more as a chamber counsellor in drawing bills for parliament than as a pleader; but close application to study, with the variety of works he engaged in as an author, so impaired his constitution that after the last exertion of his abilities to defend the conduct of administration toward Mr Wilkes, by a pamphlet intitled "The case of the late election for the county of Middlesex considered," he was prevented from receiving the reward of a place in the Treasury, by dying 1769, aged 46. Some time before his death, bishop Warburton engaged him to write his long promised *Life of Alexander Pope*; which, however, when executed, was very far from giving general satisfaction.

(1.) * RUFFIAN. *n. f.* [*ruffiano*, Italian; *ruffien*, Fr. a bawd; *roffver*, Danish, to pillage; perhaps it may be best derived from the old Tuetonick word which we now write, *rough*.] A brutal boisterous, mischievous fellow; a cut-throat; a robber; a murderer.—

Have you a *ruffian* that will swear? drink? dance?
Revel the night? rob? murder? *Shak.*

—Sir Ralph Vane's bold answers, termed rude and *ruffian* like, furthered his condemnation. *Hayward.*—

The boasted ancestors of these great men,
Whose virtues you admire, were all such *ruffians*. *Addison.*

(2.) * RUFFIAN. *adj.* Brutal; savagely boisterous.—

Experienc'd age
May timely intercept the *ruffian* rage. *Pope.*

* *To* RUFFIAN. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To rage; to raise tumults; to play the ruffian. Not in use.—

If it hath *ruffian'd* so upon the sea,
What ribs of oak, when mountains melt on them,
Can hold the mortise? *Shak.*

RUFFING, or RUFFLING, *part. n. f.* a beat on the drum. Lieutenant-generals have three ruffles, major-generals two, brigadiers one, and governors one, as they pass by the regiment, guard, &c.

* RUFFLE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Plaited linen used as an ornament.—The tucker is a slip of fine linen, run in a small *ruffle*. *Addison.* 2. Disturbance; contention; tumult.—Conceive the mind's perception of some object, and the consequent *ruffle* or commotion of the blood. *Watts.*

(1.) * *To* RUFFLE. *v. a.* [*ruffelen*, Dutch, to wrinkle.] 1. To disorder; to put out of form; to make less smooth.—

With robbers hands, my hospitable favour
You should not *ruffle* thus. *Shak.*

—In changeable taffeties, differing colours emerge and vanish upon the *ruffling* of the same peice of silk. *Boyle.*—

As she first began to rise,
She smooth'd the *ruffled* seas. *Dryden.*
Where contemplation prunes her *ruffled* wings,
And the free soul looks down to pity kings.
Pope.

2. To discompose; to disturb; to put out of temper.—

Were I Brutus,
And Brutus Antony, there were an Antony
Would *ruffle* up your spirits. *Shak.*

—We are transported by passions, and our *ruffled* minds by the disorders of the body. *Glanville.* 3. To put out of order; to surprise.—

Th' advantage of the ground, where best
He might the *ruffl'd* foe infest. *Hudibras.*

4. To throw disorderly together.—

Within a thicket I repos'd, when round
I *ruffl'd* up fal'n leaves in heap. *Chapman.*

5. To contract into plaits.—A small skirt of fine *ruffled* linen, running along the upper part of the stays before, is called the modesty-piece. *Addison.*

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(2.) * *To* RUFFLE. *v. n.* 1. To grow rough or turbulent.—

The night comes on; and the high winds
Do sorely *ruffle*, for many miles about. *Shak.*

The rising winds a *ruffling* gale afford. *Dryd.*
2. To be in loose motion; to flutter.—

The fiery courser,
Ruffles at speed, and dances in the wind. *Dryd.*
3. To be rough; to jar; to be in contention. Out of use.—

One fit to bandy with thy lawless sons,
To *ruffle* in the commonwealth of Rome. *Shak.*
—They would *ruffle* with jurors, and inforce them to find as they would direct. *Bacon.*

RUFFLING. See RUFFING.

(1, 2.) RUFFORD, 2 towns of England: 1. in Nottinghamshire, NE. of Mansfield: 2. in Yorksh. between Wetherby and York.

(3.) RUFFORD CHAPEL, a town of Lancashire, between Marton Mere and the river Dowies: with a fair, May 1st.

RUFIANA, in ancient geography, a town of Gaul, now called RUFFAC.

RUFINUS, a celebrated Italian, born about the middle of the 4th century at Concordia. He applied himself to the belles lettres, and studied eloquence at Aquileia. He then devoted himself to theology. St Jerome happening to pass through Aquileia, Rufinus formed an intimate friendship with him; but was soon deprived of his company as he continued his travels through France and Germany, and then set out for the east. Rufinus resolved to follow him; embarked for Egypt; and, having visited the hermits in the deserts, repaired to Alexandria to hear the renowned Didymus. Here he saw St Melania, famed for her virtue and charity. The sanctity of his manners soon obtained her confidence, which continued 30 years, during their residence in the east. The Arians, who ruled in the reign of Valens, persecuted Rufinus; threw him into a dungeon, loaded him with chains, and, after almost starving him to death, banished him to the deserts of Palestine. From this exile he was relieved by St Melania, who employed her wealth in ransoming those confessors who had been imprisoned or banished. He went next to Jerusalem highly recommended by St Jerome; and having built a monastery on Mount Olivet he there assembled a great number of hermits, whom he animated to virtue by his exhortations. He converted many to the Christian faith, and persuaded above 400 hermits who had joined in the schism of Antioch to return to the church. He also prevailed on many Macedonians and Arians to renounce their errors. But his attachment to the opinions of Origen set him at variance with St Jerome, who not only retracted all the praises he had lavished upon him, but loaded him with reproaches. Theophilus, their mutual friend, settled their differences, for a short time. Rufinus, having published a translation of the principles of Origen, at Rome, was summoned to appear before pope Anastasius. But he sent an apology for not appearing, with a vindication of his work, in which he attempted to prove that certain errors, of which Origen had been accused, were consistent with the opinions of the orthodox. St Jerome attacked Rufinus's translation. Rufinus composed an elegant reply, in which he [illegible] that being only the translator of Origen, he was not bound to sanction his errors. In 407, he returned to Rome; but in 408, that city being threatened by Alaric, he retired to Sicily, where he died in 410. His works are, 1. A Translation of Josephus; 2. A Translation of several works of Origen; 3. A Latin Version of Ten Discourses of Gregory Nazianzen, and Eight of Basil; 4. A Translation of the Ecclesiastical History of Eusebius, which engaged him near ten years, and which he was excited by Chromatius of Aquileia. He made many additions to the work, and continued the history from the 20th year of Constantine to the death of Theodosius the Great. 5. A Vindication of Origen. 6. Two Apologies, addressed to St Jerome. 7. Commentaries on the Prophets Hosea, Joel, and Amos. 8. Lives of the Hermits. 9. An explanation of the Creed.

RUFRÆ, an ancient town of Italy, in Campania, now called PRESENZANO. *Cic.* 10.

RUFRARIA COSTA, the district or territory surrounding the above town.

RUFRENI, the ancient inhabitants of Rufrium. *Sil. Ital.* 8. 568. *Virg. Æn.* vii, 729.

RUFRIUM, an ancient town of Italy, in Samnium, now called RUVO. *Liv.* viii. c. 25.

* RUFTERHOOD. *n. s.* In falconry, a hood to be worn by a hawk when she is first drawn. *Bailey.*

(1.) RUFUS, the agnomen of Quintus Curtius the historian. See CURTIUS, N° 2. Some take this Q. Curtius Rufus a different person, and say he was made proconsul of Africa under Claudius, and tell a fabulous story of this honour being first told to him by a woman of Adrametum.

(2.) RUFUS, the surname of William II. king of England. See ENGLAND, § 20.

* RUG. *n. s.* [*rugget*, rough, Swedish.] A coarse, nappy, woollen cloath.—January and May expressed with a horrid and fearful aspect, in Irish *rug* or coarse freeze. *Peacham.*—The *Angus* resembleth a goat, but greater and more profitable; of the fleece whereof they make rugs, coverings and stuffs. *Heylyn.* 2. A coarse nappy coverlet used for mean beds.—

A *rug* was o'er his shoulders thrown;
A *rug*; for night-gown he had none.
3. A rough woolly dog. Not used.—

Mungreis, spaniels, curs,
Shoughes, water *rugs*, and demy wolves cleped
All by the name of dogs.

RUGBY, a large town of Warwickshire, with a famous free school, and a market on Saturday, 11 miles SE. of Coventry and 85 NNW. of London. Lon. 1. 12. W. Lat. 52. 24. N.

RUGEN, an island in the Baltic sea, on the coast of Pomerania, over against Stralsund, about 23 miles long and 15 broad, with a principal town. It is strong both by art and nature, abounds with corn and cattle, and belongs to Sweden. Its chief town is BERGEN. Lon. 14. 30. E. Lat. 54. 32. N.

RUGENDAS, George Philip, a celebrated painter, born at Augsburg, in 1666. He excelled in painting sieges, battles, &c. though he painted with the left hand. He died in 1742.

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RUGENWALD, a handſome town of Germa- in Pomerania, capital of the duchy of Wen-, with a handſome caſtle. It belongs to the of Pruſſia, and is ſeated on the Wiper; 8 s from the Baltic, and 35 NE. of Colberg. 16. 27. E. Lat. 54. 35. N.

RUGGED. *adj.* [*rugget*, Swediſh.] 1. Rough; of unevenneſs and aſperity.—

Nature, like a weak and weary traveller,
'n'd with a tedious and *rugged* way. *Denham.*

he earth revolves not upon a material and d, but a geometrical plane. *Bentley.* 2. Not ; not regular; uneven.—

His hair is ſticking;
is well-proportion'd beard made rough and *rugged.* *Shak.*

ıvage of temper; brutal; rough.—The great- ours to ſuch an one neither ſoften nor win him; but leave him as hard, *rugged*, and ncerned as ever. *South.* 4. Stormy; rude; ultuous; turbulent; tempeſtuous.—

Now bind my brows with iron, and ap- proach
he *rugged'ſt* hour that time and ſpite dare bring,
frown upon th' enrag'd Northumberland. *Shak.*

ough or harſh to the ear.—

Wit will ſhine
hrough the harſh cadence of a *rugged* line. *Dryden.*

monoſyllable line turns verſe to proſe, and that proſe is *rugged* and unharmonious. *Dryd.* ur; ſurly; diſcompoſed.—

Sleek o'er your *rugged* looks. *Shak.*

olent; rude; boiſterous.—

Fierce Talgol; gath'ring might.
ith *rugged* truncheon charg'd the knight. *Hudibras.*

ugh; ſhaggy.—

The *rugged* Ruſſian bear. *Shak.*

Through foreſts wild,
chaſe the lion, boar, or *rugged* bear. *Fairf.*

RUGGEDLY. *adv.* [from *rugged.*] In a rug- anner.

RUGGEDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *rugged.*] 1. The ar quality of being rugged, in any of its ſen- 2. Roughneſs; aſperity.—Hardneſs and *rug-* is unpleaſent to the touch. *Bacon.*—Syrups diately abate and demulce the hoarſeneſs io'ence of a cough, by mollifying the *rugged-* f the intern tunick of the gullet. *Harvey.*— ſoftneſs of the foot, which yields and fits it- the *ruggedneſs* and unevenneſs of the roads, ender it leſs capable of being worn. *Ray.*

GGLES, George, M. A. a dramatic writer, louriſhed in the reign of K. James I. He a very humorous Latin Play, entitled *Igno-*, which was acted before the king on the larch, 1615, at the univerſity of Cambridge.

GGSBOROUGH, a town of Ireland, in ounty of Cork, and province of Munſter.

GIA, in ancient geography, an iſland in the , now called RUGEN.

GIE, an ancient people of Germany. *Tac.*

RUGIN. *n. ſ.* A nappy cloth.—The lips ſo painful, that ſhe could not endure the wiping the ichor from it with a ſoft *rugin* with her own hand. *Wiſeman.*

* RUGINE. *n. ſ.* [*rugine*, Fr.] A chirurgeon's raſp.—If new fleſh ſhould not generate, bore little orifices into the bone, or raſp it with the *ru- gine. Sharp.*

RUGLEN. See RUTHERGLEN.

RUGLEY, a town of England, in Staffordſh. on the Trent, with a market on Tueſday: 6 miles NW. of Litchfield, and 126 NW. of London. Lon. 1. 48. W. Lat. 52. 57. N.

RUGONE, a celebrated river of the Italian republic, in the department of the Rubicon, anciently called *Rubicon.* See RUBICON, N° 1.

* RUGOSE. *adj.* [*rugoſus*, Lat.] Full of wrinkles.—It is a relaxation of the ſphincter to ſuch a degree, that the internal *rugoſe* coat of the inteſtine turneth out, and beareth down. *Wiſeman.*

(1.) * RUIN. *n. ſ.* [*ruine*, Fr. *ruina*, Lat.] 1. The fall or deſtruction of cities or edifices.—

Loud *rung* the ruin. *Beaum. and.*

2. The remains of building demoliſhed.—

The Veian and the Gabian tow'rs ſhall fall,
And one promiſcuous *ruin* cover all;
Nor, after length of years, a ſtone betray
The place where once the very *ruins* lay. *Addiſ.*

Men ſhall from her *ruins* know her frame. *Prior.*

Such a fool was never found,
Who pull'd a palace to the ground,
Only to have the *ruins* made
Materials for a houſe decay'd. *Swift.*

3. Deſtruction; loſs of happineſs or fortune; overthrow.—

He parted frowning from me, as if *ruin*
Leapt from his eyes. *Shak.*

Thoſe whom God to *ruin* has deſign'd,
He fits for fate, and firſt deſtroys their mind. *Dryden.*

4. Miſchief; bane.—The errors of young men are the *ruin* of buſineſs. *Bacon.*—

Havock, and ſpoil, and *ruin* are my gain. *Milton.*

(2.) RUINS, a term particularly uſed for magnificent buildings fallen into decay by length of time, and whereof there only remains a confuſed heap of materials. Such are the ruins of the tower of Babel, of the tower of Belus, two days journey from Bagdat in Syria, on the banks of the Euphrates; which are now no more than a heap of bricks, cemented with bitumen, and whereof we only perceive the plan to have been ſquare. Such alſo are the ruins of a famous temple, or palace, near Schiras, in Perſia, which the antiquaries will have to have been built by Ahaſuerus, and which the Perſians now call Tchelminar, or Chelminar; *q. d.* the 40 columns; becauſe there are ſo many columns remaining pretty entire, with the traces of others; a great quantity of baſſo-relievos, and unknown characters, ſufficient to ſhow the magnificence of the antique architecture. The moſt remarkable ruins now exiſting of whole cities are thoſe of PALMYRA and PERSEPOLIS; (ſee theſe articles;) to which he may added thoſe of HERCULANEUM and POMPEIUM.

(1.) * *To* RUIN. *v. a.* [*ruiner*, French; from the noun.] 1. To ſubvert; to demoliſh.—

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A nation loving gold muſt rule this place,
Our temple *ruin*, and our rites deface. *Dryden.*

2. To deſtroy; to deprive of felicity or fortune.—
By thee rais'd, I *ruin* all my foes. *Milton.*
Grace with a nod, and *ruin* with a frown.
Dryden.
—A confident dependence till grounded creates ſuch a negligence, as will certainly *ruin* us in the end. *Wake.* 3. To impoveriſh.—She would *ruin* me in ſilks, were not the quantity that goes to a large pincuſhion ſufficient to make her a gown and petticoat. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * *To* RUIN. *v. n.* 1. To fall in ruins.—
Hell heard th' unſufferable noiſe; hell ſaw
Heav'n *ruining* from heav'n. *Milton.*
2. To run to ruin; to dilapidate.—
Though he his houſe of poliſh'd marble build,
Yet ſhall it *ruin* like the moth's frail cell. *Sandys.*
3. To be brought to poverty or miſery.—If we are idle, and diſturb the induſtrious in their buſineſs, we ſhall *ruin* the faſter. *Locke.*

RUINART, Thierry, or Theodoric, a learned French divine, born at Rheims, in 1657. He became a Benedictine monk in 1674. Mabillon had ſo high an opinion of his abilities, that he choſe him for his aſſiſtant in his literary labours. In 1689, he publiſhed *Acta Primorum Martyrum ſincera*, &c. 4to. He alſo publiſhed ſeveral other learned works. When Mabillon died in 1707, he was appointed to continue his work; but died in travelling to Champagne, in queſt of new memoirs, in 1709.

* RUINATE. *adj.* In a ſtate of decay; ruinous. *Shak.*

* *To* RUINATE. *v. a.* [from *ruin.*] This word is now obſolete. 1. To ſubvert; to demoliſh.—
I will not *ruinate* my father's houſe. *Shak.*
What offence of ſuch impietie
Hath Priam or his ſonnes done thee? that with ſo high a hate
Thou ſhould'ſt thus eaſeleſsly deſire to raze and *ruinate*
So well builded a town as Troy? *Shak.*
We'll order well the ſtate,
That like events may near it *ruinate.* *Shak.*
2. To bring to meanneſs or miſery irrecoverable.—Philip and Nabis were already *ruinated.* *Bacon.*—
So ſhall the great revenger *ruinate*
Him and his iſſue by a dreadful fate. *Sandys.*

* RUINATION. *n. ſ.* [from *ruinate.*] Subverſion; demolition; overthrow. Obſolete.—Roman coins were overcovered in the ground, in the ſudden *ruination* of towns by the Saxons. *Camden.*

* RUINER. *n. ſ.* [from *ruin.*] One that ruins.—
This Ulyſſes, old Laertes' ſonne
That dwells in Itaca; and name hath wonne
Of citie *ruiner.* *Chapman.*

* RUINOUS. *adj.* [*ruinoſus*, Lat. *ruineux*, Fr.] 1. Fallen to ruin; dilapidated: demoliſhed.—It is leſs dangerous, when divers parts of a tower are decayed, and the foundation firm, than when the foundation is *ruinous.* *Hayward.* 2. Miſchievous; pernicious; baneful; deſtructive.—
The birds,
After a night of ſtorm ſo *ruinous*,
Clear'd up their choiceſt notes. *Milton.*
—Thoſe ſucceſſes are more glorious, which bring benefit to the world, than ſuch *ruinous* ones, are dyed in human blood. *Glanville.*—A might be put to that *ruinous* practice of gam *Swift.*

* RUINOUSLY. *adv.* [from *ruinous.*] 1. In ruinous manner. 2. Miſchievouſly; deſtructively.—His own decree will retort the moſt on himſelf. *Decay of Piety.*

RUISHTON, a town of England, in Somerſhire; with a fair on Whit-Monday.

RUISSEAU, a town and ſettlement in North Weſtern Territory, on the E. bank of Miſſiſippi.

RUITON, a town of England in Hampſh with a fair on July 5th.

RUIZIA, in botany, a genus of the polyria order, belonging to the monadelphia cl plants; and in the natural method ranking the 37th order, *Columniferæ.* The calyx is do the external are triphyllous; the internal are ed into 5. The coroſla conſiſts of five petal clining to the right hand ſide, and adhering ſtamina, which are from 30 to 40. It has te and as many capſulæ. Theſe are compreſſ membranous. In each capſule are two There are four ſpecies, viz.

1. RUIZIA CORDATA; } all of whi
2. RUIZIA LACINIATA; } natives of A
3. RUIZIA LOBATA; and } the Cape of
4. RUIZIA PALMATA; } Hope.

(1.) RULE, Gilbert, M. D. an eminent tiſh phyſician, born at Elgin in 1628. H died and graduated at King's College, Abe where he was appointed profeſſor of phil In 1661, he was ejected for refuſing to c with the act of uniformity. He then went to den. for farther improvement, and on his practiſed phyſic, until the Revolution m when he was appointed principal of the u ſity of Edinburgh, by the magiſtrates. H at Edinburgh, in 1705.

(2.) RULE, in geography, a river of Sc in Roxburgſhire, which riſes on the bo the pariſh of Southdean and of England; running about 20 miles, falls into the Te the pariſh of Cavers. It abounds with fine

(3.) * RULE. *n. ſ.* [*regula*, Lat.] 1. G ment; empire; ſway; ſupreme command.
I am aſham'd, that women
Should ſeek for *rule*, ſupremacy, or ſway,
Ever belov'd, and loving may his *rule*
—A wiſe ſervant ſhall have *rule* over a ſon cauſeth ſhame. *Prov.* xvii. 2.—Adam's fin deprive him of his *rule*, but left the creatu a reluctation. *Bacon.*—The right of ſucce and conſequently of bearing *rule*, could not been determined. *Locke.*—This makes them prehenſive of every tendency, to endanger form of *rule* eſtabliſhed by the law of their c try. *Addiſon.*—
Wherefore Vanoe, the ſworn friend to Ro
Should ſpurn againſt our *rule*, and ſtir
The tributary provinces to war? *A. Phi*
Sev'n years the traytor rich Mycenæ ſwa
And his ſtern *rule* the groaning land obey'd

2. An inſtrument by which lines are drawn.—

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Vifit us
With thy long levell'd *rule* of ſtreaming light.
Milton.

A judicious artiſt will uſe his eye, but he will it only to his *rule*. *South.* 2. Canon; precept which the thoughts or actions are directed.—Lay'd this *rule* before him, which proved of great uſe. *Fell.*—This little treatiſe will furniſh with infallible rules of judging truly. *Dryd.*—See it where the reaſons pinch, and where they fail,
And where exceptions o'er the general *rule* prevail. *Dryden.*

He profeſs to have embraced a religion, which gives the moſt exact *rules* for the government of lives. *Tillotſon.*—We owe to Chriſtianity the diſcovery of the moſt certain and perfect *rule* of life. *Tillotſon.*—A *rule* that relates even to the leaſt part of our life, is of great benefit to us, only as it is a *rule*. *Law.* 4. Regularity; propriety of behaviour. Not in uſe.—
He cannot buckle his diſtemper'd cauſe.
Within the belt of *rule*. *Shak.*

§ RULE, in matters of literature, a maxim obſerved in any art or ſcience.

§ RULE, in a monaſtic ſenſe, a ſyſtem of laws or relations, whereby religious houſes are governed, and which the religious make a vow at their entrance to obſerve. Such are the rules of St Auguſtine, Benedictins, Carthuſians, Franciſcans, &c. See AUGUSTINS, &c.

RULE, or RULER, an inſtrument of wood or iron, with ſeveral lines delineated on it; of great uſe in practical menſuration. When a ruler has the lines of chords, tangents, ſines, &c. It is called a *plane ſcale*.

RULE OF THREE. See ARITHMETIC and PROPORTION.

RULES OF COURT, in law, are certain orders made from time to time in the courts of law, which attorneys are bound to obſerve, in order to prevent confuſion; and both the plaintiff and defendant are at their peril alſo bound to pay obedience to rules made in court relating to the cauſe depending between them. It is to be obſerved, that the court will make a rule for any thing that may be done in the ordinary courſe; and that if any thing be made, grounded upon an affidavit, the party may move the court againſt it, in order to have the ſame, and thereupon ſhall bring with him a copy of the affidavit and rule. On each and every attempt of a rule of court an attachment lies; but it is not granted for diſobedience to a rule, when the party has not been perſonally ſerved; nor for diſobeying a rule made by a maſter in his chamber, which is not of force to ground a motion upon, unleſs the ſame be entered as a rule of court is granted every day the court at Weſtminſter ſit, to priſoners of the Upper bench or Fleet priſons, to go at large about their private affairs.

To RULE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To govern; to controll; to manage with power and abſolute ſway.—
It is a purpos'd thing
To ſturb the will of the nobility;
Govern't, and live with ſuch as cannot *rule*,
Whom never will be *rul'd*. *Shak.*
Marg'ret ſhall now be queen, and *rule* the king;
But I will *rule* both her, the king, and realm.
Shak.
A greater power now *rul'd* him. *Milton.*
Rome! 'tis thine alone with awful ſway,
To *rule* mankind, and make the world obey.
Dryden.

2. To manage; to conduct.—He ſought to take unto him the *ruling* of the affairs. 1 *Mac.* 3. To ſettle as by a rule.—That's a *ruled* caſe with the ſchoolmen. *Atterbury.*

(2.) * *To* RULE. *v. n.* To have power or command: with *over*.—Judah yet *ruleth* with God. *Hoſea*, xi. 12.—
To worſhip him; and in reward to *rule*
Over his works. *Milton.*
—We ſubdue and *rule over* all other creatures. *Ray.*—He can have no divine right to my obedience, who cannot ſhew his divine right to the power of *ruling over* me. *Locke.*

(1.) * RULER. *n. ſ.* [from *rule*.] 1. Governour; one that has the ſupreme command.—Soon *rulers* grow proud. *Sidney.*—God has ordained kings, leaders and *rulers* over others. *Raleigh.*—
The pompous manſion was deſign'd
To pleaſe the mighty *rulers* of mankind. *Addiſ.*
2. An inſtrument, by the direction of which lines are drawn.—They know how to draw a ſtraight line between two points by the ſide of a *ruler*. *Moxon.*

(2.) RULER. See RULE, § 6.

(1.) * RUM. *n. ſ.* 1. A country parſon. A cant word.—
I'm grown a mere mopus; no company comes,
But a rabble of tenants and ruſty dull *rums*.
Swift.

2. A kind of ſpirits diſtilled from melaſſes. I know not how derived. *Roomer* in Dutch is a drinking glaſs.

(2.) RUM, a ſpecies of vinous ſpirits, diſtilled from ſugar canes. Rum, according to Dr Shaw, differs from ſimple ſugar ſpirit, in that it contains more of the natural flavour or eſſential oil of the ſugar-cane; a great deal of raw juice and parts of the cane itſelf being fermented in the liquor or ſolution of which the rum is prepared. The unctuous or oily flavour of rum is often ſuppoſed to proceed from the large quantity of fat uſed in boiling the ſugar; which fat, indeed, if coarſe, will uſually give a ſtinking flavour to the ſpirit in our diſtillations of the ſugar liquor or waſh, from our refining ſugar-houſes; but this is nothing of kin to the flavour of the rum, which is really the effect of the natural flavour of the cane. The method of making rum is this: When a ſufficient ſtock of the materials is gathered together, they add water to them, and ferment them in the common method, though the fermentation is always carried on very ſlowly at firſt: becauſe, at the beginning of the ſeaſon for making rum in the iſlands, they want yeaſt or ſome other ferment to make it work: but by degrees, after this, they procure a ſufficient quantity of the ferment, which riſes up as a head to the liquor in the operation; and thus they are able afterwards to ferment and make their rum with a greate

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a great deal of expedition, and in large quantities. When the wash is fully fermented, or to a due degree of acidity, the distillation is carried on in the common way, and the spirit is made up proof: though sometimes it is raised to a much greater strength, nearly approaching to that of alcohol or spirit of wine; and it is then called *double distilled rum*. It might be easy to rectify the spirit, and bring it to much greater purity than we usually find it to be of: for it brings over in the distillation a very large quantity of the oil; and this often so disagreeable, that the rum must be suffered to be by a long time to mellow before it can be used; whereas, if well rectified, it would grow mellow much sooner, and would have a much less potent flavour. The best state to keep rum in, both for exportation and other uses, is that of alcohol or rectified spirit. In this form it might be transported in one half the bulk it usually is, and might be let down to the common proof-strength with water when necessary: for the common use of making punch, it would likewise serve much better in the state of alcohol; as the taste would be cleaner, and the strength might always be regulated to a much greater exactness than in the ordinary way. The only use to which it would not so well serve in this state, would be the common practice of adulteration among our distillers; for, when they want to mix a large portion of cheaper spirit with the rum, their business is to have it of the proof-strength, and as full of the flavouring oil as they can, that may drown the flavour of the spirits they mix with it, and extend its own. If the business of rectifying rum were more nicely managed, it seems a very practicable scheme to throw out so much of the oil, as to have it in the fine light state of a clear spirit, but highly impregnated with it: in this case it would very nearly resemble arrack, as is proved by the mixing a very small quantity of it with a large spirit, in which case the whole bears a very near resemblance to arrack in flavour. Rum is usually very much adulterated in Britain; some are so barefaced as to do it with malt spirit; but when it is done with molasses spirit, the tastes of both are so nearly alike, that it is not easily discovered. The best method of judging of it is by tasting five to a little of it; and, when it has burnt away all the inflammable part, examining the phlegm both by the taste and smell.

(3.) RUM, an island of Scotland, one of the Hebrides, 7 miles W. of Eigg, and included in the county of Argyll. It is about 8 miles long, and nearly as broad, containing a surface of above 22,000 English acres of hilly, rocky, and mountainous ground, chiefly fitted for pasture. Great numbers of fine Scotland sheep are fed upon it, whose wool is remarkably fine and their flesh delicious. This island formerly abounded with wild cattle and deer, but the woods being destroyed the deer have disappeared. It abounds with free-stone, pebbles, and beautiful rock crystals. The population, in 1755, was 443. The only harbour is *Loch Scresort*, which is spacious and has good anchorage, from 5 to 7 fathoms water. It belongs to M for Alexander M'Lean of Coll.

* *To* RUMBLE. *v. n.* [*rommelen*, Dutch.] To make a hoarse low continued noise.—

The trembling streams, which wont to cool
The tuneful birds to notes more clear
To *rumble* gently down with murmurings fall.
Spenser.

Rumble thy belly full, spit fire, spout rain.
Shak.

—At the *rumbling* of his wheels, the father did not look back to their children for fear.
Jer. xlvii, 3.—

When love so *rumbles* in his pate, nature
comes in his eyes. *Suckling.*

Apollo shift, and all Parnassus shake
At the rude *romancing* Brampton in kes. *Ben.*

The fire the fuel'd, with greater fury burns
Rumbling within. *Dryden.*

Th' melted vapours, that in caverns lay
In vain fought issue from the *rumbling* sky.
Dryden.

—On a sudden there was heard a most dreadful *rumbling* noise within the entrails of the mountain under which the mountain burnt. *Addison.*—Several monarchs have acquainted me, how often they have been mistook from their respective thrones by the *rumbling* of a wheelbarrow.

* RUMBLER. *n. s.* [from *rumble*.] The person or thing that rumbles.

RUMBLING BRIDGE. See DEVON, N° 12.

ROMELI, or } in geography, the same
ROMELIA, } ancient Greece; now a part of Turkey in Europe.

RUMEN, the paunch, or first stomach of those animals as chew the cud; thence called RUMINANTS. See ANIMALS. See ZOOTOMY.

RUMEX, DOCK, in botany, a genus of the hexagynia order, belonging to the hexandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 12th order, *Holoracea*. The calyx is triphyllous; there are three connivent petals, and a triquetrous seed. There are 27 species; of which the most remarkable are these:

1. RUMEX ACUTUS, or sharp-pointed dock (the *oxylapathum* of the shops;) but the roots are stopped with roots of the common dock, which are indifferently gathered by those who dig them in the field, where the species of *butter dock* (from its leaves being used to wrap butter) is much more common than this. The roots of this are slender, and run down right, having out a few small fibres; the stalks rise two feet high, garnished at bottom with leaves inches long, and 1½ broad in the middle. They are rounded at their base, where they are slightly indented, but end in acute points. The joints of the stalks come out alternately long stalks, which sustain the spikes of flowers, which grow in small whorls round the stalks, at about an inch distant.

2. RUMEX ALPINUS, *monk's rhubarb*, grows naturally on the Alps, but has long been cultivated in the gardens of this country. It hath large roots which spread and multiply by their offsets: they are shorter and thicker than the PATIENTIA, of a very dark brown on the outside, and yellow within. The leaves are of the round heart-shape, standing upon long footstalks. The stalks are

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from 1 to 3 feet high; they are thick, and have a few small rourdiſh leaves on the lower part; but the upper part is cloſely garniſhed with ſpikes of white flowers ſtanding erect cloſe to the ſtalks. Theſe appear in the end of May, and are ſucceeded by large triangular ſeeds which ripen in Auguſt.

3. RUMEX AQUATICUS, *the water-dock*, grows naturally in ponds, ditches, and ſtanding waters, in many parts of Britain. It is ſuppoſed to be the *Herba Britannica* of the ancients. It hath large roots which ſtrike deep into the looſe mud, ſending out leaves above two feet long. The ſtalks are 5 or 6 feet high when the plants grow in water, but in dry land ſeldom more than 3, theſe are garniſhed with narrow leaves among the ſpikes of flowers to the top. The flowers ſtand upon ſlender footſtalks, which are reflexed: they are of an herbaceous colour, appear in June, and the ſeeds ripen in autumn.

4. RUMEX PATIENTIA, *patience rhubarb*, was formerly much more cultivated in the Britiſh gardens than at preſent: the roots of this have been uſually uſed for the monk's rhubarb, and it has been thought to be the true kind; but others ſuppoſe the ALPINUS, (N° 2.) to be ſo. The root is large, and divides into many thick fibres; their outer cover is brown, but yellow within, with large reddiſh veins; the leaves are broad, long, and acute-pointed; their footſtalks are of a red colour; the ſtalks riſe 6 or 7 feet high, and divide towards the top into ſeveral erect branches garniſhed with a few narrow leaves terminating in looſe ſpikes of large ſtaminous flowers. Theſe appear in June, and are ſucceeded by pretty large three-cornered ſeeds, whoſe coverings are entire, which ripen in autumn. Theſe plants are but ſeldom cultivated; and ſo eaſily multiply by their numerous ſeeds, that they ſoon become troubleſome weeds where they once get an entrance.

RUMFORD, a town of Eſſex, with a large market for hogs on Monday and Tueſday, and for corn on Wedneſday. It has a fair, June 24. It is 5 miles from Burntwood, 12 ENE. of London, and 17 WSW. of Chelmsford. Lon. 0. 13. E. Lat. 51. 36. N.

RUMILLY, a handſome town of the French county, in the dep. of Mont Blanc, and ci-devant duchy of Savoy; ſeated at the conflux of the Seran and Nepha; five miles from Annecy. The Spaniſh deſtroyed its fortifications, in 1630. Lon. 6. 10. E. Lat. 45. 56. N.

(1.) * RUMINANT. *adj.* [*ruminant*, Fr. *ruminans*, Latin.] Having the property of chewing the cud.—*Ruminant* creatures have a power of diſtributing this periſtaltick motion upwards and downwards. *Ray.*—The deſcription, given of the muſcular part of the gullet, is very exact in *ruminants*, but not in men. *Derham.*

(2.) RUMINANT, in natural hiſtory, is applied to an animal which chews over again what it has eaten before. Peyer, in a treatiſe *De Ruminantibus et Ruminatione*, ſhows that there are ſome animals which really ruminate: as oxen, ſheep, deer, goats, camels, hares, and ſquirrels: and that there are others which only appear to do ſo, as moles, cricketts, bees, beetles, crabs, mullets, &c. The latter claſs, he obſerves, have their ſtomacks compoſed of muſcular fibres, by which the food is ground up and down as in thoſe which really ruminate. Mr Ray obſerves, that ruminants are all four-footed, hairy, and viviparous; ſome with hollow and perpetual horns, others with deciduous ones.

(1.) * *To* RUMINATE. *v. a.* [*rumino*, Latin.] 1. To chew over again. 2. To muſe on; to meditate over and over again.—

'Tis a ſtudied, not a preſent thought,
By duty *ruminated*. *Shak. Ant. and Cleop.*

The condemned Engliſh
Sit patiently, and inly *ruminate*
The morning's danger. *Shakeſpeare.*

Mad with deſire ſhe *ruminates* her ſin. *Dryd.*

(2.) * *To* RUMINATE. *v. n.* [*ruminer*, Fr. *rumino*, Lat.] 1. To chew the cud.—

Others filled with paſture gazing ſat,
Or bedward *ruminating*. *Milton's Par. Loſt.*

—The neceſſity of ſpittle to diſſolve the aliment, appears from the contrivance of nature in making the ſalivary ducts of animals, which *ruminate* or chew the cud, extremely open. *Arbuthnot.*—

On graſſy banks herds *ruminating* lie. *Thomſ.*

2. To muſe; to think again and again.—

To *ruminate* upon their diſcontent. *Fairfax.*

Of ancient prudence here he *ruminates*,
Of riſing kingdoms, and of falling ſtates. *Waller.*

—This circumſtance ſets me a thinking and *ruminating* upon the employments in which men of wit exerciſe themſelves. *Steele to Pope.*—He practiſes a ſlow meditation, and *ruminates* on the ſubject. *Watts on the Mind.*

* RUMINATION. *n. ſ.* [*ruminatio*, Lat. from *ruminate*.] 1. The property or act of chewing the cud.—*Rumination* is given to animals, to enable them at once to lay up a great ſtore of food, and afterwards to chew it. *Arb.* 2. Meditation; reflection.—It is a melancholy of mine own, in which my often *rumination* wraps me in a moſt humerous ſadneſs. *Shak.*—

Retiring, full of *rumination* ſad. *Thomſon.*

RUMI-RAMBA, an extenſive plain of Peru, near Quito; full of large fragments of rocks, thrown from a volcano in Pichinca.

RUM-KEY, one of the BAHAMA ISLANDS. Lon. 74. 17. W Lat. 23. 52. N.

(1.) * *To* RUMMAGE. *v. a.* [*ranmen*, German to empty. *Skinner. rimari*, Lat.] To ſearch; to plunder; to evacuate.—

Our greedy ſeamen *rummage* every hold.
Dryden.

(2.) * *To* RUMMAGE. *v. n.* To ſearch places.—A fox was *rummaging* among a great many carved figures. *L'Eſtrange.*—

Some on antiquated authors pore;
Rummage for ſenſe. *Dryden's Perſius.*

—I have often *rummaged* for old books in Little Britain and Duck-lane. *Swift.*

* RUMMER. *n. ſ.* [*romer*, Dutch.] A glaſs; a drinking cup.—

Imperial Rhine beſtow'd the generous *rummer*.
Philips.

(1.) RUMNEY, or RHYNEY, a river of S. Wales, which riſes in Brecknockſhire, ſeparates the counties of Glamorgan and Monmouth, and falls into the Briſtol Channel, on the SE. of Cardiff.

(2.) RUMNEY. See ROMNEY, N° 1. This town is 71 miles SE. of London, and 2½ NE. of Lydd.

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Lydd. It ſtands on a hill in the middle of the Marſh. It has a market on Sat. and a fair Aug. 21.

(3.) ROMNEY MARSH. See ROMNEY, N° 3. This marſh is 20 miles long and 8 broad, including thoſe of *Welland* and *Gulford*: yet it contains within that compaſs about 45,000 acres of firm fertile land, affording the richeſt paſture in England. The ſheep, fattened on it are larger than thoſe of Leiceſter and Lincolnſhires; and the black cattle are the largeſt in England.

(4.) RUMNEY NEW. See ROMNEY, N° 1.

* RUMOUR. *n. ſ.* [*rumeur*, Fr. *rumor*, Lat.] Flying or popular report; bruit; fame.—

There ran a *rumour*
Of many worthy fellows that were out. *Shak.*

Great is the *rumour* of this dreadful knight,
And his atchievements. *Shak.*

Rumour next and chance
And tumult and confuſion all embroil'd. *Milton.*

She heard an ancient *rumour* fly,
That times to come ſhould ſee the Trojan race
Her Carthage ruin. *Dryden's Æneis.*

* *To* RUMOUR. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To report abroad; to bruit.—

Cateſby, *rumour* it abroad,
That Anne my wife is ſick, and like to die. *Shak.*

All abroad was *rumour'd*, that this day
Samſon ſhould be brought forth. *Milt. Agon.*

—He was *rumour'd* for the author. *Fell.*—

'Twas *rumour'd*,
My father 'ſcap'd from out the citadel. *Dryd.*

* RUMOURER. *n. ſ.* [from *rumour*.] Reporter; ſpreader of news.—

Go ſee this *rumourer* whipt: it cannot be. *Shak.*

(1.) * RUMP. *n. ſ.* [*rumpf*, German.] 1. The end of the back bone; uſed vulgarly of beaſts, and contemptuouſly of human beings.—

At her *rump* ſhe growing had behind
A fox's tail. *Spenſer.*

If his holineſs would thump
His rev'rend bum 'gainſt horſe's *rump*,
He might b' equipt from his own ſtable. *Prior.*

Rumps of beef with virgin honey ſtrew'd. *King.*

Laſt trotted forth the gentle ſwine,
To eaſe her itch againſt the ſtump,
And diſmally was heard to whine,
All as ſhe ſcrubb'd her meazly *rump*. *Swift.*

2. The buttocks.—

Aroint the witch!—the *rump*-fed ronyon cries. *Shakeſp.*

He charg'd him firſt to bind
Crowdero's hands on *rump* behind. *Hudibras.*

(2.) RUMP OF THE SACRIFICES. Moſes had ordained, that the rump and fat of the ſheep that were offered for a peace offering ſhould be put upon the fire of the altar. (Lev. iii. 9. vii. 3. viii. 25. ix. 19.) The rump was eſteemed the moſt delicate part of the animal.

(3.) RUMP PARLIAMENT. See ENGLAND, § 54.

RUMPHIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the triandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking with thoſe of which the order is doubtful. The calyx is trifid; the petals three; the fruit a trilocular plum.

* RUMPLE. *n. ſ.* [*brympelle*, Saxon.] Pucker; the rude plait.—

And change her faultleſs make
For the foul *rumple* of her camel-back. *Dryden.*

* *To* RUMPLE. *v. a.* [*rompelen*, Dutch.] To cruſh or contract into inequalities and contortions; to cruſh together out of ſhape.—

Each vital ſpeck, in which remains
Th' entire, but *rumpled* animal, contains
Organs perplex'd. *Blackmore.*

I *rumpled* petticoats, or tumbled beds. *Pope.*

—Never put on a clean apron, 'till you have *rumpled* your lady's bed for fear of *rumpling* your apron. *Swift.*

RUMSLY, a town of England, in Hampſhire, governed by a mayor, 6 aldermen, 12 burgeſſes, a town clerk and recorder. It has a market Saturday; 3 fairs, on Eaſter Monday, Aug. 1, and Nov. 8. with a manufactory, of ſhalloons, ſeveral paper and corn mills. It is 8 miles NNW. of Southampton, and 74 W. by S. of London. Lon. 1. 31. W. Lat. 51. 1. N.

RUMWELL, a town of England, in Eſſex, NW. of Rayleigh.

RUMWOOD, a town of Nottinghamſhire, in Sherwood Foreſt.

* RUN. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Act of running.—The aſs fetches a *run* at them open-mouth. *L'Eſtrange.* 2. Courſe; motion.—Want of motion, whereby the *run* of humours is ſtayed, cauſeth putrefaction. *Bacon.* 3. Flow; courſe.—He no where uſes any ſoftneſs, or any *run* of ſounding words to pleaſe the ear. *Broome.* 4. Courſe; ceſſes. 5. Way of management; unconſtrained courſe.—Our family muſt have their *run*. *Addiſon.* 6. Long reception; continued ſucceſs.—It is impoſſible for detached papers to have a general *run*, or long continuance, if not diverſified with humour. *Addiſon.* 7. Modiſh clamour.—What a violent *run* there is among too many weak people againſt univerſity education. *Swift.* 8. *At the long run*. In fine; in concluſion; at the end.—They produce ill-conditioned ulcers, for the moſt part, fatal *in the long run* of the diſeaſe. *Wiſeman.*—*At long run*, he that ſets all knaves at work, will have them. *L'Eſtrange.*—Truth will moſt certainly try it *at the long run*. *L'Eſtrange.*—Hath it not proved *at the long run* more for the advantage of his eſtate than truth? *Tillotſon.*

(1.) * *To* RUN. *v. n.* pret. *ran*. [*rinnan*, Saxon; *ſrnan*, Saxon; *rennen*, Dutch.] 1. To move ſwiftly; to ply the legs in ſuch a manner, that both feet are at every ſtep off the ground at the ſame time; to make haſte; to paſs with a quick pace.—Their feet *run* to evil. *Proverbs.* Aban *ran* out unto the man. *Gen.* xxiv. 29.—

Since death's near, and *runs* with ſo ſwift a force,
We muſt meet firſt. *Dryden.*

He *ran* up the ridges of the rocks amain. *Dryden.*

—Let a ſhoe-boy clean your ſhoes and *run* of errands. *Swift.* 2. To uſe the legs in motion. Seldom there is need of this, till young children can *run* about. *Locke.* 3. To move in a hurry.

The prieſt and people *run* about. *Bentley.*

4. To paſs on the ſurface, not through the ſolid. The fire *ran* along upon the ground. *Exodus.* 25. 5. To ruſh violently.—Let not thy voice be heard, leſt angry fellows *run* upon thee. *Job.*

Leſt of the guide bereft, the rudder left
Your ſhip ſhou'd *run* againſt the rocky cliff. *Dryden.*

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—They have avoided that rock, but *run* upon another no leſs dangerous. *Burnet.*—I diſcover thoſe ſhoals of life which are concealed to keep the unwary from *running* upon them. *Addiſon.* 6. To take a courſe at ſea.—*Running* under the iſland Cauda. *Acts*, xxvii. 16. 7. To contend in a race. —A horſe-boy, being lighter than you, may be uſed to *run* races with leſs damage to the horſe. *Swift.* 8. To fly; not to ſtand. It is often allowed by *away* in this ſenſe.—The difference between the valour of the Iriſh rebels and the Spaniards was, that the one *ran away* before they were charged, and the other ſtraight after. *Bacon.*

Downward all like beaſts
Running away at every ſtaſh. *Ben Jonſon.*

The reſt diſpers'd *run*, ſome diſguis'd,
To unknown coaſts. *Daniel.*

They, when they're out of hopes of flying,
Will *run away* from death by dying. *Hudibras.*

Your child ſhrieks, and *runs away* at a frog. —9. To go away by ſtealth. —My conſcience will ſerve me to *run* from this Jew, my maſter. —10. To emit, or let flow any liquid.—

My ſtatues,
Like a fountain, with a hundred ſpouts,
Do *run* pure blood. *Shak.*

I command, that the conduit *run* nothing but claret. *Shak.*—In ſome houſes, wainſcots will ſweat, ſo that they will almoſt *run* with water. —Rivers *run* potable gold. *Milton.*—

Thebes *ran* red with her own natives blood. *Dryden.*

The greateſt veſſel, when full, if you pour in more, it muſt *run* out ſome way, and the more it will run at one ſide, the leſs it *runs* out at the other. *Temple.* 11. To flow; to ſtream; to have current; not to ſtagnate.—Innumerable iſlands are covered with flowers, and interwoven with running ſeas that *ran* among them. *Addiſon.*—

Her fields he cloath'd, and chear'd her chaſtened face
With *running* fountains and with ſpringing graſs. *Addiſon.*

See daiſies open, rivers *run*. *Parnel.*

To be liquid; to be fluid.—In lead melted, when it beginneth to congeal, make a little hole, which put quickſilver wrapped in a piece of lead, and it will fix and *run* no more. *Bacon.*—

The mountain ſtands, nor can the riſing ſun
Unfix her froſts, and teach 'em how to *run*. *Addiſon.*

As wax diſſolves, as ice begins to *run*,
And trickle into drops before the ſun,
So melts the youth. *Addiſon.*

To be fuſible; to melt.—

This iron heart, which no impreſſion took
From wars, melts down, and *runs*, if ſhe but look. *Dryden.*

Suſſex iron ores *run* freely in the fire. *Woodw.*

To fuſe; to melt.—Your iron muſt not burn in the fire; that is, *run* or melt; for then it will be brittle. *Moxon.* 15. To paſs; to proceed.—Who, having *run* through ſo much publick buſineſs, have found out the ſecret ſo little known, that there is time to give it over. *Temple.*—If there remains an eternity to us after the ſhort revolution of time, we ſo ſwiftly *run* over here, 'tis clear, that all the happineſs, that can be imagined in this fleeting ſtate, is not valuable in reſpect of the future. *Locke.* 16. To flow as periods or metre; to have a cadence: as, *the lines* run *ſmoothly*. 17. To go away; to baniſh; to paſs.—As faſt as our time *runs*, we ſhould be very glad in moſt parts of our lives that it *ran* much faſter. *Addiſon.* 18. To have a legal courſe; to be practiſed.—Cuſtoms *run* only upon our goods imported or exported, and that but once for all; whereas intereſt *runs* as well upon our ſhips as goods, and muſt be yearly paid. *Child.* 19. To have a courſe in any direction.—

A hound *runs* counter, and yet draws dry foot well. *Shak.*

Little is the wiſdom, where the flight
So *runs* againſt all reaſon. *Shak.*

—That puniſhment has not the force of a law, in countries where the generally allowed practice *runs* counter to it, is evident. *Locke.*—Had the preſent war *run* on againſt us, and all our attacks upon the enemy had been vain, it might look like a degree of frenzy to be determined on ſo impracticable an undertaking. *Addiſon.* 20. To paſs in thought or ſpeech.—

Through ſuch a train of woes if I ſhould *run*,
The day wou'd ſooner than the tale be done. *Dryden.*

—By reading, a man antedates his life; and this way of *running* up beyond one's nativity, is better than Plato's pre-exiſtence. *Collier.*—Virgil, in his firſt Georgick, has *run* into a ſet of precepts foreign to his ſubject. *Addiſon.*—Raw and injudicious writers propoſe one thing for their ſubject, and *run* off to another. *Felton.* 11. To be mentioned curſorily or in few words.—The whole *runs* on ſhort, like articles in an account. *Arbuthnot.* 22. To have a continual tenour of any kind. —Diſcourſes *ran* thus among the cleareſt obſervers. *Wotton.*—The king's ordinary ſtyle *runneth*, our ſovereign lord the king. *Sanderſon.* 23. To be buſied upon.—

His griſly beard his penſive boſom ſought,
And all on Lauſus *ran* his reſtleſs thought. *Dryd.*

—When we deſire any thing, our minds *run* wholly on the good circumſtances of it. *Swift.* 24. To be popularly known.—Men gave them their own names, by which they *run* a great while in Rome. *Temple.* 25. To have reception, ſucceſs or continuance; as, *the pamphlet* ran *much among the lower people.* 26. To go on by ſucceſſion of parts.—

She ſaw with joy the line immortal *run*,
Each fire impreſt, and glaring in his ſon. *Pope.*

27. To proceed in a train of conduct.—If you ſuſpend your indignation againſt my brother, till you can derive from him better teſtimony of his intent, you ſhould *run* a certain courſe. *Shak.* 28. To paſs into ſome change.—It is really deſirable, that there ſhould be ſuch a being in the world as takes care of the frame of it, that it do not *run* into confuſion, and ruin mankind? *Tillotſon.*—

Have I not cauſe to rave, and beat my breaſt,
To rend my heart with grief, and *run* diſtracted? *Addiſon.*

29. To paſs.—We have many evils to prevent, and much danger to *run* through. *Taylor.* 30. To proceed in a certain order.—

Day yet wants much of his race to *run*. *Milt.*

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Thus in a circle *runs* the peasant's pain,
And the year rolls within itself again. *Dryden.*
—This church is very rich in relicks, which *run* up as high as Daniel and Abraham. *Addison.*—Milk by boiling will change to yellow, and *run* through all the intermediate degrees, till it stops in an intense red. *Arbuthnot.* 31. To be in force.—The process *runneth* against him. *Bacon.*—The time of instance shall not commence or *run* till after contestation of suit. *Ayliffe.* 32. To be generally received.—Neither was he ignorant what report *ran* of himself. *Knolles.* 33. To be carried on in any manner.—Concessions, that *run* as high as any, the most charitable protestants make. *Atterbury.*—In popish countries the power of the clergy *runs* higher. *Ayliffe.* 34. To have a track or course.—Searching the ulcer with my probe, the sinus *run* up above the orifice. *Wiseman.*—Those parts of the mines, where metalline veins *run*. *Boyle.* 35. To pass progressively.—The planets do not of themselves move in curve lines, but are kept in them by some attractive force, which, if once suspended, they would for ever *run* out in right lines. *Cheyne.* 36. To make a gradual progress.—

A low murmur *runs* along the field. *Pope.*

37. To be predominant.—This *run* in the head of a late writer of natural history. *Woodward.* 38. To tend in growth.—A man's nature *runs* either to herbs or weeds. *Bacon.* 39. To grow exuberantly.—Joseph is a fruitful bough, whose branches *run* over the wall. *Gen.* xlix. 22.—Study your race, or the soil of your family will dwindle into cits, or *run* into wits. *Tatler.*—If the richness of the ground cause turnips to *run* to leaves, treading down the leaves will help their rooting. *Mortimer.*—In some, who have *run* up to men without a liberal education, many great qualities are darkened. *Felton.*—Magnanimity may *run* up to profusion. *Pope.* 40. To excern pus or matter.—Whether his flesh *run* with his issue, or be stopped, it is his uncleanness. *Lev.* xiii. 3. 41. To become irregular; to change to something wild.—Many have *run* out of their wits for women. 1 *Esdr.* iv.—

The muse *ran* mad to see her exil'd lord.
Granville.

42. To get by artifice or fraud.—

Hath publick faith, like a young heir,
For this taken up all sorts of ware,
And *run* int' ev'ry tradesman's book? *Hudibr.*

—*Run* in trust, and pay for it out of your wages. *Swift.* 43. To fall by haste, passion, or folly into fault or misfortune.—

If thou rememb'rest not the slightest folly,
That ever love did make thee *run* into;
Thou hast not lov'd *Shak.*

—Solyman himself, in punishing the perjury of another, *ran* into wilful perjury himself. *Knolles.*—From shot ching it right, come all those mistakes we *run* into in our endeavours after happiness. *Locke.* 44. To fall; to pass; to make transition.—In the middle of a rainbow, the colours are sufficiently distinguished; but near the borders they *run* into one another. *Watts.* 45. To have a general tendency.—Temperate climates *run* into moderate governments. *Swift.* 46. To proceed as on a ground or principle.—Upon that the apostle's argument *runs*. *Atterbury.* 47. To go on with violence.—Tarquin, *running* into all the methods of tyranny, after a cruel reign was expelled. *Swift.* 48. *To* RUN *after*. To search for; to endeavour at, though out of the way.—The mind, upon the suggestion of any new motion, *runs after* ideas to make it the clearer to itself. *Locke.* 49. RUN *away with*. To hurry without control. Thoughts will not be directed what objects to pursue, but *run away with* a man in pursuit of those ideas they have in view. *Locke.* 50. To RUN *in with*. To close; to comply.—Though he did *run in with* the first reformers of learning, in their opposition to Aristotle; yet he has given us a plausible system. *Baker.* 51. *To* RUN *on*. To be continued.—If, through our too much fecundity, the same should *run on*, soon might we feel our estate brought to those lamentable terms. *Howell.* 52. *To* RUN *on*. To continue the same course.

Running on with vain prolixity. *Dryden.*

53. *To* RUN *over*. To be so full as to overflow.

He fills his famish'd maw, his mouth *runs*
With unchew'd morsels. *Locke.*

54. *To* RUN *over*. To be so much as to overflow.—Milk while it boils, or wine while it works, *run over* the vessels they are in. *Digby.* 55. *To* RUN *over*. To recount cursorily.—I shall *run* them *over* slightly. *Ray.*—I shall not *run over* all the particulars, that would shew what pains are taken to corrupt children. *Locke.* 56. *To* RUN *over*. To consider cursorily.—These four every man should *run over*, before he censure the works. *Watts.*—If we *run over* the other nations of Europe, we shall only pass through so many different scenes of poverty. *Addison.* 57. *To* RUN *through*. To run through.—Should a man *run over* the whole circle of earthly pleasures, he would be forced to complain that pleasure was not satisfying. *South.* 58. *To* RUN *out*. To be at an end; when a lease had *run out*, he stipulated with the tenant to resign up twenty acres, without lessening his rent. *Swift.* 59. *To* RUN *out*. To spend exuberantly.—Infective animals, for want of food, *run* all *out* into legs. *Hammond.*—The zeal of some *runs out* into suckers. *Taylor.*—Some papers written with regularity; others *run out* into the wildness of essays. *Spectator.* 60. *To* RUN *out*. To expatiate.—Nor is it sufficient to *run out* in beautiful degressions, unless they are sometimes a piece with the main design of the Georgics. *Addison.*—On all occasions, the *run out* extravagantly in praise of Hocus. *Arbuthnot.*—They have their text, and *run out* upon the power of pope. *Baker.*—He shews his judgment in omitting his fancy *run out* into long descriptions. *Broome.* 61. *To* RUN *out*. To be wasted or hausted.—

He hath *run out* himself. *Ben Jonson.*
Th' estate *runs out* and mortgages are made. *Dryden.*

62. *To* RUN *out*. To grow poor by expence disproportionate to income.—

From growing riches with good cheer,
To *running out* by starving here.
Had her stock been less, no doubt,
She must have long ago *run out*. *Dryden.*

(2.) * *To* RUN, *v. a.* 1. To pierce; to stab. Poor Romeo is already dead, *run* through the

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with a love ſong. *Shak.*—The next morning he received a challenge, and before twelve he was run through the body. *Spectator.*—I have known ſeveral inſtances, where the lungs *run* through with a ſword have been conſolidated and healed. *Sharp.* 3. To force; to drive.—This will run us into particulars. *Locke.*—This muſt not *run* us by an overgreat ſhyneſs of difficulties, into a way of launtering about ordinary things. *Locke.*—A vitiative perſon *runs* himſelf into great inconveniences. *Ray.* 3. To force into any way or form. Others, accuſtomed to retired ſpeculations, *run* their philoſophy into metaphyſical notions. *Locke.*—Its cold *runs* the thin juices into thick ſizy ſubſtances. *Cheyne.*—The daily complaiſance of workmen *runs* them into variety of expreſſions. *Swift.* 4. To drive with violence.—They *ran* their ſhip aground. *Acts*, xxvii. 41.—The Turks were enforced to *run* both their gallies on ſhore. *Knolles.* 5. To melt; to fuſe.—The pureſt gold will be *run* and waſhed. *Felton.* 6. To incur; to fall into.—He *runneth* two dangers. *Bacon.*—

The tale I tell is only of a cock,
Who had not *run* the hazard of his life;
And he believ'd his dream, and not his wife.
Dryden.

Conſider the hazard I have *run* to ſee you here. *Swift.*—What a dreadful danger he *runs*. *Calamy.* I ſhall *run* the danger of being ſuſpected to have forgot what I am about. *Locke.* 7. To venture to hazard.—He would himſelf be in the hands to receive them, and *run* his fortune with them. *Clarendon.*—

Take here her reliques and her gods, to *run*
With them thy fate. *Denham.*

Reſolv'd, and willing under my command,
To *run* all hazards both of ſea and land. *Dryd.* 8. To import or export without duty.—Heavy impoſitions leſſen the import, and are a ſtrong temptation of *running* goods. *Swift.* 9. To proceed in thought.—To *run* the world back to its original, and view nature in its cradle, is a work too great for mortal enquiry. *South.*—The world hath not ſtood ſo long, but we can ſtill look up to artleſs ages. *Burnet.*—I would gladly underſtand the formation of a ſoul, and *run* it up to *punctum ſaliens*. *Collier.*—I preſent you with ſome particular thoughts, rather than *run* a needleſs diſcourſe upon the ſubject at length. *Felton.* 10. To paſs.—Some Engliſh ſpeakers *run* their hands into their pockets. *Addiſon.* 11. *To* RUN *down.* To chaſe to wearineſs.—They *run down* a ſtag, and the aſs divided the prey very honeſtly. *L'Eſtr.* *To* RUN *down.* To cruſh; to overbear.—

By the fate of war *run down.* *Hudibras.*

When we ſee a man overborn and *run down* by the croud, we cannot but pity the perſon, while we abhor the crime. *South.*—It is no ſuch hard matter to convince or *run down* a drunkard. *South.*—

The common cry
Then ran you *down* for your rank loyalty. *Dryd.*
Chriſtian is *run down* by the licenſe of theſe times. *Berkley.* 13. This is one of the words which ſerves for uſe when other words are wanting, and therefore obtained a great multiplicity of relations and intentions; but it may be obſerved always to retain much of its primitive idea, and to imply progreſſion, and, for the moſt part, progreſſive violence.

(3.) *To* RUN A MUCK. See MUCK, § 1, 2.

* RUNAGATE. *n. ſ.* [corrupted from *renegat*, Fr.] A fugitive; rebel; apoſtate.—

The wretch compel'd, a *runagate* became.
Sidney.

—God letteth the *runagates* continue in ſcarceneſs. *Pſalm* lxviii. 6.—

More noble than that *runagate* to your bed.
Shak.

—The Jews, after they had crucified the Son of God, became *runagates*. *Raleigh.*

* RUNAWAY. *n. ſ.* [*run* and *away.*] One that flies from danger; one who departs by ſtealth; a fugitive.—

The cloſe night doth play the *runaway*,
And we are ſtaid for. *Shak.*

Thou *runaway*, thou coward, art thou fled? *Shak.*

(1.) * RUNDLE. *n. ſ.* [corrupted from *roundle*, of *round.*] 1. A round; a ſtep of a ladder.—We are to conſider the ſeveral ſteps and *rundles* we are to aſcend by. *Duppa.* 2. A peritrochium; ſomething put round an axis.—The third mechanical faculty, ſtiled *axis in peritrochio*, conſiſts of an axis or cylinder, having a *rundle* about it, wherein are faſtened divers ſpokes, by which the whole may be turned round. *Wilkins.*

(2.) RUNDLE, Thomas, D. D. Biſhop of Derry, in Ireland, a pious and reſpectable prelate. A ſeries of his *Letters* was printed after his death, from which his character appears amiable and ingenuous. He died in 1743.

(1.) * RUNDLET. *n. ſ.* [perhaps *runlet* or *roundlet.*] A ſmall barrel.—Set a *rundlet* of verjuice over againſt the ſun in ſummer, to ſee whether it will ſweeten. *Bacon.*

(2.) *A* RUNDLET, or RUNLET, is a ſmall veſſel, containing an uncertain quantity of any liquor, from 3 to 20 gallons.

* RUNG. pret. and part. paſſ. of *ring.*—

The heav'ns and all the conſtellations *rung*.
Milton.

RUNG-HEADS, in a ſhip, are made a little bending to direct the ſweep or mold of the futtocks and navel timbers; for here the lines begin which make the compaſs and bearing of the ſhip.

RUNGS, in a ſhip, the ſame with the floor or ground timbers; being the timbers which conſtitute her floor; and are bolted to the keel, whoſe ends are rung-heads.

RUNIC, a term applied to the language and letters of the ancient Goths, Danes, and other northern nations. See ALPHABET, and *Pl.* 2d.

* RUNNEL. *n. ſ.* [from *run.*] A rivulet; a ſmall brook.—

A little *runnel* tumbled neere the place.
Fairfax.

(1.) * RUNNER. *n. ſ.* [from *run.*] 1. One that runs. 2. A racer.—

Fore-ſpent with toil, as *runners* with a race,
I lay me down a little while to breathe. *Shak.*

The rival *runners* without order ſtand. *Dryd.* 3. A meſſenger.—To Tonſon or Lintot his lodgings are better known than to the *runners* of the poſt-

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poſt-office. *Swift.* 4. A ſhooting ſprig.—In every root there will be one *runner*. *Mortimer.* 5. One of the ſtones of a mill.—The mill goes much heavier, by the ſtone they call the *runner* being ſo large. *Mortimer.* 6. [*Erythropus.*] A bird. *Ainſworth.*

(2.) RUNNER, in the ſea language, a rope belonging to the garnet and the two bolt tackles. It is reeved in a ſingle block joined to the end of a pendant: it has at one end a hook to hitch into any thing; and, at the other, a double block, into which is reeved the fall of the tackle, or the garnet, by which means it purchaſes more than the tackle would without it.

(1.) * RUNNET. *n. ſ.* [*gerunnen*, Saxon, coagulated.] A liquor made by ſteeping the ſtomach of a calf in hot water, and uſed to coagulate milk for curds and cheeſe. It is ſometimes written *rennet*.—The milk of the fig hath the quality of *runnet* to gather cheeſe. *Bacon.*—It coagulates the blood, as *runnet* turns milk. *More.*—The milk in the ſtomach of calves, coagulated by the *runnet*, is rendered fluid by the gall in the duodenum. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) RUNNET, or RENNET, in the animal œconomy, is the concreted milk found in the ſtomachs of ſucking quadrupeds, which as yet have received no other nouriſhment than their mother's milk. In ruminating animals, which have ſeveral ſtomachs, it is generally found in the laſt, though ſometimes in the next to it. If the runnet is dried in the ſun, and then kept cloſe, it may be preſerved in perfection for years. Not only the runnet itſelf, but alſo the ſtomach in which it is found, curdles milk without any previous preparation. But the common method is, to take the inner membrane of a calf's ſtomach, to clean it well, to ſalt and hang it up in brown paper: when this is uſed, the ſalt is waſhed off, then it is macerated in a little water during the night, and in the morning the infuſion is poured into the milk to curdle it. (See CHEESE.) The medicinal qualities of runnet are its acrimony, its reſolvent power, and its uſefulneſs in ſurfeits from food of difficult digeſtion.

(1.) * RUNNING. *adj.* Kept for the race.—He will no more complain of the frowns of the world, than he will complain of the want of a laced coat, or a *running* horſe. *Law.*

(2.) RUNNING THRUSH, among farriers. See FARRIERY.

* RUNNION. *n. ſ.* [*rognant*, Fr. ſcrubbing.] A paltry ſcurvy wretch.—

You witch! you pouleat; you *runnion! Shak.*

RUNNYMEAD, a celebrated mead, near Egham, in Surry, where king John was compelled to ſign MAGNA CHARTA, the *Great Charter of Engliſh Liberty*, and the *Charta de Foreſta*. See ENGLAND, § 25; FOREST, § 6; and MAGNA CHARTA. On this mead are held annual horſe-races, which are generally attended by their Majeſties and the royal family.

* RUNT. *n. ſ.* [*runte*, in the Teutonick dialects, ſignifies a bull or cow, and is uſed in contempt by us for ſmall cattle; as *keſyl*, the Welſh term for a meaſe, is uſed for a worthleſs horſe.] Any animal ſmall below the natural growth of the kind.—

Reforming Tweed
Hath ſent us *runts* even of her church's breed
Clarendon.
—Of tame pigeons, are croppers, carriers, ... *runts*. *Walton.*—This overgrown *runt* has ſtru... off his heels. *Addiſon.*

RUPEE, *n. ſ.* a ſilver coin current in the E... Indies, worth about 2s. 6d.

RUPEL, a river of the French empire, in t... dep. of the Two Nethes, and ci-devant Auſtr... Netherlands; formed by the junction of the N... KAR with the DEMER: after which, the uni... ſtreams take the name of *Rupel*, and, runn... from E. to W. fall into the Scheldt at Rup... monde.

RUPELMONDE, a town of the French e... pire, in the department of the Two Nethes, a... ci-devant province of Auſtrian Flanders; ſit... on the Scheldt, over againſt the mouth of t... Rupel; 8 miles SW. of Antwerp, and 24 NE... Ghent. Lon. 4. 23. E. Lat. 51. 7. N.

(1.) RUPERT, or ROBERT. See ROBERT, 10.

(2.) RUPERT, prince palatine of the Rh... &c. grandſon of king James I. of England, w... born in 1619. (See ROBERT, N° 11.) He g... proofs of his bravery at the age of 13; an... 1642 came over into England, and offered hi... vice to king Charles I. his uncle, who gave h... command in his army. At Edgehill he cha... with incredible bravery, and made a great ... ter of the parliamentarians. In 1643 he t... the town of Cirenceſter; obliged the gover... Litchfield to ſurrender; and having joine... brother prince Maurice, reduced Briſtol in ... days, and paſſed to the relief of Newark. I... he marched to relieve York, where he gav... parliamentarians battle, and entirely defe... their right wing; but Cromwell charged the... quis of Newcaſtle with ſuch an irreſiſtible f... that prince Rupert was entirely defeated. A... this the prince put himſelf into Briſtol, whi... rendered to Fairfax by a gallant reſiſtance... king was ſo enraged at the loſs of this c... contrary to his expectation, that he recal... prince Rupert's commiſſions, and ſent him... to go out of the kingdom. In 1648 he w... France, was highly complimented by that c... and kindly received by king Charles II. wh... there at the time. Afterward he was confi... admiral of the king's navy; infeſted the E... ſhips, many of which he took; and having... gaged with De Ruyter, obliged him to fly... died in 1682, and was interred in king H... VII's chapel, Weſtminſter, with great ma... cence. Mr Grainger obſerves, that he poſſ... in a high degree that kind of courage whi... better in an attack than a defence; and is b... dapted to the land ſervice than that of the... where precipitate valour is in its element. H... dom engaged but he gained the advantage, w... he generally loſt by purſuing it too far. He... better qualified to ſtorm a citadel, or ever... mount a breach, than patiently to ſuſtain a ſi... and would have furniſhed an excellent hand... general of a cooler head. He took the hint... his diſcovery of *mezzotinto*, from a ſoldier ſc... ing his ruſty fuſil. The firſt mezzotinto pla...

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r published, was done by his highneſs, and may ſeen in the firſt edition of *Evelyn's Sculptra*. e ſecret is ſaid to have been ſoon after diſcoed by Sherwin, an engraver, who made uſe of nded file for laying the ground. The prince, on ſeeing one of his prints, ſuſpected that his aſt had lent him his tool, which was a chand roller; but upon receiving full ſatisfaction ne contrary, he made him a preſent of it. The r was afterwards laid aſide; and an inſtrut with a crenelled edge, ſhaped like a ſhoer's cutting knife, was uſed inſtead of it. He invented a metal called by his name, in which were caſt; and contrived an excellent me- of boring them, for which purpoſe a water was erected at Hackney-marſh, to the great iment of the undertaker, as the ſecret died the illuſtrious inventor.

.) RUPERT, in geography, a townſhip of Ver-t, in Bennington county; containing 1033 ci-s in 1795.

.) RUPERT, a river of N. America, which into Hudſon's Bay.

) RUPERT BAY, or RUPERT'S BAY, a ſafe capacious bay of Dominica, on the NW. which affords good ſhelter for ſhipping.

) RUPERT FORT, or RUPERT'S FORT, a f N. America, belonging to the Hudſon's ompany, ſeated on the RUPERT, (N° 4.) at uth, on the E. ſide of the bottom of Hud-ay. Lon. 80. o. W. Lat. 51. 3. N.

PERT'S DROPS, a ſort of glaſs drops with ad ſlender tails, which burſt to pieces on aking off thoſe tails in any part; invented ince Rupert. Concerning the cauſe of this ing phenomenon, ſcarce any thing that bears t appearance of probability has been offer-Their explofion is attended in the dark with of light; and by being boiled in oil, the are deprived of their explofive quality.

PICAPRA, (from *rupes*, a rock, and *capra*, *q. d.* the *goat of the rocks*, the trivial of the Chamois Goat. See CAPRA, N°

PIN, or RAPIN, a town of Germany, in the ate of Brandenburg, and capital of a duchy ame name. It is divided into the Old and w.

PIN, NEW, is ſeated on a lake, and become derable place of trade, with a manufactory h. It is alſo noted for brewers. Lon. 13. Lat. 53. o. N.

UPIN, OLD, was an ancient caſtle, very miſhed, the late king of Pruſſia, before his death, reſiding there.

'PIA, in botany, a genus of the tetragynia order, belonging to the tetrandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 15th order, *Inundatæ*. There is neither calyx nor corolla; but four pedicellated ſeeds.

RUPPLE, or RUPEL. See RUPEL.

RUPTA, *n. f.* in old Law Latin, a troop; a company of ſoldiers. *Aſh.*

RUPTILE, *adj.* [from *ruptus*, Lat. broken.] eaſily broken; capable of being broken.

* RUPTION. *n. f.* [*ruptus*, Lat.] Breach; ſolution of continuity.—The plenitude of veſſels or plethora cauſes an extravaſation of blood, by *ruption* or apertion. *Wiſeman.*

RUPTORY, *n. f.* in ſurgery and pharmacy, a corroſive medicine; a cauſtic. *Aſh.*

RUPTURA, *n. f.* in old records, plowed land.

(1.) * RUPTURE. *n. f.* [*rupture*, Fr. from *ruptus*, Lat.] 1. The act of breaking; ſtate of being broken; ſolution of continuity.—

Th' egg,
Burſting with kindly *rupture*, forth diſclos'd,
Their callow young. *Milton.*

—A lute ſtring will bear a hundred weight without *rupture*, but at the ſame time cannot exert its elaſticity. *Arbuthnot.*—The diets of infants ought to be extremely thin, ſuch as lengthen the fibres without *rupture*. *Arbuthnot.* 2. A breach of peace; open hoſtility.—When the parties, that divide the commonwealth, come to a *rupture*, it ſeems every man's duty to chuſe a ſide. *Swift.* 3. Burſtenneſs; hernia; preternatural eruption of the gut.—The *rupture* of the groin or ſcrotum is the moſt common ſpecies of hernia. *Sharp.*

(2.) RUPTURE, in ſurgery. See HERNIA; MEDICINE, under HERNIA, and SURGERY, *Index*.

* *To* RUPTURE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To break; to burſt; to ſuffer diſruption.—The veſſels of the brain and membranes, if *ruptured*, abſorb the extravaſated blood. *Sharp.*

(1.) * RUPTUREWORT. *n. f.* [*herniaria*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) RUPTURE-WORT, in botany. See HERNIARIA.

* RURAL. *adj.* [*rural*, Fr. *ruralis*, from *rura*, Lat.] Country; exiſting in the country, not in cities; ſuiting the country; reſembling the country.—

Joining your ſweet voice to the *rural* muſick
of deſert. *Sidney.*

Here is a *rural* fellow,
That will not be deny'd your highneſs' preſence:
He brings you figs. *Shak.*

We turn
To where the ſilver Thames firſt *rural* grows.
Thomſon.

RURAL ECONOMY,

AGRICULTURE, OR HUSBANDRY.

NAMES AND DEFINITIONS.

RURAL ECONOMY is uſed ſynonymouſly with AGRICULTURE and HUSBANDRY, to expreſs that moſt uſeful and neceſſary of all arts, the art of CULTIVATING THE GROUND. It is from neceſſity, however, rather than choice, that we have adopted this term, as the general title of our Treatiſe

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Treatiſe on this art and Science, in preference to the more uſual terms of AGRICULTURE and HUSBANDRY. Under the latter article, we mentioned the reaſon of our poſtponing the whole treatiſe to this part of the work; and, therefore, without farther repetition, we proceed to lay before our readers, a conciſe but comprehenſive account of this valuable branch of art and induſtry.

AGRICULTURE is defined by a late elegant writer on the ſubject, (Robert Forſyth, Eſq.) in his *Syſtem of Agriculture*, "The art of making the earth produce in large quantities, and in the greateſt perfection of which their nature is capable, thoſe vegetables which are neceſſary to the ſubſiſtence, or uſeful for the accommodation, of mankind. Agriculture differs from Gardening in this reſpect, that the latter is chiefly occupied in rearing ſmall quantities of the nicer and more delicate vegetables, which are rather valued as objects of luxury, than as articles of food: (See GARDENING.) Whereas the Agriculturiſt labours upon a larger ſcale, with a view to ſupply himſelf and his countrymen with the neceſſaries of life."

HUSBANDRY has been defined, by thoſe who make a diſtinction between *huſbandry* and *agriculture*, "The buſineſs of a Farmer, or of one who lives by cultivating the ground. In this view it includes not only AGRICULTURE, but ſeveral other branches connected with it, ſuch as the rearing of cattle, the management of the dairy, making butter and cheeſe, raiſing flax, timber, &c. the management of bees, and a number of other articles."—"Agriculture, (they add,) properly ſo called, treats not only of the cultivation of different ſoils, and preparing them for yielding the largeſt crop of any kind of vegetable; but it belongs to HUSBANDRY to make choice of the ſoil moſt proper for each different vegetable, and to manage matters ſo, that each ſoil may carry what it is beſt adapted for; ſo that on the whole the produce of the farm may be as advantageous as poſſible."

Without diſputing the propriety of theſe diſtinctions between theſe two important branches of this art, though Mr Forſyth, throughout his ingenious Syſtem, ſeems to uſe the terms *Agriculturiſt* and *Huſbandman* ſynonymouſly, our readers will agree with us, that the general title we have adopted of RURAL ECONOMY is *peculiarly* expreſſive, as comprehending *all* the various branches of both AGRICULTURE and HUSBANDRY above enumerated, with many more that might be added, and will be noticed, in the ſequel of this treatiſe.

Before entering upon the theory or practice of this moſt uſeful art, it is proper to give a general ſketch of

The HISTORY *of* RURAL ECONOMY.

"No branch of hiſtory (ſays Mr Forſyth,) is more inſtructive, nor conſequently more important, than that which explains the progreſs of the human mind, in the diſcovery and improvement of the uſeful arts. As the art of Agriculture, in point of utility, ranks above all others, a detail of the efforts by which ingenious men have brought it to its preſent degree of perfection, would undoubtedly prove extremely intereſting. It has hitherto, however, been one of the misfortunes of mankind, that, in conſequence of a falſe taſte they have beſtowed more attention and applauſe upon great talents or ingenuity, when exerted in the arts of *deſtruction*, than when employed in deviſing the means of giving plenty and felicity nations. The writings of hiſtorians and poets filled with the actions of men, who, under the influence of an inſatiable luſt of dominion, have waſted cities and provinces, and have defaced the faireſt monuments of human genius and induſtry while the beneficent enterprizes and efforts of thoſe men are neglected or forgotten, who invented the inſtruments of agriculture, who ſelected or imported into their country the plants moſt worthy of cultivation, or who drained morasses, gave fertility to barren waſtes, and pointed out the beſt modes of preſerving and augmenting the productive powers of the ſoil.

"Mankind have ſuffered ſeverely in conſequence of their abſurd admiration of ſucceſsful ambition, and the applauſe which they beſtow upon it. By this applauſe they in every age tempt reſtleſs individuals to lay ſchemes for the deſtruction, and to glory in the debaſement and miſery which they bring upon large portions of the human race. It were well, therefore, if the friends of humanity could contrive to direct this falſe taſte, by calling from obſcurity, and beſtowing a juſt portion of renown, upon the friends of mankind, whoſe labours have in ancient or modern times been directed towards promoting the beſt intereſts of mankind by the improvement of this moſt important of all arts."

The antiquity of AGRICULTURE is undoubtedly beyond that of all others; for we are informed by Scripture, that Adam was ſent into the garden of Eden *to till the ground*. It would be abſurd, however, to ſuppoſe that he was acquainted with all the methods of ploughing, harrowing, fallowing, &c. which are now made uſe of; and it would be equally ſo to imagine that he uſed ſuch clumſy and unartful inſtruments as wooden hooks, horns of oxen, &c. to dreſs the ground, which were afterwards employed for that purpoſe by certain ſavages.

The prodigious length of life which the antediluvians enjoyed, muſt have been very favourable to the advancement of arts and ſciences, eſpecially agriculture, to which it behoved them to apply themſelves early and aſſiduouſly, to procure their ſubſiſtence. It is probable, therefore, that, even in the antediluvian world, arts and ſciences had made great progreſs, nay, may be farther advanced in ſome reſpects than they are at preſent. The diſcovery of metallurgy, muſic, and inſtrumental muſic, by the deſcendants of Cain, as recorded by Moſes, afford a ſtrong probability of this having been the caſe.

But by the terrible cataſtrophe of the deluge, which overwhelmed the whole world, many ſciences would be entirely loſt, and agriculture would ſuffer; as it was impoſſible that Noah and his children could put in practice, or perhaps know, all the different methods of cultivating the ground that had been formerly uſed. The common methods, however, we cannot but ſuppoſe

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have been known to him and his children, and by them tranſmitted to their poſterity: ſo that as long as mankind continued in one body without being diſperſed into different nations, the arts, agriculture eſpecially, would neceſſarily advance; and that they did ſo, is evident from the undertaking of the tower of Babel. It is from the diſperſion of mankind conſequent upon the confuſion of tongues, that we muſt date the origin of moſt nations. In all ſocieties where different arts are cultivated, there are ſome perſons who have a kind of general knowledge of moſt of the arts practiſed through the whole ſociety, while others are in a manner ignorant of every one of them. If we ſuppoſe a few people of underſtanding to ſeparate from the reſt, and become the leaders of a nation, it will probably be a civilized one, and the arts will begin to flouriſh from their origin; but, if a nation is founded by others whoſe intellects are in a manner callous to every human ſcience (and of this kind there are many in the moſt learned countries), the little knowledge or memory of arts that were among their original founders will be loſt, and ſuch a people will continue in a ſtate of barbariſm for many ages, unleſs the arts be brought to them from other nations.

From theſe or ſimilar cauſes, all nations of eſtimable antiquity have not been equally ſavage, nor have we any reaſon for concluding that all nations were originally ſavages, and unſkilled in agriculture; though as we know not the original inſtruments of huſbandry uſed by mankind when living in ſociety, we cannot fix the date of the improvements in this art. Different nations have always been in a different ſtate of civilization; and agriculture, like other arts, has always been in different degrees of improvement among different nations at the ſame time.

From the earlieſt accounts of the eaſtern nations, we have reaſon to think, that agriculture was at all times been underſtood by them in conſiderable perfection; as they were always ſupplied not only with the neceſſaries, but the greateſt luxuries of life. As ſoon as the deſcendants of ABRAHAM were ſettled in Paleſtine, they generally became huſbandmen, from the chiefs of the tribe of Judah to the loweſt branch of the family of Benjamin. High birth or rank did not then give any diſtinction, for agriculture was conſidered as the moſt honourable of all employments; witneſs the illuſtrious examples of GIDEON, SAUL, and DAVID.

The CHALDEANS, who inhabited the country where agriculture had its birth, carried that valuable art to a degree of excellence unknown in former times. They cultivated their lands with great aſſiduity, and ſeem to have found out means of reſtoring fertility to an exhauſted ſoil, by having plentiful harveſts in ſucceſſion; on which account they were not obliged, as their predeceſſors had been, to change their ſituations, to procure a ſufficiency for themſelves and their numerous flocks and herds.

The EGYPTIANS, who, from the natural fertility of their country by the overflowing of the Nile, raiſed annually vaſt quantities of corn, were ſenſible of the bleſſings reſulting from agriculture, that they aſcribed the invention of that art to OSIRIS. They alſo regarded ISIS, their ſecond deity, as the diſcoverer of the uſe of wheat and barley, which before grew wild in the fields, and were not applied by that people to the purpoſes of food. Their ſuperſtitious gratitude was carried ſo far, as to worſhip thoſe animals which were employed in tillage; and even to the produce of their lands, as leeks, onions, &c.

The divine honours paid to BACCHUS in INDIA were derived from the ſame ſource, he being conſidered in that country as the inventor of planting vineyards, and the other arts attendant upon agriculture.

It is alſo related of the ancient PERSIANS, on the moſt reſpectable authority, that their kings laid aſide their grandeur once every month to eat with huſbandmen. This is a ſtriking inſtance of the high eſtimation in which they held agriculture; for at that time arts were practiſed among that people in great perfection, particularly thoſe of weaving, needle work, and embroidery. The precepts of the religion taught by their ancient magi, or prieſts, included the practice of agriculture. The *ſaint* among them was obliged to work out his ſalvation by purſuing all the labours of agriculture: And it was a maxim of the Zendaveſta, that he who ſows the ground with care and diligence, acquires a greater degree of religious merit, than he could have gained by the repetition of 10,000 prayers.

The PHENICIANS, ſo well known in ſcripture by the name of PHILISTINES, were alſo remarkable for their attention to, and ſkill in agriculture. But finding themſelves too much diſturbed and confined by the incurſions and conqueſts of the Iſraelites, they ſpread themſelves throughout the greateſt part of the Mediterranean iſlands, and carried with them their knowledge in the arts of cultivation.

MAGO, a famous general of the CARTHAGINIANS, is ſaid to have written no leſs than 28 books on the ſubject; which Columella tells us were tranſlated into Latin by the expreſs order of the Roman ſenate. Ancient writers ſay that CERES was born in Sicily, where ſhe firſt invented the arts of tillage and of ſowing corn. For this eſſential ſervice, ſhe was, agreeably to the ſuperſtition of thoſe ages, deified, and worſhipped as the goddeſs of plenty. The truth of this is, that in the time of Ceres, the iſland, through her endeavours and the induſtry of the people, became very fruitful in corn; and agriculture was there eſteemed ſo honourable an employment, that even their kings did not diſdain to practiſe it. But time, which gave birth to arts, often cauſed them to be forgotten when they were removed from the place of their origin. The deſcendants of Noah, who ſettled in Europe, doubtleſs carried their knowledge of agriculture with them into the regions which they ſucceſſively occupied. But thoſe who took poſſeſſion of Greece were ſuch an uncivilized race, that they fed on roots, herbs, and acorns, after the manner of beaſts. Pelaſgus had taught them the culture of the oak, and the uſe of acorns as food; for which ſervice, divine honours were paid him by the people.

The ATHENIANS, who were the firſt people

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that acquired any tincture of politeneſs, taught the uſe of corn to the reſt of the Greeks. They alſo inſtructed them how to cultivate the ground, and to prepare it for the reception of the ſeed, as had been taught them by TRIPTOLEMUS. As the arts of cultivation increaſed, and the bleſſings they afforded became generally experienced, the people ſoon preferred them to whatever the ravages of conqueſt, and the depredations of ſavage life, could procure. Accordingly the Athenian kings, thinking it more glorious to govern a ſmall ſtate wiſely, than to aggrandize themſelves, and enlarge the extent of their dominions by foreign conqueſts, withdrew their ſubjects from war, and moſtly employed them in cultivating the earth. Thus, by continued application, they brought agriculture to a conſiderable degree of perfection, and reduced it to an art.

HESIOD is the earlieſt we know of among the Greeks who wrote on this intereſting ſubject. According to the cuſtom of the Oriental authors, he wrote in poetry, and embelliſhed his poem with luxuriant deſcription and ſublime imagery. He calls his poem *Works and Days*, becauſe agriculture requires exact obſervations on times and ſeaſons. XENOPHON has alſo, in his *Oeconomics*, remarked, that agriculture is the nurſing mother of the arts. For, ſays he, "where agriculture ſucceeds proſperouſly, there the arts thrive; but where the earth neceſſarily lies uncultivated, there the other arts are deſtroyed." Other eminent Greek writers upon agriculture were, Democritus of Abdera, Socraticus, Archytas, Tarentinus, Ariſtotle, and Theophraſtus, from whom the art received conſiderable improvements.

The ancient Romans eſteemed agriculture ſo honourable an employment, that the moſt illuſtrious ſenators of the empire, in the intervals of public concerns, applied themſelves to this profeſſion; and ſuch was the ſimplicity of thoſe ages, that they aſſumed no appearance of magnificence and ſplendor, or of majeſty, but when they appeared in public. At their return from the toils of war, the taking of cities, and the ſubduing of hoſtile nations, their greateſt generals were impatient till they were again employed in the arts of agriculture.

CINCINNATUS, when choſen dictator, was found at his plough by the deputation from the ſenate; and he returned to his rural labours repeatedly, after he had effectually ſerved his country. (See ROME, § 19.) REGULUS, when in Africa, requeſted of the ſenate to be recalled, leſt his farm might ſuffer, for want of proper cultivation, in his abſence; and the ſenate wrote him for anſwer, that it ſhould be taken care of at the public expence, while he continued to lead their armies.

CATO the cenſor, after having governed extenſive provinces, and ſubdued many warlike nations, did not think it below his dignity to write *a Treatiſe on Agriculture*. This work (as we are told by Servius) he dedicated to his own ſon, it being the firſt Latin treatiſe written on this important ſubject; and it has been handed down to us in all its purity, in the manner that Cato wrote it. VARRO compoſed a treatiſe on the ſame ſubject, and on a more regular plan. This work is embelliſhed with all the Greek and Latin erudition of that learned author, who died 28 years before the Chriſtian æra. VIRGIL, who lived about the ſame time, has, in his *Georgics*, adorned his ſubject with the language of the Muſes, and finely illuſtrated the precepts and rules of huſbandry left by Heſiod, Mago, and Varro.

COLUMELLA, who flouriſhed in the reign of the emperor Cladius I. wrote 12 *books on huſbandry*, replete with important inſtruction. From this period to that of the reign of CONSTANTINE POGONATUS, huſbandry continued in a declining ſtate; but that wiſe emperor cauſed a large collection of the moſt uſeful precepts relating to agriculture to be extracted from the beſt writers, and publiſhed them under the title of *Geoponics*. It has been aſſerted, that he made this collection with his own hand; and the truth of the aſſertion is not improbable, as it is well known, that after he had conquered the Saracens and the Arabians he not only practiſed and encouraged, but ſtudied the arts of peace, fixing his principal attention on agriculture, as their beſt foundation.

After the death of Conſtantine, however, the increaſing attention of the people to commerce, and the ignorance and groſs ſuperſtition of the times which ſucceeded, ſeems to have rendered agriculture an almoſt neglected ſcience. The irruption of the northern nations ſoon aboliſhed any improved ſyſtem. Theſe innumerable and enterpriſing barbarians, who over-ran all Europe, were originally ſhepherds or hunters, like the preſent Tartars and the ſavages of America. They contented themſelves with poſſeſſing thoſe vaſt deſerts made by their own ravages, without labour or trouble cultivating only a very ſmall ſpot near their habitations; and in this trifling huſbandry only the meaneſt ſlaves were employed: ſo that the art itſelf, which formerly was thought worthy of the ſtudy of kings, was now looked upon as mean and ignoble; a prejudice which is ſcarcely effaced at preſent, or at leaſt but very lately.—During this period, therefore, we find no veſtiges of any thing tolerably written on the ſubject. No new attempts were made to revive it, or to improve it, till the year 1478, when CRESCENZIO publiſhed an excellent performance on the ſubject at Florence. This rouzed the ſlumbering attention of his countrymen; ſeveral of whom ſoon followed his example. Among theſe, Tatti, Stephen Auguſtine Gallo, Soſovino, Lauro, and Tarello, deſerve particular notice.

At what time agriculture was introduced into BRITAIN, is uncertain. When Julius Cæſar firſt invaded this iſland, it was not wholly unknown. That conqueror was of opinion, that agriculture was firſt introduced by ſome of thoſe colonies from Gaul which had ſettled in the ſouthern parts of Britain, about 100 years before the Roman invaſion. It is not to be expected that we can now be acquainted with many of the practices of theſe ancient huſbandmen. It appears, however, that they were not unacquainted with the uſe of manures, particularly marl. This we have on the authority of Pliny (*Nat. Hiſt.* lib. 17. c. 6.) who tells us, that it was peculiar to the people of Gaul and of Britain; that its effects continued 80 years; and that no man was ever known to marl his field twice

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rice, &c.—It is highly probable, too, that lime is at this time alſo uſed as a manure in Britain, being certainly made uſe of in Gaul for this purpoſe at the time of Julius Cæſar's invaſion. The eſtabliſhment of the Romans in Britain produced great improvements in agriculture, inſomuch that prodigious quantities of corn were annually exported from the iſland; but when the Roman power began to decline, this, like all the other arts, declined alſo, and was almoſt totally deſtroyed by their departure. The unhappy Britons were now expoſed to frequent incurſions of the Scots and Picts, who deſtroyed the fruits of their labours, and interrupted them in the exerciſe of their art. Before the arrival of the Saxons A. D. 449, they were involved in ſuch long wars, and underwent ſo many calamities, that the huſbandmen gradually loſt much of their ſkill, and were at laſt driven from thoſe parts of their country which were moſt proper for cultivation.

After the Britons retired into WALES, though it learns from the laws made relative to this art, that agriculture was thought worthy of the attention of the legiſlature, yet their inſtruments appear to have been very unartful. It was enacted that no man ſhould undertake to guide a plough who could not make one; and that the driver ſhould make the ropes of twiſted willows, with which it was drawn. It was uſual for 6 or 8 perſons to form themſelves into a ſociety for ſitting out one of theſe ploughs, providing it with oxen and every thing neceſſary for ploughing; and many minute and curious laws were made for the regulation of ſuch ſocieties. If any perſon laid dung upon a field with the conſent of the proprietor, he by the law allowed the uſe of that land for one year. If the dung was carried out in a cart in great abundance, he was to have the uſe of the land for three years. Whoever cut down a wood, and converted the ground into arable, with the conſent of the owner, was to have the uſe of it for ſeven years. If any one folded his cattle, for one night upon a piece of ground belonging to another with the owner's conſent, he was allowed the uſe of that field for 4 years.

Thus, though the Britons had in a great meaſure loſt the knowledge of agriculture, they appear to have been very aſſiduous in giving encouragement to ſuch as would attempt a revival of it; but, under the Anglo-Saxons, things were not in ſo favourable a ſtate. Theſe reſtleſs and haughty warriors, having contracted a diſtaſte and contempt for agriculture, were at pains to enact laws to prevent its being followed by any other than women and ſlaves. When they firſt arrived in Britain, they had no occaſion for this art, being ſupplied by the natives with all the neceſſaries of life. After the commencement of hoſtilities, the Saxons ſubſiſted chiefly by plunder; but having driven out or deſtroyed moſt of the ancient Britons, and divided their lands among themſelves, they found themſelves in danger of ſtarving, there being now no more to plunder; and therefore they were obliged to apply to agriculture.

The Saxon princes, who, in the diviſion of the land, had received the greateſt ſhares, are ſaid to have ſubdivided their eſtates into two parts, which were called the *in-lands* and the *out-lands*. The in-lands were thoſe which lay moſt contiguous to the manſion-houſe of their owner, which he kept in his own poſſeſſion, and cultivated by his ſlaves, under the direction of a bailiff, for the purpoſe of raiſing proviſions for the family. The outlands were thoſe at a greater diſtance from the houſe, and were let to the *ceorls*, or farmers of thoſe times, at very moderate rents. By the laws of Ina king of the Weſt Saxons, who reigned in the end of the 7th and beginning of the 8th century, a farm conſiſting of ten hides, or plough-lands, was to pay the following rent: "Ten caſks of honey; 300 loaves of bread; 12 caſks of ſtrong ale; 30 caſks of ſmall ale; two oxen; ten wedders; ten geeſe; 20 hens; ten cheeſes; one caſk of butter; five ſalmon; 20 lb. of forage; and 100 eels." From this low rent, the imperfection of agriculture at that time is eaſily diſcoverable; but it is ſtill more ſo from the low prices at which land was then ſold. In the ancient hiſtory of the church of Ely, publiſhed by Dr Gale, there are accounts of many purchaſes of lands by Ædelwold the founder of that church, and by other benefactors, in the reign of Edgar the peaceable, in the 10th century. By a compariſon of theſe accounts it appears, that the ordinary price of an acre of the beſt land in that part of England, in thoſe times, was no more than 16 Saxon pennies, or about four ſhillings of our money: a very trifling price, even in compariſon with that of other commodities at the ſame time; for, by comparing other accounts, it appears, that four ſheep were then equal in value to an acre of the beſt land, and one horſe of the ſame value with three acres. The frequent and deplorable famines which afflicted England about this time, are further inſtances of the wretched ſtate of agriculture. In 1043, a quarter of wheat ſold for 60 Saxon pennies (15 of our ſhillings), and at that time equal in value to 7l. or 8l. of our money now.

The NORMAN invaſion, in 1066, contributed very much to the improvement of agriculture; for, by that event, many thouſands of huſbandmen from Flanders, France, and Normandy, ſettled in Britain, obtained eſtates and farms, and cultivated them after the manner of their country. The implements of huſbandry, uſed at this time, were of the ſame kind with thoſe employed at preſent; but much leſs perfect in their conſtruction. The plough, for example, had but one ſtilt or handle, which the ploughman guided with one hand, having in his other hand an inſtrument which ſerved both for cleaning and mending the plough, as well as for breaking the clods. The Norman plough had two wheels; and in the light ſoil of Normandy was commonly drawn by one or two oxen; but, in England, a greater number was often neceſſary. In Wales, the perſon who conducted the oxen in the plough walked backwards. Their carts, harrows, ſcythes, ſickles, and flails, from the figures of them ſtill remaining, appear to have been nearly of the ſame conſtruction with thoſe that are now uſed. In Wales, they did not uſe a ſickle for reaping their corns, but an inſtrument like the blade of a knife, with a wooden handle at each end. Their chief manure, next to dung, ſeems ſtill to have been marl. Summer fallowing of lands deſigned

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for wheat, and plowing them several times, appear to have been frequent practices of the English farmers in this period.

After all, we are very much in the dark with respect to the state and progress of agriculture in Great Britain previous to the 14th century. That it was pretty generally practised, especially in the E. S. and midland parts of England, is certain; but of the mode, and the success, we are almost totally ignorant. In the end of the 15th century, however, it seems to have been cultivated as a science, and received very great improvement. At this time FITZHERBERT, Judge of the Common Pleas, shone forth with distinguished eminence in the practical parts of husbandry. He appears to have been the first Englishman, who studied the nature of soils and the laws of vegetation with philosophical attention. On these he formed a theory confirmed by experiments, and rendered the study pleasing as well as profitable, by realizing the principles of the ancients, to the honour and advantage of his country. Accordingly he published two treatises on this subject; the first intitled *The Book of Husbandry*, in 1534; and the 2d called *The Book of Surveying and Improvements*, in 1539. These books, being written at a time when philosophy and science were but just emerging from that gloom in which they had long been buried, were doubtless replete with many errors; but they contained the rudiments of true knowledge and revived the study and love of an art, the advantages of which were obvious to men of the least reflection. We therefore find that Fitzherbert's books on agriculture soon raised a spirit of emulation in his countrymen, and many similar treatises successively appeared, which are now become so very scarce as only to be found in the libraries of the curious.

In FRANCE, about the year 1600 some considerable efforts were made to revive the arts of husbandry, as appears from several large works, particularly *Les Moyens de devenir Riche*; and the *Cosmopolite*, by Bernard de Palissy, a poor porter, who seems to have been placed by fortune in a station for which nature never intended him; *Le Theatre d' Agriculture*, by Deserres; and *L' Agriculture et Maison Rustique*, by Messrs Etienne, Liebault, &c. About the same period the practice of husbandry became more prevalent among the French and the Flemings than the publishing of books on the subject. Their intention seemed to be that of carrying on a private lucrative employment, without instructing their neighbours. Whoever therefore became desirous of copying their method of agriculture, was obliged to visit that country, and make his own remarks on their practice. The principal idea they had of husbandry was to keep the lands clean and in fine tilth, to make a farm resemble a garden as near as possible.

This excellent principle, at first setting out, led them to undertake the culture of small farms only, which they kept free from weeds, continually turning the ground, and manuring it plentifully and judiciously. When they had thus brought the soil to a proper degree of cleanliness, health, and sweetness, they chiefly cultivated the more delicate grains as the surest means of obtaining a certain profit upon a small estate, without the expence of keeping many draught horses and servants. A few years experience was sufficient to convince them, that ten acres of the best vegetables for feeding cattle, properly cultivated would maintain a larger stock of grazing animals than 40 acres of common farm grass on land badly cultivated. They also found that the best vegetables for this purpose were lucerne, saintfoin, trefoil of most kinds, field turnips, &c. The grand political secret of their husbandry, therefore, consisted in letting farms on improvements. They also discovered 9 sorts of manure; but whether they all were, we are not informed. We find, however, that marl was one of them; the nature and virtues of which appear also to have been well known in this kingdom 200 years ago, though it was afterwards much neglected. They were the first people who plowed in green crops for the sake of fertilizing the soil; and who confined their sheep at night in large sheds built for purpose, the floors of which were covered with sand or virgin earth, &c. which the shepherds carried away each morning to the compost dung.

During the civil wars in England, though operations and improvements in husbandry suffered some temporary checks, several excellent writers appeared on the subject, and the art received considerable encouragement. Sir HUGH PLATT was one of the most ingenious husbandmen of the age in which he lived; yet so great was his modesty, that all his works except his *Garden of Flora*, seem to be posthumous. He held a correspondence with most of the patrons of agriculture and gardening in England; and such was his justice and modesty, that he always named the author of every discovery communicated to him. Perhaps no man in any age discovered or at least brought into use so many new kinds of manure. This will be evident to those who peruse his account of the compost and covered dung, and his judicious observations on the several qualities lodged in salt, street dirt, and the soil of streets in great cities, clay, fuller's earth, different earths, dunghills made in layers, fern, by incination of all vegetables, malt dust, wilderness earth, soaper's ashes, urine, marl, and brooms and chards.

GABRIEL PLATTES may be said to have had an original genius in husbandry. He began observations at an earlier period, in the reign of Q. Elizabeth, and continued them down to the Commonwealth. But notwithstanding the great merit of this writer, and the essential service he had rendered his country by his writings, the public ungratefully suffered him to starve and perish in the streets of London.

SAMUEL HARTLIB, a celebrated writer on agriculture in the 17th century was highly esteemed and beloved by MILTON, and other great men of his time. In the preface to his work intitled *Legacy*, he laments that no public director of husbandry was established in England by authority, and that we had not adopted the Flemish method of letting farms upon improvement. This remark of Hartlib's procured him a pension of £ a year from CROMWELL; and the writer afterwards, the better to fulfil the intention of his pen-

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ctor, procured Dr Beatti's excellent annota-
on the Legacy, with other valuable papers
his numerous correſpondents. The time
hich Hartlib flouriſhed ſeems to have been
ra when the Engliſh huſbandry roſe to great
fection, compared with that of former ages;
the preceding wars had impoveriſhed the
ry gentlemen, and of courſe made them in-
rious. They found the cultivation of their
lands to be the moſt profitable ſtation they
ld fill. But this wiſe turn was not of long
uance. At the Reſtoration, they generally
me infected with that intoxication and love
aſure which ſucceeded. All their induſtry
knowledge were exchanged for diſſipation;
huſbandry deſcended almoſt entirely into the
s of common farmers.

BLYTH was the firſt writer who inſpired his
trymen with a deſire of reviving the ſtudy of
ulture; and he was followed by the famous
ro Tull. The former, by his admirable
ks *on earth* and *on planting*, and the latter,
owing the ſuperior advantages of the drill
andry, excited numbers to bring their theory
e teſt of fair experiment. Many valuable
apital improvements have ſince that period
made in Engliſh huſbandry: and theſe great
ave been ſucceeded by a variety of writers,
of whom have done eſſential ſervice, by en-
ing the minds of their countrymen, and
g them to emulation.

out the middle of the 19th century, IRELAND
gan to make a conſiderable figure in the
huſbandry. The Iriſh had very ſtrong pre-
es in favour of a wretched method of agri-
re, till BLYTH opened their eyes by his ex-
nt writings. Since that period, a ſpirit of im-
ement has been promoted, and in many in-
es carried on with great zeal, by the nobi-
clergy, and gentry of that kingdom. The
ſactions of the Dublin Society for encouraging
andry are now cited by all foreigners in their
irs relating to that ſubject. And the obſer-
ns of that diſcerning and judicious writer,
UR YOUNG, Eſq. in his Tour through that
dom, ſhow, that in many reſpects improve-
there have of late years made a progreſs
y as rapid as in England.

fter the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, moſt of the
ns of Europe, by a ſort of tacit conſent, ap-
d themſelves to the ſtudy of agriculture, and
tinued to do ſo, more or leſs, amidſt the uni-
ſal confuſion that ſucceeded. The French
nd, by repeated experience, that they could
er maintain a long war, or procure a to-
ble peace, unleſs they could raiſe corn e-
gh to ſupport themſelves in ſuch a manner
not to be obliged to harſh terms on the
: hand, or to periſh by famine on the o-
r. This occaſioned the king to give public
ouragement to agriculture, and even to ho-
ur ſeveral experiments with the royal preſence.
e great and the rich of various ranks and ſta-
ns, followed his example; and even the ladies
re candidates for a ſhare of fame in this pub-
-ſpirited and commendable undertaking.

Even during the hurry and diſtreſſes of France
the war of 1756, conſiderable attention was paid to agriculture. Prize queſtions were annually propoſed in their rural academies, particularly thoſe of Lyons and Bourdeaux; and many judicious obſervations were made by the Society for improving agriculture in Britanny. After the peace in 1763, matters were carried on with great vigour. The univerſity of Amiens made various propoſals for the advancement of huſbandry; and the Marquis de TOURBILLY (a writer who proceeded chiefly on experience) had the principal direction of a *Georgical ſociety* eſtabliſhed at Tours. The SOCIETY at ROUEN alſo deſerves notice; nor did the late king and his miniſters think it unworthy their attention. About 15 ſocieties were eſtabliſhed by royal approbation, for the promoting of agriculture; and theſe had 20 co-operating ſocieties belonging to them.

About this period vigorous exertions began to be made in RUSSIA to introduce the moſt approved ſyſtem of huſbandry which had taken place in other parts of Europe. The late empreſs ſent ſeveral gentlemen into Britain and other countries to ſtudy agriculture, and gave it all poſſible encouragement in her dominions.

The art of agriculture has alſo been for above 40 years publicly taught in the SWEDISH, DANISH, and GERMAN univerſities, where the profeſſors may render effectual ſervice to their reſpective countries, if they underſtand the practical as well as the ſpeculative part, and can converſe with as much advantage with the farmer as with Virgil and Columella.

ITALY itſelf has not been totally inactive. The Neapolitans have condeſcended to recur to the firſt rudiments of revived huſbandry, and begun to ſtudy anew the Agricultural Syſtem of Creſcenzio, firſt publiſhed in 1478. The people of Bergamo have purſued the ſame plan, and given a new edition of the *Ricordo d'Agricultura de Tarello*, firſt publiſhed in 1577. The duchy of Tuſcany imbibed the ſame ſpirit for improvement. A private gentleman about 50 years ago left his whole fortune to endow an academy of agriculture.

The king of SARDINIA alſo ſent perſons to learn the different modes of practice in foreign countires; and made ſome ſpirited attempts to eſtabliſh a better method of agriculture among his ſubjects. In the unfortunate country of Poland, alſo, M. DE BIELUSKI, grand marſhal of the crown, made many ſucceſsful attempts to introduce the new huſbandry among his countrymen; and procured the beſt inſtruments for that purpoſe from France, England, and other parts of Europe.

In 1759, a few ingenious and public-ſpirited men at BERNE in SWITZERLAND eſtabliſhed a ſociety for the advancement of agriculture and rural economy. In that ſociety were many men of great weight in the republic, and moſt of them perſons of a true ſpirit for making improvements in huſbandry, being enabled to join the practice with the theory.

The juſtly celebrated LINNÆUS and his diſciples alſo performed great things in the north of Europe, particularly in diſcovering new kinds of profitable and well-taſted food for cattle. About the ſame time, Sweden beſtowed ſucceſsful labours on a ſoil which had before been looked upon as cold,

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cold, barren, and incapable of melioration. Of this the *Stockholm Memoirs* will afford a lasting monument.

DENMARK, and many of the courts in Germany, followed the same example. Woollen manufactures were encouraged, and the king sent three persons into Arabia Felix to make remarks, and bring over such plants and trees as would be useful in husbandry, building, and rural affairs.

The duchy of WIRTEMBURGH, also a country fertile and friendly to corn and pasturage, has contributed its assistance towards the improvement of agriculture, having above 40 years ago published 14 œconomical relations at Stutgard. Very assiduous attention has also been paid by the learned in LEIPSIC and HANOVER to this important object. During the devastations of a long war, they cultivated the arts of peace; witness the *Journal d' Agriculture*, printed at Leipsic, and the *Recueils d' Hanover*, printed in that city.

Even SPAIN, constitutionally and habitually inactive on such occasions, in spite of natural indolence, and the prejudices of bigotry, invited Linnæus, with the offer of a large pension, to superintend a college founded for the purpose of making new enquiries into the history of Nature and the art of agriculture.

Among the JAPANESE, agriculture is in great repute: and among the CHINESE it is distinguished and encouraged by the court beyond all other sciences. The Emperor of China annually, at the beginning of spring, goes to plow in person, attended by all the princes and grandees of the empire. The ceremony is performed with great solemnity; and is accompanied with a sacrifice, which the emperor, as high priest, offers to Chang-Ti, to ensure a plentiful crop in favour of his people. See CHINA, § 32.

Yet, without partiality to our own country, we may justly assert, that BRITAIN alone exceeds all modern nations in husbandry; and from the spirit which for the last 30 years has animated many of our nobility and gentry, to become the liberal patrons of improvement, there is reason to hope that this most useful of arts will, in a few years, be carried to a greater pitch of perfection than it has ever yet attained in any age or country.—The Royal Society, the Bath Society, and the Society of Arts, &c. in particular, have been signally useful in this respect; and the other associations for the express purpose of improving agriculture, which are now established in many parts of the kingdom, co-operate with them in forwarding their laudable design.

But it is not to the exertions of public societies alone, excellent and respectable as they are, that all our modern improvements in agriculture owe their origin. To the natural genius of the people have been added the theory and practice of all nations in ancient and modern times. This accumulated mass of knowledge has been arranged, divided, and subdivided; and after passing the test of practical experiments, the essential and most valuable parts of it have been preserved, improved, and amply diffused in the works of Lord KAMES, Mr YOUNG, Stillingfleet, Dr Hunter, Dr Anderson, Dickson, Ellis, Randal, Liste, Marshall, Mortimer, Duhamel, Bradley, Kent, Millis, and other writers upon this great art of rendering mankind happy, wealthy, and powerful.

But of all the individuals in Great Britain, or even in Europe, we may venture to affirm, that no man has contributed so much, or made such uncommon personal exertions, for the improvement of agriculture, in all its branches, as Sir JOHN SINCLAIR. Of this, we need only mention two decisive evidences; viz. 1st. his institution of the BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, (See that article) a Society, the plan of which originated from him alone, and which was established by the British government, in consequence of his motion in parliament on the 15th May, 1793, previous to which his best friends doubted of his success: and 2dly, his unparalleled exertions, in corresponding with above 1000 persons, and with a great number of these 5 or 6 times, to procure materials for his *Statistical Account of Scotland*; a work consisting of 21 vols. large 8vo. which, besides a vast quantity of other important matter, contains a mass of agricultural information not to be found in any other work whatever. This was a task, which never could have been accomplished by any man of less spirit, abilities, and perseverance, than Sir John Sinclair. Sir John has also the chief merit of procuring the institution of that important private association, called the BRITISH WOOL SOCIETY; whose exertions have been very successful in calling the attention of the public to the improvement of that important article of our national produce and manufacture.

"The regular sittings of the Board of Agriculture (says Mr FORSYTH,) did not commence till 23d Jan. 1794, since which time it has continued to exert a very considerable degree of activity in establishing an extensive foreign correspondence, and in procuring and publishing every kind of useful domestic agricultural intelligence.—The Board, soon after its institution, also employed persons of known reputation, to prepare *agricultural surveys* of every county in Great Britain. Many of these surveys have been published, and form treatises on this important art, which, for extent of intelligence, and ability of execution, have not been exceeded in any age or country. The Board has also obtained parliamentary rewards to some individuals for important discoveries, and has offered premiums for essays or treatises upon subjects connected with the purpose of its institution, which have produced a great variety of valuable and ingenious disquisitions.

"More particularly, in consequence of the late extraordinary dearth and scarcity of provisions, the legislature though fit to have recourse to the assistance of the Board, for the purpose of endeavouring to alleviate the evil. In Dec. 1800, a committee of the house of lords, with a view to extend the cultivation of grain, required the Board to make out a report upon the best means of converting grass lands into tillage without exhausting the soil, and of returning the same to grass after a certain period, in an improved state, or at least without injury. The Board, having taken the subject into consideration, resolved, that the best mode of inducing landlords to permit grass lands to be plowed, would be to convince them, that they may do it in many cases, not only without injury,

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jury, but also to their advantage. In conse-
uence of this resolution, an advertisement was
blished by the Board, offering very liberal pre-
ums for the most satisfactory essay on the sub-
t. This advertisement produced a great num-
r of disquisitions or essays, the greater part of
ich were written by candidates for the premi-
n but some of them were the productions of
blic-spirited gentlemen who made no such claim.
m the whole number several essays have been
cted and published by the Board, and form a
valuable volume, upon an interesting part of
most important of all subjects in the art of a-
lture, the rotation or succession of different
s upon the same soil."

r Forsyth concludes his history of Agricul-
with the following "judicious reflections:
affords an example of the utility of an insti-
n acting, like the Board of Agriculture, un-
the sanction of the legislature. It enjoys the
s of directing the attention of men of talents
parts of the country, to any subject, upon
h practical information may be wanted, and
esses the means of communicating to the
c at large, in the most advantageous manner,
ver information may be obtained from the
unications made to it. But although the
n of the knowledge of the principles of any
nds at all times the best means of its im-
ent, this undoubtedly is only a part of the
of such a public body as the Board of Agri-
e. Public establishments and efforts are in
cases necessary towards carrying the art to
imate perfection. Means ought to be adop-
all the great seminaries of learning, for ren-
g the knowledge of its principles a part of a
education. Obstacles to its progress, ari-
from *tythes*, rights of commonty, &c. ought
removed; and it may even be advantageous
e public assistance towards the erection of
, which may prove too expensive to be un-
en by individuals for the purposes of irriga-
In these and all similar cases, it becomes the
the most valuable privilege of a Board esta-
d by public authority to give counsel to the
re, to suggest improvements, and to urge
enditure of money upon public works, in
where the advice of individuals might be
ended, or listened to under the suspicion
g prompted by views of private interest."

PART I.

THE THEORY OF RURAL ECONOMY.

Preliminary Observations.

n art so necessary and useful to mankind,
which has been so universally practised, a
exact and perfect theory might be expected.
itherto no satisfactory theory has yet been
vered.

rtunately, however, for mankind, in this as
as in some other important arts, practice is
sful, although theory be incomplete. One
n of this want of a distinct theory of agricul-
is, the ignorance of what is properly the
of vegetables; for as the art of agriculture
ts principally in supplying them with a pro-
per quantity of food, in the most favourable circumstances, it is evident, we might proceed upon a much surer foundation if we could ascertain what their proper nourishment is, than we can do without this knowledge. The reason of the great differences regarding the practice, probably, is the difficulty of making experiments in agriculture. It is not in this art as in Mechanics, Chemistry, &c. where an experiment can be made in an hour, or a day or two at farthest: an experiment in agriculture cannot be properly made in less than several years. Some favourable unobserved circumstances, quite foreign to the experiment itself, may concur to produce plentiful crops for a year or two: and thus the farmer may be induced to publish his fancied improvements; which failing in the hands of others, or perhaps even in his own on a repetition of the experiment, the new improvements are totally neglected, and things continue in their old way. Were he, however, capable of seeing and handling the food of vegetables, as well as he can do that of a horse or an ox, and procuring it in any imaginable quantity, it is plain, that he would be able to cause vegetables grow in their utmost luxuriancy, or, if we may be allowed the expression, *fatten* them, with as great certainty as he can fatten a horse or an ox, when he hath plenty of proper food to give them.—To ascertain what this food is, therefore, must be a step towards the perfection of agriculture.

Sect. I. *Of the* Proper Food *of* Plants.

Former theorists imagined the vegetable food to consist of oily and saline substances. A more probable supposition has been, That Water and Air are the proper vegetable food, to which alone they owe their increase in bulk and weight.—That plants cannot be supported without both these, is very certain: but we now know, that both water and air are compound fluids. Is it then the aqueous, the earthy, or the acid, part of the air, which nourishes plants? Or is it the pure elementary part of water which nourishes them? or does it contribute to their growth only by the heterogeneous substances which it contains?

From the experiments of Dr Priestley on different kinds of air, it appears that the purest kind of that fluid is not the fittest for the purposes of vegetation. On the contrary, vegetables flourished in a surprising degree when confined in a small quantity of air made perfectly noxious by the putrid effluvia of animal bodies. Hence it is probable, that such effluvia, or the essence of corrupted matter, constitute at least one species of vegetable food; and when vegetables are put into such circumstances that the steams of putrefying bodies can have access to them, they thrive the better.

Dr Priestley also found, that by agitating putrid air in water, part of which was exposed to the atmosphere, the water acquired a very putrid noxious smell; which shows, that water, as well as air, is capable of absorbing those effluvia which are found proper food for vegetables. We may conclude, therefore, that in the ascent of water in vapour, and its descent again in rain, which is a much more effectual *agitation* than could be made

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made by Dr Prieſtley, the water muſt be very intimately combined with the putrid effluvia contained in the air. To this union we ſuſpect that rain water owes its fertilizing qualities; for the pureſt ſpring waters, though moſt wholeſome for animals, are not found to be fitteſt for promoting the growth of vegetables.—As, therefore, vegetables evidently receive nouriſhment both by their leaves and roots, and increaſe remarkably in bulk by abſorbing the putrid effluvia from the air; and as they likewiſe increaſe in bulk by admitting water to their roots, and more ſo when the water contains much of that kind of effluvium than when it contains leſs: ſo we may conclude, that the nouriſhment received by the roots of plants is of the ſame kind with that received by their leaves; and that this food may be given them in greater plenty than they naturally receive it, by impregnating the air which ſurrounds them, or the water which moiſtens them, with a greater quantity of putrid matter than they contain in a natural ſtate.

SECT. II. *Of* VEGETABLE MOULD, *and the* DIFFERENT KINDS *of* MANURE.

ALTHOUGH vegetables will grow on any kind of earth, and flouriſh vigorouſly, if plentifully ſupplied with water; yet ſome kinds of ſoil are found much more proper for ſupplying them with nouriſhment than others. The inference which ſome would draw from experiments on plants ſet in mere ſand, &c. are not quite fair; viz. that the earth is of no other uſe to vegetation than to afford a proper ſupport to the plant, that it be not eaſily moved out of its place; becauſe the experiments made on ſingle vegetables are always performed in or very near houſes, where the air is not ſo pure as in the open fields, and conſequently where they have an opportunity of receiving as much nouriſhment from the air as may compenſate the want of what they would have derived from the earth if planted in a rich ſoil.

Lord KAMES, in the *Gentleman Farmer*, mentions an experiment wherein a pea was planted on ſome cotton ſpread on water, in a phial. It ſprung, and puſhed roots through the cotton into the water. The plant grew vigorouſly, and, at the time of his writing the experiment, carried large pods full of ripe ſeed. From this experiment, or others of a ſimilar kind, however, a farmer would not be thought to act very judiciouſly, who ſhould conclude that nothing more was requiſite to produce a plentiful crop, than to keep his fields conſtantly ſoaking with water, and apply his labour only for that purpoſe, without regarding either tillage, manure, or the difference of ſoils. Experience has ſhown, that by certain operations performed on the earth itſelf, it is rendered much more capable of ſupplying vegetables with plenty of nouriſhment than if ſuch operations were omitted; and that ſome kinds of ſoils cannot without certain additions be rendered ſo fit for this purpoſe as others; and this is what conſtitutes the difference between a *rich* and a *poor* ſoil.

That ſpecies of earth which is capable of ſupplying the vegetable kingdom with nouriſhment in the greateſt plenty, is found beſt in well cultivated gardens. It is not, however, even in theſe found in perfect purity; being conſtantly mixed with greater or leſs proportions of ſand, ſtones, &c. It can be had by itſelf, and entirely ſeparated from all other ſubſtances, only by ſuffering vegetable or animal bodies to putrefy. In undergoing this operation, they are at laſt reduced into a kind of earth, which appears perfectly the ſame, from whatever ſubſtance it is produced. Of this earth Dr LEWIS gives us the following characters. It is indiſſoluble in acids, ſomewhat tenacious when moiſtened with water, friable when dry, and acquires no additional hardneſs in the fire.—The chemiſtry of nature, and that of art, however, are ſo very diſſimilar, that an account of the chemical properties of this earth will be but of very little ſervice to the practice of agriculture; however, to thoſe above mentioned we may add, that when it is diſtilled with a violent fire, a volatile alkaline ſpirit, and fœtid oil ſimilar to thoſe of hartſhorn or other animal ſubſtances, are obtained.

As the volatile alkali is produced in great plenty by diſtilling putrid ſubſtances either animal or vegetable, the obtaining an alkaline ſpirit from this kind of earth is a ſtrong argument of its having much impregnated with the putrid effluvium mentioned above as the proper vegetable food contained in the air and water. Indeed, conſidering that this kind of earth is produced by putrefaction, it is next to an impoſſibility that it ſhould not be impregnated with putrid ſteams, as much as earth can be; and if the earth which is moſt impregnated with theſe ſteams is found to produce the greateſt quantity of nouriſhment to vegetables, we have thence an additional proof that the food on the putrid matter emitted from dead animals and vegetables like themſelves.

That we may be the more aſcertained of this fact, it muſt be conſidered, that the earth, which is the greateſt ſource of nouriſhment to vegetables, is capable of abſorbing putrid effluvia in a greater quantity, before it is ſaturated, than either the air or water. The burying of dead bodies affords a proof of this. They are laid at a ſmall depth under ground; yet the abominable ſtench emitted by the carcaſe is retained by the earth, ſo that it never penetrates ſo as to be offenſive. That earth may be ſaturated with putrid matter, as well as air or water, is certain; and, in caſe of ſuch a ſaturation, either of them will take up the ſuperfluous quantity, and become noxious; but unleſs the earth is fully ſaturated, both will depoſite part of what they contain in the earth, and thus become more ſalutary than before.

That earth is capable of attracting putrid effluvia from the air, perhaps, may not be readily granted; but if we conſider the exceeding great ſalubrity of the air in the country, and the unhealthineſs of thoſe who follow the plough, or are employed in digging the ground, we muſt allow that when the ground is turned up, it communicates no kind of noxious quality to the air; which it would certainly do, if it emitted a putrid effluvium. So far from this, the ſmell of moiſt earth is always agreeable and wholeſome; and hence our theory is confirmed by the celebrated Boyle's

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VAN SWIETEN, late phyſician to the empreſs of Hungary. "Phyſicians," ſays he, "uſually adviſe their patients to ruſtication, not only that they may enjoy a pure and freely circulating air; but that, as their ſtrength increaſes, they may, diſengaged from all care, exerciſe their body by the lighter labours of agriculture, and other country amuſements.

"There may perhaps be another cauſe why ruſtication will be of benefit in conſumptions. It is well known, that, after ſome days drought, on the falling of rain that moiſtens the earth, there ariſes a grateful ſmell, which we all are ſenſible of; and this is commonly attributed to the vegetables, which before ſapleſs, but now refreſhed by the rain, perſpire more copiouſly. REAUMUR obſerved, that a like fragrancy is alſo perceptible after rain when the corn has been cut down in the fields, where there only remains dry ſtubble. He further obſerved, that this fragrancy does not riſe itſelf to any thing at a great diſtance, without being much diminiſhed, and ſoon entirely loſt."

This property of emitting a fragrant ſmell is likewiſe taken notice of by Dr HOME in his *Principles of Agriculture and Vegetation*. Some phyſicians have preſcribed a bath of earth for the cure of conſumptive patients; and Dr SOLANO de Luque was of opinion, that the earth had the property of abſorbing contagious miaſmata into itſelf; whether it can abſorb theſe miaſmata from living bodies or not, it certainly can abſorb them from dead ones; for a piece of putrid meat will be much ſweetened by lying for a ſhort time in the ground.

From all this we cannot indeed infer, that putrid air is ſweetened by mere earth; but we diſcover what is more important, viz. that though earth is the common receptacle of all putrid matter both animal and vegetable, there is a change made on them when in it, which cannot be made even by air or water. Thus, if the carcaſe of a dead animal is left to putrefy in the air, it becomes exceedingly offenſive, and continues ſo from firſt to laſt. The ſame thing happens if it is left to putrefy in water. But, in earth, the caſe is quite different. After the carcaſe is conſumed, the earth which has imbibed all the putrid juices, inſtead of exhaling an offenſive odour, becomes an agreeable one; and thus we may ſee that it is endued with a power no leſs remarkable than that of attraction or repulſion, and which we may call TRANSMUTATION. With regard to water, the caſe is more evident; for the moſt putrid water will be ſweetened by percolation through earth, or even running in a channel for ſome time on its ſurface; but if it contains any impurities of the ſaline kind, they will not be ſeparated.

We muſt admit the exiſtence of this power of tranſmutation, whatever we imagine the vegetable food to conſiſt of; for it is impoſſible to ſolve the phenomena of vegetation by attractions and repulſions. If we ſuppoſe the vegetable food to conſiſt, let us attract and repel ſalt as we will, it remains ſalt from firſt to laſt. Let us ſuppoſe it water, the caſe is the ſame; and, by mere attraction, nothing but maſſes of ſalt, or pools of water, could be produced. The caſe is the ſame on our own hypotheſis; for, ſuppoſing plants compoſed of the putrid effluvia of others, and of dead animals, if nature was endued with no other power than attraction or repulſion, the vegetable would be a corrupted maſs like that of which it was compoſed.—This power reſides only in the earth, and vegetables; air and water can indeed act as powerful ſolvents, but cannot transform or compound.

We proceed to conſider the nature of thoſe different operations, which, from time immemorial, have been performed on the earth, to cauſe it produce the greateſt crops of vegetables. If all of theſe ſhall be found conſpiring to one general purpoſe, then the ſhorteſt and moſt eaſy method of attaining that purpoſe is undoubtedly the moſt proper to be practiſed in agriculture. Theſe are,

I. FREQUENT PLOWING, or FALLOWING. The immediate conſequence of this is to expoſe different quantities of the ſoil to the action of the air and ſun, which will not fail to exert their ſolvent powers upon it. The earth is thus partly reduced to powder; many of the roots of vegetables, with which it always abounds, are diſſolved and putrefied; and the earth produced from them mixes with the reſt, as well as the effluvia they emit during their diſſolution. The earth ſoon begins again to exert its prolific powers, and a crop of vegetables is produced. By a repetition of the plowing, theſe are turned with their roots upwards, are expoſed to the ſolvent powers of the air and light; in conſequence of which they die, are putrefied, and more of the native ſoil is reduced to powder, and mixed with them. By a frequent repetition of this proceſs, the ſoil becomes vaſtly more tender, and approaches to the nature of garden mould, and its fertility is conſiderably increaſed.

II. OVERFLOWING *the* GROUND *with* WATER. This greatly increaſes the fertility of any ſoil. It is well known how much Egypt owes to the annual overflowing of the Nile; and even in this country the overflowing of any ground is found to be attended with great advantage. This is practiſed by Mr BAKEWELL of Lieceſterſhire, famous for his improvements in the breed of cattle; and he finds it fully to anſwer an annual manuring of any other ſort. It is alſo recommended by Dr ANDERSON of Monkſhill, in his *Eſſays on Agriculture*. The fertilizing quality of water will eaſily be accounted for on the ſame principles. When grown vegetables are covered with water, their growth, however vigorous before, is immediately ſtopt, unleſs they be of the aquatic kind: they die, are diſſolved, and putrefied; in which caſe, their finer parts are undoubtedly abſorbed by the earth: and thus the *floating*, as it is called, of fields with water, anſwers the purpoſe of fallowing with very little trouble. This is not all: for ſtagnating water always depoſites a ſediment, which mixing with the diſſolved parts of the vegetables all over the field, forms an excellent manure; and when the water is allowed to run off, the heat of the ſun ſoon brings the higheſt degree of putrefaction on the dead vege-

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tables: the effluvia of which mixing with the mud depofited from the water, makes it exceedingly rich.

III. MANURING, or mixing the foil with different fubftances.—Thofe which are of undoubted efficacy, and have their merit eftablifhed by long experience, are, 1. lime, chalk, marl, fhells, or other earths, called by the chemifts *calcareous earths*; 2. foot; 3. afhes; 4. dung of different kinds.

1. The lime, chalk, marl, and fhells, are all found to be of the fame nature. The marl differs from the reft, only in having a mixture of clay along with its calcareous part. Thefe contain neither falt nor oil of any kind; they readily imbibe water, and as readily part with it. Quick-lime, indeed, retains water very obftinately: but fuch lime as is laid upon the ground foon returns to the fame ftate in which it originally was; and powdered limeftone is found to anfwer as well for the purpofes of manure as that which has been burnt. If any of thefe fubftances are mixed with dead animal or vegetable bodies, they remarkably quicken their diffolution and corruption, as is proved by Sir JOHN PRINGLE's experiments on putrefaction. When mixed with the foil, they exert their powers on fuch fubftances as they find there, in the fame manner; that is, they haften their diffolution and putrefaction, and give the pure vegetable mould an opportunity of abforbing their putrid ftreams, and confequently of being fertilized by it in the fame manner as by putrid fubftances of any kind.

2. Thofe who contend for oily and faline principles in the vegetable food, avail themfelves of the ufefulnefs of foot as a manure; which is not only oily of itfelf, but affords a great quantity of volatile falt, along with fome neutral fal ammoniac. But not an atom either of volatile falt or fal ammoniac can be extracted from foot without a confiderable heat, which no foil can give, nor could any vegetable bear. Neither doth its oil appear without a great degree of heat: and tho' it feels fomewhat unctuous to the touch, this is but a mere deception; for no true oil, capable of floating on water, can be obtained from foot without diftillation. It is impoffible, therefore, that foot can act upon the foil either as an oily or a faline fubftance; how far it is capable of diffolution by putrefaction, or being otherwife converted into an earth, hath not yet been determined by experiments: but as it yields, on diftillation, the fame principles which are obtained from animal or putrefied vegetable fubftances, foot enriches the ground in the fame manner that they do.

3. The ufe of afhes in manure is likewife urged as an argument for the food of vegetables being of a faline nature; as it is known, that the common alkaline falts are procured by lixiviating the afhes of wood and other vegetables. Experience, however, fhows us, that afhes are no lefs fit for manure after the falt is extracted from them than before. Indeed, if there be any difference, it is in favour of the waffhed afhes. The alkali itfelf, though in Sir John Pringle's experiments it was found to be *antifeptic*, or a refifter of putrefaction, is nevertheleſs a powerful diffolvent; and as it muſt ſoon loſe its alkaline properties when mixed with the earth, in conſequence of the univerſal exiſtence of the vitriolic acid, thoſe ſubſtances which it has diſſolved will be more diſpoſed to putrefaction than before, and conſequently tend to fertilize the ground in the manner we have already deſcribed. The waſhed aſhes are *ſtimuli*, or promoters of putrefaction, and conſequently act in the ſame manner as chalk or limeſtone.

4. All kinds of dung are ſo much diſpoſed to putrefaction, that it is difficult to imagine any other way in which they can be ſerviceable to vegetation than by their putrid effluvia.—People indeed may dream of imaginary ſalts in dung; but if they knew or conſidered the difficulty of procuring ſalt of any kind from dung, they would alter their ſentiments. The volatile ſalts procured from this as well as other animal matters, are mere creatures of the fire: putrid urine produces them indeed without heat, but ſcarce any thing animal ſubſtance. Nevertheleſs, other putrid ſubſtances will fertilize the ground as well as dung, and therefore muſt act in ſome other way than by their ſalts. Dr PRIESTLEY's experiments have proved, that vegetables are prodigiouſly increaſed in bulk by the mere contact of theſe putrid effluvia where no ſaline ſubſtances could have acceſſion to them. This is therefore a deciſive experiment concerning the manner in which the ground is fertilized by manuring with dung or other putrid ſubſtances.

The following experiments are related by Lord KAMES, in his *Gentleman Farmer*.—"A number of Jeruſalem artichokes were ſet in pots filled with pure ſand. One plant was kept as a ſtandard, being nouriſhed with water only. Other plants of the ſame kind were nouriſhed with water in which ſalt of tartar, a fixed alkali, was diſſolved. Theſe grew more vigorouſly than the ſtandard plant; but, by reiterated waterings, they came to be ſuch an accumulation of the fixed alkali among the ſand, as to make the plants decay and at laſt to die. Some plants were nouriſhed with water in which ſal ammoniac, a volatile alkali, was diſſolved. Theſe grew alſo well for ſome time; but, like the former, were deſtroyed by frequent reiterations of it. Weak lime-water promoted the growth of its plants more than common water. But water completely ſaturated with quicklime, proved more noxious than that which contained a fixed alkali, though leſs ſo than that which contained a ſolution of volatile alkali.—Urine promoted, for a long time, the growth of its plants; and *the moſt putrid appeared to have the ſtrongeſt effect*; but at laſt it totally deſtroyed them. *Water impregnated with putrid animal and vegetable ſubſtances*, did more effectually promote the growth of its plants than *any other ſolution*, and in *every ſtage of the proceſs* appeared to be *ſalutary*."

Dr ANDERSON relates an experiment made with common ſalt. He marked out a circle of ſix feet diameter in the middle of a graſs field, which he diſtinguiſhed by driving a ſtake in the centre. All over this circle he ſtrewed common ſalt, nearly an inch thick about the ſtake. The graſs ſprung up as uſual, neither better nor worſe

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about the stake than in the rest of the field, and the place where the circle was could be distinguished only by the stake.

These experiments confirm our theory. The fixed alkali employed in Lord Kames's experiment would first exert its solvent powers on such heterogeneous substances as it met with among the sand; for no sand can be supposed to be perfectly free of these. As long as it exerted its strength on these only, the plant would thrive, for the reasons we have already mentioned; but having exhausted the small quantity of substances contained in the sand, it would next attack the plant itself, which consequently would decay and die. The same effects would necessarily follow in a greater degree from strong lime-water which contains lime in its caustic state; for this is a more powerful solvent than fixed alkali itself, and would soon fail to destroy every thing it touched; nor is it at all improbable that the plant would seem to thrive vigorously by the dissolution of part of its own roots, more nourishment being by this means given to those which remained sound.—Volatile alkali is likewise a powerful solvent: but, by reason of its volatility, would exert its caustic power on the plant sooner than either lime or fixed alkali; and accordingly it seems to have been the most destructive of any thing that was tried. It seems owing to this, that putrid urine at last destroyed the plant, whose growth it had so long promoted; and water impregnated with other putrid matters, which yield no volatile alkali without heat, is not always salutary.

From the whole the following general conclusion may be drawn: That the principal end which a farmer ought to keep in view, is to impregnate the ground as much as possible, with substances which either actually contain putrid matter, or which are in their own nature *septic*, or promoters of putrefaction. In whatever manner they can be applied perfectly, and in the greatest quantity, mixed with the soil, there the best crops may be expected.

III. *Of the* DIFFERENT SOILS, *and the* MANURES *most* PROPER *for* EACH.

From the theory laid down, the richest soil must be that which contains the greatest quantity of putrid matter, either animal or vegetable substances in or themselves. Were this earth to be had in perfection, it could not stand in need of manure of any kind, for containing an immense quantity of putrid matter, it would freely communicate it to the vegetables planted in it, which would grow in the most luxuriant manner, without requiring any other care than that of keeping them constantly supplied with water. If we suppose the crop left upon the ground to putrefy and mix with the earth as before, the soil will contain the same quantity of putrid matter the 2d year that it did the first, and be equally prolific: but if the crop be removed to another place, and nothing is brought back to enrich the ground in its stead, it is evident, that it will contain less of the true vegetable food the 2d year than it did the first, and consequently be less prolific. For some time, however, the difference will not be perceptible; and people who are in possession of such ground may imagine that they enjoy a soil which will be perpetually fertile; but experience teaches, that the richest soils will at last be exhausted by repeated cropping without manure, as according to our theory they ought to be.

When ground has been allowed to remain uncultivated for many ages, producing all that time succulent plants which are easily putrefied, and trees, the leaves of which likewise contribute to enrich the ground by their falling off and mixing with it, the soil will be totally made up of pure vegetable earth, and be the richest, when cultivated, that can be imagined. This was the case with the lands of America. They had remained uncultivated perhaps since the creation, or the deluge, and were endowed with an extraordinary degree of fertility; yet we are assured by one who went to America to purchase lands there, that such grounds as had been long cultivated, were so much exhausted, as to be worse than most cultivated grounds in this country. Here, then, we have an example of one species of poor soil; viz. one that has been formerly very rich, but has been deprived, by repeated cropping, of the greatest part of the vegetable food it contained. The farmer who is in possession of such ground, would willingly restore it to its former state. We shall suppose the farmer tries lime; this substance, being of a septic nature, will act upon such parts of the soil as are not putrefied, or but imperfectly so; in consequence of which, the farmer will reap a better crop than formerly. The septic nature of the lime is not altered by any length of time. In ploughing the ground, the lime is more and more perfectly mixed with it, and gradually exerts its power on every putrescible matter it touches. As long as any matter of this kind remains, the farmer will reap good crops; but when the putrescible matter is all exhausted, the ground then becomes perfectly barren; and the caustic qualities of the lime are most unjustly blamed for *burning* the ground and reducing it to a *caput mortuum*; while it is plain the lime has only done its office, and made the soil yield all that it was capable of yielding.

When ground has been long uncultivated, producing all the time plants, not succulent, but such as are very difficultly dissolved, and in a manner incapable of putrefaction; there the soil will be excessively barren, and yield very scanty crops, though cultivated with the greatest care. Of this kind are those lands covered with heath, which are found to be the most barren of any, and the most difficultly brought to yield good crops. In this case lime will be as serviceable as it was detrimental in the other: for by its septic qualities, it will continually reduce more and more of the soil to a putrid state; and thus there will be a constant succession of better and better crops, by the continued use of lime when the quantity first laid on has exerted all its force. By a continued use of this manure, the ground will be brought nearer and nearer to the nature of garden mould; and, no doubt, by proper care, might be made as good as any: but it will be as great a mistake to imagine, that, by the use of lime, this kind of soil may be rendered perpetually fertile, as to think that the other was naturally so; for though

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lime enriches this ſoil, it does ſo, not by adding vegetable food to it, but by preparing what it already contains; and when all is properly prepared, it muſt as certainly be exhauſted as in the other caſe. Here, then, we have examples of two kinds of *poor* ſoils; one of which is totally deſtroyed, the other greatly improved, by lime, and which therefore require very different manures; lime being more proper for the laſt than dung; while dung, being more proper to reſtore an exhauſted ſoil than lime, ought only to be uſed for the firſt. Beſides dunging land which has been exhauſted by long cropping, it is of great ſervice to let it lie fallow for ſome time: for to this it owed its original fertility; and what gave the fertility originally, cannot fail to reſtore it in ſome degree.

By attending to the diſtinction between the reaſons for the poverty of the two ſoils juſt now mentioned, we will always be able to judge with certainty in what caſes lime is to be uſed, and when dung is proper. The mere poverty of a ſoil is not a criterion whereby we can judge; we muſt conſider what hath made it poor. If it is naturally ſo, we may almoſt infallibly conclude, that it will become better by being manured with lime. If it is *artificially* poor, or exhauſted by continual cropping, we may conclude that lime will entirely deſtroy it. It is this *natural* kind of poverty only which Dr Anderſon ſays, in his *Eſſays on Agriculture*, may be remedied by lime.

Thus far Dr Anderſon's experience is exactly conformable to the theory we have laid down, and what ought to happen according to our principles. He mentions, however, ſome facts which ſeem very ſtrongly to militate againſt it; and indeed he himſelf ſeems to proceed upon a theory altogether different. But for theſe, which are by no means deciſive, we refer the reader to his work. We might alſo quote ſome examples of the ſame kind mentioned by Lord Kames. His lordſhip having endeavoured to eſtabliſh the theory of *water* being the *only food* of plants, though he himſelf frequently deviates from that theory, yet thinks it poſſible upon ſuch a principle, to make a ſoil *perpetually fertile*. But for this too we ſhall refer to his lordſhip's work, as his theory is not only defective, but contradictory.

As to rendering ſoils *perpetually* fertile, we cannot help thinking the attempt altogether chimerical and vain. There is not one example in nature of a ſoil perpetually fertile, where it has no ſupply but from the air and the rain which falls upon it. The graſs on the banks of a river is much more luxuriant than what grows at a diſtance: the reaſon is, that the water is attracted by the earth, and communicates its fertilizing qualities to it; but were the river to be dried up, the graſs would ſoon become like the reſt. Why ſhould not the ocean have the ſame power of fertilizing plains near its ſhores, that rivers have of fertilizing ſmall ſpots near their banks? We ſee, however, that it hath not; for the ſea-ſhores are generally ſandy and barren. The reaſon of this is, that the waters of the ocean contain a quantity of looſe acid (See Water); and this acid is poiſonous to plants; but abſtracting this acid part, we heſitate not to affirm, that ſea-water is more fertilizing than river-water. It is impoſſible to know how far the waters of the ocean penetrate under ground through a ſandy ſoil. Where they meet with nothing to abſorb their acid, there the ground is quite barren; but in paſſing through an immenſe quantity of broken ſhells, the calcareous matter we are certain, will abſorb all the acid; and then the ſoil will be continually benefited by its vicinity to the ocean. Ground is not near ſo much exhauſted by graſs as by corn, even though the crop be cut and carried off; and ſtill leſs, if it only feeds cattle, and is manured by their dung. Lord Kames mentions fields in Scotland, that, paſt memory, have carried ſucceſſive crops of wheat, peaſe, barley, oats, without a fallow, and without a manure; and particulariſes one on the Carron, of 9 or 10 acres, which had carried 18 crops of oats without intermiſſion and without manure: but as we are not acquainted with any ſuch fields, we can form no judgment concerning them.

Beſides the two kinds of ſoils above mentioned, there are others, the principal ingredient of which is clay or ſand. The firſt of theſe is apt to be hardened by the heat of the ſun, ſo that the vegetables can ſcarce penetrate it in ſuch a manner as to receive proper nouriſhment. The latter, which is not ſituated ſo as to receive a great deal of moiſture, is very apt to be parched up in ſummer, and the crop deſtroyed; nor has it ſufficient tenacity of coheſion to ſupport plants that have few roots to grow high. From theſe oppoſite qualities it is evident that theſe two ſoils would be a proper manure for one another; the clay would give a ſufficient degree of firmneſs to the ſand, and the ſand would break the too great tenacity of the clay. According to Dr Home's experiments, however, ſand is the worſt manure for clay that can be uſed. He recommends marle moſt. To render clay ground as near as poſſible to the form of a vegetable mould, it muſt firſt be pulverized. This is moſt effectually performed by plowing and harrowing; but care muſt be taken not to plow it whilſt too wet, otherwiſe it will concrete into hard clots which can ſcarcely be broken. After it is pulverized, however, ſome means muſt be uſed to keep it from concreting again into the former hard maſſes as before. According to Lord Kames, though clay, after pulverization, will concrete again to as hard a maſs as before, if mixed with ſand, yet if mixed with dunghill juice, it will not concrete any more. Lime alſo breaks its tenacity, and is very uſeful as a manure for this kind of ſoil.

The concluſion we wiſh the practical farmer to draw from our theory is, That there is a certain limit to the fertility of the earth, both as to duration and to degree, at any particular time: that the nearer any ſoil approaches to the nature of pure garden mould, the nearer it is to the moſt perfect degree of fertility; but that there are no hopes of keeping it perpetually in ſuch a ſtate, or in any degree of approximation to it, but by conſtant and regular manuring with dung. Lime, chalk, marle, &c. may be proper to bring it near to this ſtate, but are abſolutely unable to keep it continually ſo. They may indeed for ſeveral years produce large crops; but the ſoil

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hey increaſe the fertility for ſome years, the ſoon-r will they bring on an abſolute barrenneſs: while gular manuring with plenty of dung will always ure the keeping up the ſoil in good condition, ithout any occaſion for fallow. What we have d concerning the uſe of lime, &c. applies like-ſe to the practice of frequent plowing, though a leſs degree. This tends to meliorate ground t is naturally poor, by giving an opportunity the vegetable parts to putrefy; but when that one, it tends to exhauſt, though not ſo much lime. A judicious farmer will conſtantly ſtrive eep his lands always in good condition, ra-r than to make them ſuddenly much better; a few years ſhould convince him that he was eatly doing almoſt irreparable miſchief, while ancie himſelf making improvements. As for ridiculous notion of ſtimulating the ground by *ne manures*, we hope they will never enter the ind of any rational practitioner of agriculture.

CT. IV. *Of the* DIFFERENT KINDS *of* VEGETABLES PROPER *to be* RAISED, *to* MELIORATE *the* SOIL.

THE methods of meliorating ſoils, mentioned re, conſiſting of tedious and laborious opera-s that yield no ſpeedy return, it is natural for mer to wiſh for ſome method of meliorating ground, and reaping crops at the ſame time. very conſiderable ſtep towards the meliora-of ground is, its pulverization. This is ac-pliſhed by repeated plowings, eſpecially in ma, that the ground may be expoſed to the ter's froſt. By planting in the field, however, e vegetables whoſe roots ſwell to a conſidera-bulk, the ground muſt conſtantly be acted u-by the ſwelling of their roots in all directions; thus the growing of the crop itſelf may be e-, or ſuperior, in efficacy to ſeveral plowings, e the farmer enjoys the benefit of it. The moſt remarkable for the ſwelling of its roots e potatoe; and by none is the ground melio-d ſo much. They are not, however, equally r for all ſoils. In clay they do not thrive, are palatable; but in hard gravelly or ſandy they grow to a large ſize, and are of an ex-t quality. Turnips likewiſe contribute to rate the ground, by the ſwelling of their , though not ſo much as potatoes. They this advantage, however, that they will ve in almoſt any ſoil. In clay ground peaſe d beans thrive exceedingly well, and therefore proper in this kind of ſoil as a preparatory for r kinds of grain. Theſe puſh their roots deep o the ground, and cover it with their leaves re than other crops; ſo that the ſun hath not much acceſs as when it is covered with other e of grain. Wherever any of theſe kinds of etables are raiſed, more or leſs blackneſs is mmunicated to the ſoil: an evident ſign of its eliration; this being the colour of the true ve-table mould, or *loamy ſoil*.

It hath been cuſtomary in many places, parti-larly in England, to ſow turnips, peaſe, buck-heat, &c. and then to plough them down for anuring the land. This being ſimilar to that o-ration of nature by which ſhe renders the un-ivated ſoils ſo exceedingly fertile, cannot fail of being attended with ſingular advantages; and would be preferable even to driving dung on the land to fatten it, were it not attended with the entire loſs of a crop for that year.

SECT. V. *Of* DESTROYING WEEDS.

THE preceding obſervations reſpect only the cultivation of the ſoil, and the fitting it for producing all kinds of vegetables indiſcriminately. Experience, however, ſhows, that the ground is naturally much more diſpoſed to produce and nouriſh ſome kinds of vegetables than others; and theſe are commonly ſuch as are of very little uſe to man: but if neglected, will increaſe to ſuch a degree, as to deſtroy the plants intended to be raiſed, or hinder them from coming to perfection, by depriving them of nouriſhment. The clearing the ground of weeds, therefore, is an article no leſs neceſſary in agriculture, than the diſpoſing it to produce vegetables of any kind in plenty.

The weeds may be divided, according to the time of their duration, into *annual*, or ſuch as ſpring from a ſeed, and die the ſame year; and *perennial*, ſuch as are propagated by the roots, and laſt many years. The firſt kind are the leaſt noxious, and moſt eaſily deſtroyed. For this purpoſe it will be ſufficient to let them ſpring up till near the time of ripening their ſeed, and then plough them down before it comes to maturity. It is alſo of ſervice to deſtroy ſuch weeds as grow in borders, or neglected corners, and frequently ſcatter their ſeeds to a great diſtance; ſuch as the thiſtle, dandelion, rag-weed, &c. for theſe are ſufficient to propagate their ſpecies through a great deal of ground; as their ſeeds are carried about with the wind to very conſiderable diſtances. The ſmall ſeeds of weeds ought to be ſeparated from corn in winnowing, and not ſown again, which happens when they are thrown upon a dunghill; becauſe, being the natural offſpring of the earth, they are not eaſily deſtroyed. The beſt method to prevent this is to burn them.

Perennial weeds cannot be effectually deſtroyed, but by removing the roots from the ground, which is often a matter of ſome difficulty. Many of theſe roots ſtrike ſo deep in the ground, that they can ſcarcely be got out. The only method that can be depended upon in this caſe, is frequent plowing, to render the ground as tender as poſſible; and harrowing with a particular kind of harrow, to collect theſe pernicious roots. When collected, they ought to be dried and burnt, as the only effectual method of inſuring their doing no further miſchief.

There is a particular ſpecies of weed, peculiar only to graſs lands, of a ſoft ſpongy nature, called *fog*, which is very difficult to exterminate. Where the lands can be conveniently tilled, this weed may be deſtroyed by covering it with a crop of peaſe, potatoes, &c. or, paſſing a heavy roller over the ground will be of great ſervice; for fog owes its origin to too great a laxity of the ſoil, and will not grow upon firm ground.

Beſides theſe kinds of weeds which are of an herbaceous nature, there are others which are woody, and grow to a very conſiderable ſize; ſuch as broom, furze or whins, and thorns. BROOM is an evergreen ſhrub, that thrives beſt in ſandy

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fandy ſoils; and there it grows ſo vigorouſly, as ſcarce to a limit any graſs under it. It propagates by ſeed which grows in pods; and theſe, when fully ripe, break with violence, ſcattering the ſeeds all around. Thus, a field which is overgrown with broom, beſides the old plants, always contains an infinite number of young ones; ſo that though the old plants die when cut over, a freſh crop conſtantly ſprings up. It may, however, be deſtroyed by frequent plowing and harrowing, for it does not for ſome time carry any ſeed, and the frequent plowing encourages the vegetation of thoſe that are already in the ground, which cannot fail of being deſtroyed by frequent repetitions of the operation. Another method of deſtroying broom, is by paſturing the field where it grows with ſheep. A few of the old buſhes may be left as a ſhelter, and theſe will be in a good meaſure prevented from ſpreading by the cropping of the ſheep. Theſe animals are very fond of broom, and greedily devour every young ſhoot; ſo that if any remain after the firſt year, there will not be a veſtige the ſecond. In this method of extirpating broom is equally effectual with that of frequent plowing, it is certainly more profitable, as there is no food more nouriſhing to ſheep than young broom. Broom, however, is ſaid to have a ſingular effect upon ſheep: it makes them drunk ſo effectually, that when heated with a little driving, they tumble over, and lie without motion.

The WHIN is a fine evergreen ſhrub, carrying a ſweet ſmelling flower all the year round. It propagates both by ſeed and by its roots, which ſpread ſometimes to the diſtance of 10 or 12 feet; and hence, when once eſtabliſhed, it is with difficulty extirpated. The beſt method is to ſet fire to the whins in froſty weather; for froſt has the effect to wither whins, and make them burn readily. The ſtumps muſt then be cut over with a hatchet; and when the ground is well ſoftened by rain, it may be plowed up, and the roots taken out by a harrow adapted to that purpoſe. If the field is ſoon laid down to graſs, the whins will again ſpring up in great abundance, from the ſeeds, and ſmall parts of the roots left in the ground. In this caſe, paſturing with ſheep is an effectual remedy; as they are no leſs fond of young whins than of young broom; and if there are a ſufficient number, they will not leave a ſingle plant above ground. But if graſs is not immediately wanted, the moſt effectual method of clearing a field of whins, is by reiterated plowings.

The THORN, or BRAMBLE, ſpreads its roots very wide, and at the ſame time ſinks them deep in the earth. Though cut in the winter, it riſes, and comes to ſuch perfection as to carry fruit in ſummer. It can only be extirpated by plowing up the ground, and collecting the roots.

SECT. VI. *Of the* MOST PROPER KINDS *of* VEGETABLES *to be* RAISED *for* FEEDING CATTLE.

THOUGH this ſubject is of the utmoſt conſequence to every farmer, it has not been much conſidered. Dr ANDERSON ſeems to have been the firſt writer on agriculture who properly attended to this ſubject; and what he hath written upon it, is rather a catalogue of deſiderata, than any thing elſe: and indeed the deſiderata are ſo many and ſo great, that it is very difficult to fill them up. To attain to a competent knowledge in this reſpect, the following things muſt be conſidered. 1. The wholeſomeneſs of the food for cattle, with regard to health and ſtrength, or fatneſs. 2. The quantity that any extent of ground is capable of producing. 3. The quantity neceſſary to feed the different kinds of cattle. 4. The labour of culture; and, 5. The ſoil they require to bring them to perfection, and the effect they have upon it.

With regard to the wholeſomeneſs, it is plain that as the natural food of wild cattle is the ſucculent plants they meet with all the year round, food of this kind, could it be had, muſt be preferable to hay; and accordingly we find that cattle will always prefer ſucculent vegetables when they can get them. To find plants of this kind, and having proper qualities in other reſpects, muſt ſearch among thoſe which continue green the year round, or come to their greateſt perfection in the winter-time.—Of theſe, cabbages have fair for holding the firſt place; both as being very ſucculent, and a very large quantity of them growing upon a ſmall ſpace of ground. In Mr YOUNG's *Six Months Tour*, we have an account of the produce of cabbages in many different places, and on a variety of ſoils. The produce by Mr COKE at Keplin, on a clay ſoil, was, on an average of ſix years, 35 tons per acre; by Mr SMITH at Leaſes, on a ſandy gravel, 18 tons per acre; by Mr SCROOP at Danby, on an average of ſix years, 37 tons per acre: and the general average of all the accounts given by Mr Young, is 36 tons per acre.

CABBAGES, however, have the great inconveniency of ſometimes imparting a diſagreeable flavour to the milk of cows fed with them, and even to the fleſh of other cattle. This may be prevented by carefully picking off the decayed and withered leaves: for no vegetable inclines more to putrefaction; and therefore care ought to be taken to pull off all the leaves that have any ſymptom of decay. Dr PRIESTLEY found that air was rendered noxious by a cabbage-leaf remaining in it for one night, though the leaf did not ſhow any ſymptom of putrefaction. For milk-cows, probably the cabbages might be rendered more proper food by boiling them.

The culture of the *turnip-rooted cabbage* has lately been much practiſed, and greatly recommended, particularly for a late ſpring feed; and ſeems indeed to be a moſt important article in the farming œconomy, as will be ſhown in its proper place.

TURNIPS likewiſe produce very bulky crops, though far inferior to thoſe of cabbages. According to Mr Young's calculation, the fineſt field does not produce above five tons of turnips per acre, which is indeed a very great diſproportion: but poſſibly ſuch a quantity of turnips may not be conſumed by cattle as of cabbages; an ox, of a ſtone weight, eat 210lb. of cabbages in 24 hours, beſides ſeven pound of hay.

CARROTS are an excellent food for cattle of all kinds, and are greatly reliſhed by them. In a rich land, according to Mr Young's account, the produce of this root was 200 buſhels per acre. In a

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ner ſoil, it was 640 buſhels per acre. A lean
g was fatted by carrots in ten days time: he
1 196 lb.; and his fat was very fine, white, firm,
d did not boil away in the dreſſing. They were
ſtituted to turnips by the cattle: which having
ted the carrots, ſoon became ſo fond of them,
difficulty to be made to eat the turnips at all.
rots will make a more wholeſome food for cat-
than either cabbages or turnips, as they are
ngly antiſeptic. It is probably owing to this,
the milk of cows fed on carrots never has any
taſte. Six horſes kept on them through the
er without oats, performed their work as u-
, and looked equally well. This may be looked
as a proof of their ſalubrity as a food; and
ers ought to beware of giving putreſcent food
their cattle. Carrots, being more ſolid than
ages or turnips, will go much farther in feed-
cattle than either of them. The hog above-men-
ed was fed, for ten days together, with 21 lb.
weight of carrots than an ox devoured of cab-
and hay in one day. At Parlington in York-
, 20 work horſes, four bullocks, and ſix milk-
, were fed on the carrots that grew on three
, from the end of Sept. till the beginning of
; and the animals never taſted any other food
little hay. The milk was excellent, and 30
were fattened upon what was left by the cat-

ATOES are alſo a very palatable food for
ds of cattle; and not only oxen, hogs, &c.
ally fed by them, but even poultry. The
ds of potatoes is great, compared with
kinds of food for cattle, as, beſides the ad-
ge of the crop, they improve the ground
than any other known vegetable. According
correſpondent of the Bath Society, "roaſting
is never ſo moiſt and delicate as when fed
potatoes, and killed from the barn-doors
at any confinement. For bacon and hams,
ſhels of pea-meal ſhould be well incorpora-
h four buſhels of boiled potatoes, which
will fat a hog of 12 ſtone (14lb. to the
. Cows are particularly fond of them: half
el at night, and the ſame proportion in the
, with a ſmall quantity of hay, is ſuffici-
keep three cows in full milk; they will
much and as ſweet butter as the beſt graſs.
uing cattle, I allow them all they will eat:
of about 35 ſtone will require a buſhel per
but will fatten one third ſooner than on tur-
. The potatoes ſhould be clean waſhed, and
ven until they are dry. They do not require
g for any purpoſe but fattening hogs for ba-
or poultry; the latter eat them greedily. I
r the champion potatoe," &c.
the above-mentioned vegetables have the
rty of meliorating, rather than exhauſting
il; which is a valuable qualification: but
ts and cabbages will not thrive except in ſoils
are already well cultivated; while potatoes
urnips may be uſed as the firſt crops of a ſoil
great advantage. In this reſpect, they are
y ſuperior to the others.

CK-WHEAT *(Polygonum fagopyrum)* has been
mended as an uſeful article. It is chiefly
ed to the feeding of hogs, and eſteemed e-
in value to barley; it is much more eaſily ground than barley, as a malt-mill will ground it completely. Horſes are very fond of the grain; poultry of all ſorts are ſpeedily fattened by it; and the bloſſom of the plant affords food for bees at a very opportune ſeaſon of the year, when the meadows and trees are moſtly ſtripped of their flowers. Probably the grain may hereafter be even found a material article in diſtillation. From the ſucceſs of ſome experiments detailed in the Bath Society Papers, and for which a premium was beſtowed, it has been inferred, that this article ought in numerous caſes to ſuperſede the practice of ſummer-fallowing.

WHINS have lately been recommended as a very proper food for cattle, eſpecially horſes; and are recommended by Dr ANDERSON in a particular manner. They have this advantage, that they require no culture, and grow on the very worſt ſoil; but they are troubleſome to cut, and require to be bruiſed in a mill conſtructed for this purpoſe; neither is the ground at all meliorated by letting whins grow upon it for any length of time. Notwithſtanding theſe diſadvantages, however, as whins continue green all the year round, and when bruiſed afford an excellent ſucculent food, which ſeems poſſeſſed of ſtrongly invigorating qualities, they may be looked upon as the cheapeſt winter food that can poſſibly be given to cattle.—According to the calculations of Mr Eddiſon of Gateford, a ſingle acre, well cropped with whins, will winter ſix horſes: at 3 or 4 years growth, the whole crop ſhould be taken, cut cloſe to the ground, and carried to the mill; in which the whins are to be bruiſed, and then given to the horſes. Four acres ought to be planted, that one may be uſed each year, at the proper age to be cut; and he reckons the labour of one man ſufficient for providing food to this number of horſes. He ſays they all prefer the whins to hay, or even to corn.

The herb BURNET hath likewiſe been recommended as proper food for cattle, on account of its being an evergreen; and growing almoſt as faſt in winter as in ſummer. In a letter addreſſed by SIR JAMES CALDWELL, F. R. S. to the Dublin Society, the culture of this plant is ſtrongly recommended on the authority of one BARTHOLOMEW ROCQUE, farmer at Walham-Green, a village about 3 miles SW. of London; whom about 1760, Mr WYCH, chairman of the committee of Agriculture of the London Society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, put upon an inquiring after a plant that naturally vegetates in winter, and produces green fodder for cattle. Rocque accordingly, after ſome fruitleſs inquiries, by Wych, (who wrote even to Switzerland and Sweden for information,) ſet about this ſearch with great aſſiduity; and finding that a pimpernel, called *burnet*, was of very ſpeedy growth, and grew near as faſt in winter as in ſummer, he took a handful of it and carried it into his ſtable, where there were five horſes; every one of which eat of it with the greateſt eagerneſs, ſnatching it even without ſmelling it. Upon this ſucceſs, he went to London, and bought all the burnet ſeed he could get, amounting to 8 lb. it having been only uſed in ſallads; and he paid for it at the rate of 4s. a pound

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Six of the 8lb. of ſeed he ſowed upon half an acre of ground, in March, 1761, with a quarter of a peck of ſpring-wheat, both by hand. The ſeed being very bad, it came up but thin. However, he ſowed the other 2lb. in June, upon about ſix roods of ground: this he mowed in the beginning of Auguſt; and at Michaelmas he planted off the plants on about 20 roods of ground, giving each plant a foot every way. Theſe plants bore two crops of ſeed the year following. The year after, it grew very rank and produced two crops of ſeed, both very good. This plant was found equally fit for feeding cows, ſheep, and horſes; and Rocque kept a horſe upon nothing elſe, who throve well upon it; and it even proved a cure for the diſeaſe of horſes called the *Greaſe*. But after all this pompous account given by Sir James Caldwell, Mr MILLER, in his *Dictionary*, and Dr ANDERSON in his *Eſſay*, depreciate the plant, and repreſent it, as not worth cultivating." Miller even ſays, the cattle refuſe to eat it.

Upon the authority of Mr Rocque, likewiſe, the *white beet* is recommended as a moſt excellent food for cows: (See BETA, § II, N° 2.) that it vegetates during the whole winter: is very forward in ſpring, and that the moſt profitable way of feeding cows, is to mow this herb and give it to them green all ſummer. It grew in Rocque's garden, during a great drought, and 4 feet high, from the 30th May to the 3d of July. In ſummer it grows more than an inch a day. It is ſown in March; a buſhel is ſufficient for an acre, and will coſt 10 s. It thrives beſt in a rich, deep, light, ſoil.

Another ſpecies of beet, BETA CICLA, the *Mangel-Wurzel*, or *Root of Scarcity*, has been greatly celebrated, as food both for man and cattle; but, after all, ſeems only to merit attention for the latter. See BETA, § II, N° 1; and MANGEL-WURZEL.

Dr ANDERSON, in his *Eſſays*, recommends ſeveral kinds of graſſes, to be cut for freſh fodder during winter, and for hay in ſummer; particularly the *Sheep's feſcue graſs*, and the *purple feſcue graſs*. See FESTUCA, N° 2, and 3. The former he highly recommends for its peculiar property of continuing all winter.

The HOLCUS LANATUS, or *creeping ſoft-graſs* of Hudſon is alſo recommended by our author. See HOLCUS, N° 1. Theſe are the kinds of *graſſes*, properly ſo called, which have not as yet been cultivated, that Dr Anderſon thinks the moſt likely to be of value; but, beſides theſe, he recommends the following, of the pea tribe.

1. *Milk-vetch, liquorice-vetch*, or *milk-wort*. This plant, in ſome reſpects, very much reſembles the common white clover; from the top of the root a great number of ſhoots come out in the ſpring, ſpreading along the ſurface of the ground every way around it; from which ariſe many cluſters of bright yellow flowers, reſembling thoſe of the common broom. Theſe are ſucceeded by hard round pods, filled with ſmall kidney-ſhaped ſeeds. From a ſuppoſed reſemblance of a cluſter of theſe pods to the fingers of an open hand, the plant has been ſometimes called *ladies fingers*. By others it is called *crow toes*, from a fancied reſemblance of the pods to the toes of a bird. Others, from the appearance of the bloſſom, and the part where the plant is found, have called it *ſeal*, improperly *fell-broom*. It is found plentifully almoſt everywhere in old graſs-fields; but as every ſpecies of domeſtic animals eat it, almoſt in preference to any other plant, it is ſeldom allowed to come the flower in paſture-grounds, unleſs where it have been accidentaly ſaved from the cattle ſome time; ſo that it is only about the banks of corn-fields, or the ſides of incloſures to which cattle have not acceſs, that we have an opportunity of obſerving it. As it has been imagined that the cows which feed on theſe paſtures, where the plant abounds, yield a quantity of rich milk, the plant has, from that circumſtance, obtained the moſt proper Engliſh name of *milk-vetch*.

One of the greateſt recommendations of the plant is, that it grows in poor barren ground, where almoſt no other plant can live. It has been obſerved in ground ſo poor, that even heath or ling (*erica communis*), would ſcarcely grow; upon bare obdurate clays, where no other plant could be made to vegetate; inſomuch that the ſurface remained entirely uncovered, unleſs when a plant of this kind chanced to be eſtabliſhed. But even in theſe unfavourable circumſtances, it has riſhed with an uncommon degree of luxuriancy, and yielded as tender and ſucculent, though ſuch abundant ſhoots, as if reared in the beſt manured fields. In dry barren ſands, alſo, where almoſt no other plant could be made to live, it has been found to ſend out ſuch a number of leafy ſhoots all round, as to cover the earth with the cloſeſt and moſt beautiful carpet that could be deſired.

The ſtalks of the milk-vetch are weak and ſlender, ſo that they ſpread upon the ſurface of the ground, unleſs they are ſupported by ſome other vegetable. In ordinary ſoils they do not grow to a great length, nor produce many flowers; but in rich fields the ſtalks grow to a much greater length, branch out a good deal, but carry few or no flowers or ſeeds. From theſe qualities the author did not attempt at firſt to cultivate it with any other view than that of paſture; and with this intention, ſowed it with his ordinary graſs-ſeeds, expecting no material benefit from it. But he deſiſted from cutting his field. In this, however, he was agreeably diſappointed; the vetch growing the firſt ſeaſon as tall as the clover, and forming exceeding fine hay, ſcarce diſtinguiſhable from lucerne, but by the ſlenderneſs of the ſtalk, and proportional ſmallneſs of the leaf.

Another recommendation to this plant is, that it is perennial. It is ſeveral years after it is ſown before it attains to its full perfection; but when once eſtabliſhed, it probably remains for a great number of years in full vigour, and produces annually a great quantity of food. In autumn 1773, Dr Anderſon cut the ſtalks of an old plant that grew on a very indifferent ſoil, and after having thoroughly dried it, he found it weighed 14 ounces and a half. The ſtalks of the plant die down entirely in winter, and do not come up in the ſpring till the ſame time that the ſeaſon begins to advance; nor does it advance faſt, even in ſummer, when once cut down.

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cover: so that it seems much inferior to the above-mentioned grasses: but might be of use to cover the worst parts of a farm, on which no other vegetable could thrive.

2. The *common yellow vetchling*, LATHYRUS PRATENSIS, or *everlasting tare*, grows with great luxuriance in stiff clay soils, and continues to yield annually a great weight of fodder, of the very best quality, for any length of time. This is equally fit for pasture or hay; and grows with equal vigour in the end of summer as in the beginning of it; so would admit being pastured upon in the spring, till the middle, or even the end of May, without endangering the loss of the crop of hay. This is an advantage which no other plant except clover possesses; but clover is equally unfit for early pasture or for hay. Saintfoin is the only plant whose qualities approach to it in this respect, and the yellow vetchling will grow on such soils as are utterly unfit for producing saintfoin.—It is also a perennial plant, and increases so fast by its running roots, that a small quantity of the seed would produce a sufficient number of plants to fill a whole field in a very short time. If a small patch of good ground is sowed with the seeds of this plant in rows, about one foot distance from one another, and the intervals kept clear of weeds for that season, the roots will spread so much as to fill up the whole patch next year; when the stalks may be cut for green food or hay. And if that patch were dug over the spring following, and the roots taken out, it would furnish a great quantity of plants, which might be planted at 2 or 3 feet from one another, before they would probably overspread the whole field in a short time.

3. The *common blue tare* seems more likely than any former to produce a more nourishing kind of food, as it abounds much more in seeds; but as the stalks come up more thinly from the root and grow more above, it does not appear to be so well adapted for a pasture-grass as the other. The leaves of this plant are much smaller, and more round, than those of the other; the stalks are likewise smaller, and grow to a much greater length. Though it produces a great quantity of seed, yet the small birds are so fond of them, that, unless the field were carefully guarded, few of the seeds would be allowed to ripen.

4. The VICIA SEPIUM, *purple everlasting*, or *wood vetch*. Our author gives the preference to this plant beyond all others of the same tribe for pasture. The roots spread on every side a little below the surface of the ground, from which, in the spring, many stems arise quite close by one another; and as these have a broad tufted top covered with many leaves, it forms as close a pile as could be desired. It grows very quickly after being cut or cropt, but does not arrive at any great height; so that it seems more proper for pasturage than making hay; altho', upon a good soil, it will grow sufficiently high for that purpose; but the stems grow so close upon one another, that there is great danger of having it rotted at the root, if the season should prove damp. It seems to thrive best in a clay soil.

Besides these, there are many others of the same kind, which he thinks might be useful to the farmer. The common garden everlasting pea, cultivated as a flowering plant, he conjectures, would yield a prodigious weight of hay upon an acre; as it grows to the height of 10 or 12 feet, having very strong stalks, that could support themselves without rotting till they attained a great height.

One other plant is recommended by our author to the attention of the farmer; it is the *common yarrow*, *Achillæa millefolium*, or *hundred-leaved grass*. (See ACHILLÆA, N° 7.) Of this plant, he remarks, that, in almost every fine old pasture, a great proportion of the growing vegetables with which the field is covered consists of it; but the animals which feed there are so fond of the yarrow, as never to allow one seed-stalk of it to come to perfection. Hence these seed-stalks are never found but in neglected corners, or by the sides of roads; and are so disagreeable to cattle, that they are never tasted; and thus it has been erroneously thought that the whole plant was refused by them.—The leaves of this plant grow very thick upon one another, and are therefore peculiarly adapted for pasturage. It arrives at its greatest perfection in rich fields that are fit for producing a large and succulent crop of grass. It grows also upon clays; and is among the first plants that strike root in barren clay that has been lately dug from any considerable depth; so that this plant, and thistles, are usually the first that appear on the banks of deep ditches formed in a clayey soil. All animals are fond of it; but, from its dry aromatic taste, it seems peculiarly favourable to the constitution of sheep. It seems altogether unfit for hay.

Besides these plants, which are natives of our own country, there are others, which, though natives of a foreign climate, thrive very well in Britain; and have been raised with such success by individuals, as highly to merit the attention of every farmer. Among these the first place is claimed by lucerne.

This is the plant called *medica* by the ancients, because it came originally from Media, and on the culture of which they bestowed such great care and pains. It is called MEDICAGO by the moderns. It hath a perennial root, and annual stalks, which in good soil, rise to three feet, or sometimes more in height; its leaves grow at a joint like those of clover; the flowers which appear in June, are purple, and its pods of a screw-like shape, containing seeds which ripen in September. All sorts of domestic cattle are fond of this plant, especially when allowed to eat it green, and black cattle may be fed very well with the hay made from it but an excess of this food is said to be very dangerous. Lucerne has the property of growing very quickly after it is cut down, insomuch that Mr Rocque has mowed it five times in a season, and Dr Anderson has cut it six times. It is however, not very easily cultivated; in consequence of which it sometimes does not succeed; and as it dies entirely in the winter, it is perhaps inferior to the fescue grasses, which, tho' despised and neglected, might probably yield as rich a crop as lucerne, without danger of a miscarriage.

Another grass was brought from Virginia, where it is a native, and sown by Rocque in 1763. This grass is called TIMOTHY, from one Timothy Hanson, who brought it from New-York to Carolina.

It grows beſt in a wet ſoil; but will thrive in almoſt any. If ſown in Auguſt, it will be fit for cutting in the end of May or beginning of June. Horſes are very fond of it, and will leave lucerne to eat it. It is alſo preferred by black cattle and ſheep; for a ſquare piece of land having been divided into four equal parts, and one part ſowed with lucerne another with ſainfoin, a third with clover, and the 4th with timothy, ſome horſes, black cattle, and ſheep, were turned into it, when the plants were all in a condition for paſturage; and the timothy was eaten quite bare, before the clover, lucerne, or ſainfoin were touched. One valuable property of this graſs is, that its roots are ſo ſtrong and interwoven with one another, that they render the wetteſt and ſofteſt land, on which a horſe could not find footing, firm enough to bear the heavieſt cart. With the view of improving boggy lands, therefore, ſo as to prevent their being poached with the feet of cattle, Dr Anderſon recommends the cultivation of this kind of graſs.

Sect. VII. *Of the* Diseases *of* Plants.

Tournefort divides the diſeaſes of plants into 4 claſſes: 1. Thoſe which ariſe from too great an abundance of juice; 2. From too little; 3. From its bad qualities; 4 From its unequal diſtribution; and 5. From external accidents.

Too great an abundance of juices cauſes at firſt a prodigious luxuriant growth of the vegetable; ſo that it does not come to the requiſite perfection in a due time. Wheat is ſubject, in ſome climates, to a diſeaſe of this kind; it vegetates exceſſively, without ever carrying ripe grain: and the ſame diſeaſe may be artificially produced in any grain, by planting it in too rich a ſoil. Too much rain is apt likewiſe to do the ſame. When a vegetable is ſupplied too abundantly with juices, it is very apt to rot; one part overſhadowing another in ſuch a manner as to prevent the acceſs of freſh air; upon which putrefaction ſoon enſues, as has been already obſerved with regard to the feſcue graſſes.

In graſs, or any herbaceous plant, where the leaves are only wanted, this over luxuriancy cannot be called a diſeaſe, but is a very deſirable property; but in any kind of grain it is quite otherwiſe. Dr Home, in his *Principles of Agriculture and Vegetation*, claſſes the *ſmut* in grain among the diſeaſes ariſing from this cauſe. He ſays that too great an abundance of juices in a vegetable will produce diſeaſes ſimilar to thoſe occaſioned by repletion in animal bodies; viz. ſtagnations, corruptions, varices, cariofities, &c. along with the too great luxuriancy juſt mentioned, which he expreſſes by "too great an abundance of water ſhoots." Hence he is induced to claſs the ſmut among diſeaſes ariſing from this cauſe; it being a corruption happening moſt in rainy ſeaſons, and to weak grain.—Like other contagious diſeaſes, he ſays, the ſmut may be communicated from the infected to healthful grain. As a preventative, he recommends ſteeping the grain in a ſtrong pickle of ſea-ſalt. Beſides the effect which this has upon the grain itſelf, it is uſeful for ſeparating the good from the bad; the beſt ſeed falling to the bottom, and the faulty ſwimming on the top of the liquor.

Dr Home ſays dung is a preventative of diſeaſes ariſing from too great moiſture; in proof of which, he relates the following experiment; "Two acres of poor ground, which had never got any manure, were fallowed to be ſown with wheat; but the ſcheme being altered, ſome dung was laid on a ſmall part of it, and the whole ſowed, after it had got five furrows, with barley. A great quantity of rain fell. The barley on that part which was dunged was very good; but what was on the reſt of the field turned yellow after the rains, and when ripe was not worth the reaping."

The want of nouriſhment in plants may be eaſily known by their decay. The only remedy is, to ſupply them with food, according to the method above directed, or to remove from their neighbourhood ſuch other plants as may draw off their nouriſhment from them. In the *Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences* for 1728, Mr Du Hamel mentions a diſeaſe, which he calls *le mort*, that attacks ſaffron in the ſpring. It is owing to another plant, a ſpecies of trefoil, fixing ſome violet-colored threads, which are roots, to the roots of the ſaffron, and ſucking out its juice. This diſeaſe is prevented by digging a trench, which ſaves all the unaffected.

The bad qualities, or unequal diſtribution of the juices of plants, are the occaſion of ſo few of the diſeaſes to which vegetables in this country are ſubject, that we need not mention them. Moſt of the diſeaſes of our plants are owing to external accidents, particularly to the depredations of inſects.—The inſects by which the greateſt vaſtations are committed in this country are, the caterpillars, grubs, and flies. The former caterpillars feed on the leaves and young fruit, whereby they often totally deſtroy the vegetable. Where the plants are of early acceſs, theſe vermin may be deſtroyed by ſprinkling the vegetables with lime-water; for quicklime is a mortal poiſon to theſe creatures, and throws them into the greateſt agonies the moment they are touched with it. In trees, however, where this method cannot ſo eaſily be followed, fumigation is the moſt proper way for this purpoſe, nothing is better than the ſmoke of vegetables not perfectly dry. In ſome caſes the eggs of theſe deſtroying creatures may be ſcraped, and ought immediately to be taken away. In fruit trees, as apples, pears, medlars, on foreſt-trees, the oak and dwarf-maple eſpecially, the white and black thorn in hedges, a kind of little tufts are to be obſerved, reſembling, at firſt ſight, withered leaves twiſted by a cobweb, on the uppermoſt twigs or branches. Theſe contain a vaſt number of little black eggs, that in the ſpring produce ſwarms of caterpillars which devour every thing. To prevent this, all the twigs on which theſe cobwebs appear ſhould be cut off and burnt as ſoon as poſſible. This ought to be done before the end of March, that none of the eggs be allowed ſufficient time for hatching.

The Grubs are a kind of worms which deſtroy the corn by feeding upon its roots; they are transformed every 4th year into the beetles called *cockchaffers*, *may-bugs*, &c. they are very deſtructive when in their vermicular ſtate, and cannot eaſily be deſtroyed becauſe they go deep in the ground. When become beetles, they conceal themſelves under the leaves of trees, where they ſeem aſleep till near ſun-ſet, when they take their flight.

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only then that they can be deſtroyed, and by a very laborious method; namely, by ſpreading packſheets below the trees in the day time when the beetles are in their torpid ſtate, then ſhaking them off and burning them. Some time ago they made ſuch deſtations in the county of Norfolk, that ſeveral farmers were entirely ruined by them; one gathered 80 buſhels of theſe inſects from the trees on his farm. In 1574, there fell ſuch a multitude of theſe inſects into the Severn, that they ſtopped and clogged the wheels of the water-mills.

TURNIPS, when young, are apt to be totally deſtroyed by a multitude of little black flies, thence called the *turnip-fly*. As a preventative of theſe, ſome adviſe the ſeed to be mixed with brimſtone; but this is improper, as brimſtone is poiſonous to vegetables. The beſt method ſeems to be the fumigation of the fields with ſmoke of half-dried vegetables. For this purpoſe weeds will anſwer. This fumigation muſt be often repeated, to drive away the innumerable multitudes of theſe inſects which are capable of deſtroying a large field of turnips. Some ſuppoſe that the fly is either engendered in new dung, or enticed by it; and therefore adviſe the manure to be laid on in the autumn preceding, by which it loſes all its noxious qualities, while its nutritive ones are retained, not being exhaled by the ſun. This method is aſcertained by experiments; and another material advantage accruing from autumn manuring for turnips is, that all the ſeeds contained in the dung, and likewiſe being carried on the land with it, vegetate the moſt immediately, are moſtly killed by the cold of winter, and the few that remain ſeldom eſcape the deſtruction by the plough-ſhare.

The following method of ſowing has alſo been recommended as a preventative of the fly:—"About Midſummer, when it rains, or there is an apparent certainty of rain approaching, ſow your turnip ſeed; if about the full moon, the better. In this caſe, neither harrow, bruſh, nor roll, after ſowing. The natural heat of the ground at that ſeaſon, and the conſequent fermentation occaſioned by copious rain, will give an aſtoniſhingly quick vegetation to the ſeed, which in a few days will ſtand out of all danger from the fly. At all times, ſow not till it rains; it is better to wait a month, or even longer, for rain, than to ſow merely for the ſake of ſowing about the uſual time) when the ground is parched with heat. By the ſcorching of the ſun, the oil and vegetative quality of the ſeed are exhauſted; and the few weak plants that come up will be deſtroyed by the fly before they can attain ſtrength to put forth their rough leaves. The fly inſects the ground abundantly in dry hot weather, but do no injury after rain. The falling rain will ſufficiently waſh the turnip ſeed into the ground without harrowing it in; which inſtead of merely covering, too often buries this ſmall ſeed at ſo great a depth, as never afterwards to get above ground."

The following remedies are alſo recommended as having often proved ſucceſsful: A ſmall quantity of ſoot ſown over the land at their firſt appearance. Branches of elder, with the leaves uſed, drawn in a gate over them. Muſk mixed with the ſeed before it is ſown. And ſulphur ſtrut under it, after moiſtening it with water in which tobacco has been ſteeped. But ſhowers on the plants as ſoon as they appear above ground, are eſteemed the beſt preſervatives. They enfeeble and kill the fly, and haſten the plants into the rough leaf, when they are out of danger. The ſweet ſmell of turnip has been thought to attract the fly; upon which ſuppoſition, the remedy appeared to conſiſt in overpowering that ſmell by one which is ſtrong, fetid, and diſagreeable. Hence it has been recommended, that upon an acre of turnips ſown in the uſual way, a peck or more of dry ſoot be thrown after the ground is finiſhed, and in as regular a way as he ſows the ſeed.

Some years ago an inſect, called the *corn butterfly*, committed ſuch ravages while in its vermicular ſtate, in France, that upwards of 200 pariſhes were ruined by it; and the miniſtry offered a reward to the diſcoverer of an effectual remedy againſt this deſtroying worm. The cure which was at laſt diſcovered was, to heat the corn in an oven ſo much as not to deſtroy its vegetative power, but ſufficiently to deſtroy the ſmall worms which made their neſt in the ſubſtance of the grain, and at laſt eat the ſubſtance completely. Though inſects can bear a great deal of cold, they are eaſily deſtroyed by a ſlight degree of heat; nor is the vegetative power of corn eaſily deſtroyed, even when kept for a long time in a pretty ſtrong heat. This method muſt therefore be effectual for deſtroying all kinds of inſects with which grain is infected: but care muſt be taken not to apply too great a heat; and the adjuſting of the preciſe degree neceſſary to deſtroy the inſect, without hurting the corn, will require attention.

The curled diſeaſe in POTATOES has long been a ſubject of inveſtigation and experiment among farmers: and the knowledge of its cauſe and cure ſeems yet to remain a deſideratum. (See POTATOES, § 13.) The Agriculture Society at Mancheſter, a few years ago, offered a premium for diſcovering by actual experiment the cauſe of the diſeaſe in queſtion; and many letters were, in conſequence, addreſſed to them upon the ſubject. —As theſe contain ſome intereſting remarks, tho' very little deciſive on the ſubject, we ſhall give a ſhort extract from them.

I. The writer of the firſt letter aſcribes this diſeaſe to an inſect produced by froſt or bad keeping before ſetting. In autumn 1776, he got up a bed of potatoes to lay by in winter, leaving plenty in the ground as regular as poſſible; and, before the ſeverity of winter came on, covered part of the bed with ſtraw and peaſe-haulm, and left the other part of the bed uncovered. That part of the bed which was covered was quite free from curled ones; but the uncovered part produced many curled, owing, as the writer ſays, to froſt.

II. This writer had about a quarter of an acre of potatoes, well manured with cow and horſe dung, and took great care in picking the fine ſmooth ſkinned potatoes for ſets; yet 9 out of 10 were curled. He attributes the cauſe of this diſeaſe to a white grub, which he found near the root, about half an inch long, with 8 or 10 legs, its head brown and hard; as upon examining a number of the curled roots, he found them all bitten, from the ſurface to the root, which ſtopped the progreſs of the ſap, and threw the leaf into

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a curl. The uncurled were not bitten. First, he put soot to the insects in the rows for two days; and after that, he put lime to them for the same time, but they still kept lively; next he put a little salt, which destroyed them in a few hours. From which he infers, that if coarse salt were put into the ground at the time the land is preparing for potatoes, it would cure this distemper.

III. In this letter, the cause of the disease is attributed to the method of earthing the stems while in cultivation; and it is recommended to take the sets from those potatoes that have not bred any from the branch covered.

IV. According to this writer, the disorder proceeds from potatoes being set in old tilled or worn-out ground. Hence he says, that no sets ought to be used from such land; and that, to have good sets, they should be procured from land that was purposely fallowed for them; from fresh ley land, where they are not curled; or from ley land that was burnt the preceding spring. To make certain of getting good sets, he recommends crabs to be gathered from potatoes growing on fresh land free from curl, and the next spring to sow them on fresh ley land; and continue to plant their sets on fresh ley land yearly. All the good potatoes he saw, either on fresh ley land or on old tilled land, were raised from sets that grew upon fresh ley land last year; and where he has seen curled potatoes, he found, upon enquiry, that the potato sets grew upon old tiled and worn-out land last year.

V. In 1772, this writer planted some potatoes by accident full 9 inches deep: when taken up, many of the plants were rotted, and a few curled. He kept the whole produce for seed, and planted two acres with it in 1773, not quite six inches deep. The crop was amazingly great; and he did not observe *any curled plants* among them. In 1774, many of these were planted in different soils; yet they were so infected with the curled disease, that not one in 20 escaped. In 1775, the disease became general. In 1776, it occured to him that the good crop of 1773 was owing to the accidental *deep setting* of 1772; and that the reason why the same seed became curled in 1774, was their being set so near the surface in 1773. In 1777, he took some potatoes from a crop that was curled the year before, and after cutting the sets, left them in a dry room for a month. Half were planted in ground dug 14 days before; the other half, having been steeped in a brine made of whitster's ashes for two hours, were also planted in the same land at the same time. The steeped ones came up ten days before the others, and hardly any missed or were curled. The unsteeped ones generally failed, and those few that came up were mostly curled. He therefore advised, 1. That the potatoes intended for next year's sets be planted nine inches deep. 2. That they remain in the ground as long as the season will permit. 3. That these sets be well defended from frost till the beginning of March. 4. That the sets be cut a fortnight before planting. 5. That they be steeped, as above, two hours in brine or ley. 6. That the dung be put *over* the sets. And 7. That fresh sets be got every year from sandy soils near the coast, or on the shore. At planting, the hard dry sets should be cast aside, as they will probably be curled. Curled potatoes always proceed from sets which do not putrefy in the ground.

VI. This writer had 5 drills of the old red potatoes, and 4 of the winter whites, growing at the same time in the same field. The drills were prepared exactly alike. Among the red not one was curled; the winter whites were nearly all curled. He says he has found by experience, that the red *never* curl.

VII. Two of this writer's neighbours had their sets out of one heap of potatoes. They both set with the plough, the one early and the other late in the season. Most of those early set produced curled, and most of those set late smooth; the latter on clay land. A few roods of land were also planted with small potatoes, which had been spread on a chamber floor all the winter and spring till the middle of May. They were full and withered; they proved smooth and a good crop. Middle sized potatoes, withered and full which had been kept in a large dry cellar, and the sprouts of which had been broken off three times, produced a smooth and good crop. He was led to think a superfluity of sap, occasioned by the seed being unripe, might cause disease. To be satisfied in this, he asked the farmer whether he had set any of the same potatoes this year, and what was the nature of the land? He told him "he had; that they had been set on his farm 14 years without ever curling; that the soil was a poor whitish sand, of little depth that he let those he designed for keeping grow till they were fully ripe. Hence he concludes the only sure way to prevent the curl is, to earth potatoes intended for seed stand till they are fully ripe, and to keep them dry all winter.

VIII. This writer set a quantity of red potatoes, without having a curled one amongst them. His method is, when the sets are cut, to pick out such as are reddest in the infide. On digging them up at Michaelmas, he mixes none of the curled seed among the others. The curled are easily distinguished by their stalks withering two months before the rest of the crop. The cause of the curled disease he attributes to potatoes having of late years produced from seed instead of roots, as formerly. Such will not stand more than two or three years, use what means you please. Last spring, he set the old red and white russets, and not a curled potato among them. On the lime-stone land about Denbigh, North Wales, they have no curled potatoes. Is this be owing to the nature of that land, perhaps lime might prevent the disease.

IX. According to this writer, all sorts of grain wear out and turn wild if sown too long on the same land; the same will hold good in all sorts of pulse, pease, beans, and potatoes. Those who have most curled potatoes generally plant small sets. Eleven years ago he bought a parcel of fresh sets, of the golden run kind, and has kept them without change to the present year, without any being curled. This he principally attributes to his having always planted good large sets. To prevent the evil, cut the sets from clear and middle-sized potatoes, gathered from places as

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of the curl as poſſible; preſerve them till ſpring. If any are harder, or graſh more in cutting than uſual, caſt them aſide. He alſo recommends the uſing a freſh ſort from the crab produced on the parts leaſt affected, which in Lancaſhire are the ing duns.

X. Set potatoes with the ſprits broke off, and they will (ſays the writer of this letter) be curled ves; if ſet with the ſprits on, they will not be urled. Again, take a potato which is ſprit, and ut a ſet off with two ſights: break one ſprit off, nd let the other ſtay on, and ſet it; the former ill be curled, and the latter will not. When potatoes are holed, take them out before they ot, and lay them dry until you ſet or ſow them, nd you will have none curled.

XI. This writer was at the expence of procuring ſets from 50 miles diſtance, and where this diſeaſe was not known. The firſt year's trial was ſucceſsful; the year following he procured ſets from the ſame place, but one 5th of his crop was infected. By way of experiment, he planted ſets of roots which had been infected the year before, and ſome of theſe produced healthy plants, free from all infection. He ſuppoſed the cauſe to be ſome inſect, which, living on the leaves, gave them that curled and ſickly appearance, as is the caſe in the leaves of many ſhrubs and trees, he made the following experiments. On a piece of ground that had not been dug for 20 years, he planted four rows of ſets, which he knew to be perfectly clear; the drills were two feet diſtant, and ſets one foot diſtant in each drill. He then planted on the ſame ground four rows with ſets of curled potatoes, at equal diſtances; in each drill were about 20 ſets. Lot Ift, *the curled ſtate*. 1. Without manure; 2. In ſalt; 3. In ſoot; 4. In quicklime. Lot IId, *the clear ſets*. N° 1. Without manure; 2. In ſalt; 3. In ſoot; 4. In lime. Thoſe planted in ſalt and ſoot in both lots were deſtroyed. In Lot I. N° 1. and 4. all curled. Lot II. N° 1. and 4. quite clear. This experiment was made on a ſuppoſition that the inſect lodged in the ſet, and muſt be deſtroyed on planting. But of that he is not ſatisfied. He remarks ſalt, ſoot, and quicklime, on the branches of ſeveral curled potatoes. Salt deſtroyed all he touched with it. Lime and ſoot had a partial effect on the plants. After ſome time, they appeared almoſt as healthy as the reſt. Thus, although he had done little towards the cure, he aſſures himſelf he has pointed out the cauſe, the effects on the curled plants being not only very conſpicuous, but viſible to the naked eye.

XII. This writer aſcribes the cauſe of the diſeaſe to the froſt, and bad keeping in winter and ſpring before ſetting. They are liable to be damaged by froſt after they are ſet, but this may be prevented by covering. If it be aſked, why froſt did not injure them formerly? he anſwers, it is only the NEW kinds which are apt to curl, and leſs care is now taken of the ſeed than formerly. Let them remain in the ground covered with haulm or litter till they are wanted for ſetting; and, if the froſt touches them afterwards, they will be free from the diſeaſe.

XIII. This writer ſays, the red potato was as generally planted as the winter white and the Lincolnſhire kidney are now. The firſt, being a later potato, did not ſprout ſo early as the others. The white ſprout very early, and therefore ſhould firſt be moved out of the place where they have been preſerved in winter. Inſtead of that, they often remain till their roots and ſprouts are matted together. On ſeparating them, the ſprouts are generally rubbed off, and they are laid by till the ground is ready; during which interval they ſprout again: but theſe 2d ſprouts, being weak and languid, ſhrink, ſicken, and die; and the fruit at the roots will be ſmall, hard, ill-ſhaped, and of a brown colour. Now, if putting off the ſprouts once or more, before the ſets are put in the ground, be the cauſe (as he believes it is) of the curled diſeaſe, an eaſy remedy is at hand. When the potatoes intended for ſets are dug up, lay them in a weſt aſpect as dry as poſſible: in ſuch a ſituation they will not ſprout ſo ſoon. The beſt time for removing moſt ſorts is the firſt fine day after the 24th of February. Cut them into ſets, and let them remain covered with dry ſand till the ground is prepared, which ſhould be a winter fallow. Lay the ſets in without breaking off any of the ſprouts, for the ſecond will not be ſo vigorous. This accounts for one ſprout out of three from the ſame ſet being curled. The two ſtems not curled roſe from two later eyes, and were firſt ſprouts. The ſprout curled was a 2d, the firſt having been rubbed off.

XIV. This writer ſays, that laſt ſpring one of his neighbours cut and ſet, by drilling, ſome loads of the largeſt potatoes he could procure; and more than half of them proved curled. Being a few ſets ſhort of the quantity wanted, he planted ſome very ſmall potatoes which he had laid by for the pigs. Theſe being fully ripe and ſolid, there was not a curled plant among them. He thinks the others being curled was owing to their not being fully ripe. A crop of potatoes, ſet in rows on ground that had born a crop of them the preceding year, were moſtly curled; but many plants came up from ſeed left in the ground the former ſeaſon, and there was not a curled one among them.

XV. Of late years, this writer ſays, great improvements have been made in ſetting potatoes and cutting the ſets. The ground is dreſſed cleaner and dunged ſtronger. Many people, in drilling, wrap up the ſets entirely in the dung; by which means, though their potatoes are larger, the diſeaſe ſeems to be increaſed. They alſo cut their ſets out of the richeſt and largeſt potatoes, which is perhaps another cauſe of this evil. In cold countries, where they ſet their own ſeed, which has grown on poor land, with leſs dung, they have no curled plants. On the contrary, when they bought rich and large potatoes for ſeed, they have been curled in great quantities. He believes, the richneſs and largeneſs of the ſeed to be the cauſe of the evil; for he does not remember to have ſeen a curled ſtem which did not ſpring from a ſet of a large potato.

XVI. This writer apprehends the curled diſeaſe in potatoes to proceed from a defect in the *planta ſeminalis*, or ſeed-plant; and from comparing curled ones with others, there appeared to be a want of, or inability in, the powers of explanatory

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expanding or unfolding the parts of the former; which, from this defect, forms ſhrivelled, ſtarved, curled ſtems. On examining ſome of the ſets at the time of getting the crop, he found them hard and undecayed; ſo hard, indeed, that ſome of them would not be ſoft with long boiling. Some have thought that the fermentation is occaſioned by too great quantities being heaped together; but this writer has ſeen an inſtance, wherein a ſingle potato, preſerved by itſelf, when ſet, produced ſtems of the curled kind. He thinks the diſeaſe is occaſioned by the potatoes being taken from the ground before the ſtamen, or miniature plant, is properly matured and ripened. For the potato, being a native of a warm climate, has there more ſun, and a longer continuance in the ground, than in its exotic ſtate; conſequently, it has not the ſame natural cauſes to mature the ſeed plant as in its native ſtate. We ought, therefore, to give all the opportunities our climate will admit for nature to complete her work, and fit the ſtamen for the next ſtate of vegetation, eſpecially in thoſe intended for ſeed. But if the potato be taken up before the ſeed plant be fully matured, or the air and ſap veſſels have acquired a proper degree of firmneſs or hardneſs, it muſt, when thus robbed of further nutrition, ſhrivel up; and when the veſſels, in this immature ſtate, come to act again in the ſecond ſtate of vegetation, they may produce plants which are curled. Before the preſent mode of ſetting them took place, people covered them, while in the ground, with ſtraw to protect them from froſt. If it be aſked, why one ſet produces both curled and ſmooth ſtems? he anſwers, we ſuppoſe every eye to contain a *planta ſeminalis*; that all the embryos, or ſeed plants, contained in one potato, are nouriſhed by one root; that, as in ears of corn, ſome of theſe ſeed plants may be nouriſhed before others. One of his neighbours, laſt year, ſet two rows of potatoes, which proving all cruſted, he did not take them up; and this year there is not a curled one among them. Such potatoes, therefore, as are deſigned for ſeed, ſhould be preſerved as long in the ground as poſſible.

XVII. This writer adviſes ſuch ſets to be planted as grow in moſs land; and, he ſays, there will not be a ſingle curled one the firſt year. This is affirmed by the inhabitants of two townſhips, where they raiſe amazing quantities. A medical gentleman ſowed the one year two buſhels of ſets from one of the above places; and had not one curled; but on ſowing them again next year he had a few.

Although there ſeems to be a diverſity of opinions among the above writers, occaſioned by the different appearances of their crops, and reſpecting the means proper to prevent or cure the diſeaſe, the following general propoſitions may be fairly drawn from the whole: i. That ſome kinds of potatoes are *(cæteris paribus)* more liable to be affected by the diſeaſe than the reſt; and that the old red, the golden dun, and the long dun, are the moſt free from it. ii. That the diſeaſe is occaſioned by one or more of the following cauſes, either ſingly or combined: 1ſt, by froſt, either before or after the ſets are planted: 2d, From planting ſets out of large unripe potatoes: 3d, From planting too near the ſurface, and in old worn-out ground: 4th, From the firſt ſhoots of the ſets being broken off before planting; whence there is an incapacity in the *planta ſeminalis* to ſend forth others ſufficiently vigorous to expand ſo fully as they ought. iii. That the moſt ſucceſsful methods of preventing the diſeaſe, are cutting the ſets from ſmooth middle ſized potatoes, that were fully ripe, and had been kept dry after they were taken out of the ground; and without rubbing off their firſt ſhoots, planting them pretty deep in freſh earth, with a mixture of quick-lime or on lime-ſtone land.

A correſpondent of the Bath Society is convinced, that, whatever may be its cauſe, the diſeaſe itſelf is inherent in the ſeed; and has communicated the following method of avoiding it: "I made a hot-bed in the following manner, which method I have uſed ever ſince: I laid horſe dung, &c. as in making hot-beds, about 18 inches thick, over which I ſpread a layer of fine rich mould about 4 or 5 inches thick: upon the top of this I laid, in different diviſions, a certain number of potatoes of various ſorts, ſome of my own growth, and others brought from different parts, and covered theſe lightly over with more mould; they ſoon came up. I then obſerved which were free from the blight or curl; for if there were more than one defective in *forty* or *fifty*, I excluded I might ſet of that ſort with ſafety. This method I have now practiſed near 12 years, and never loſt my crop, or any part thereof worth mentioning; whilſt my neighbours, who followed the old method, were frequently diſappointed in their crops; and to the beſt of my knowledge all thoſe of my neighbours who have of late been perſuaded to take the trouble of uſing the ſame means as myſelf, have never failed of ſucceſs in one inſtance; nor do I ever think it will fail if duly attended to; the fault being ſome hidden cauſe in the ſeed unknown at preſent, and I believe incurable by any means, at leaſt which has yet come to my knowledge. My reaſon for making my hot-beds ſo ſoon is, that if the froſt hinders the firſt experiment, or they all prove bad, I may have time to make a 2d or 3d with different ſorts of ſeed, before the proper ſeaſon arrives for planting in the fields and grounds appointed for the great and general crop."

PART II.

PRACTICE OF RURAL ECONOMY, OR AGRICULTURE.

SECT. I. *Of the* INSTRUMENTS *of* AGRICULTURE.

THE inſtruments employed in agriculture are various; as the plough, the harrow, the roller, &c. which are again greatly diverſified by various conſtructions adapted to particular uſes.

I. PLOUGHS. The plough conſtructed in the following manner is ſtill the moſt common, and the moſt generally underſtood in Scotland; and if properly made, is the beſt for anſwering all purpoſes, when only one is uſed; though others are perhaps, more proper on ſome particular occaſions. The parts of which this plough is compoſed, are, the head, the beam, the ſheath, the

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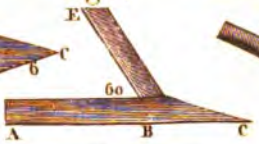
Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.



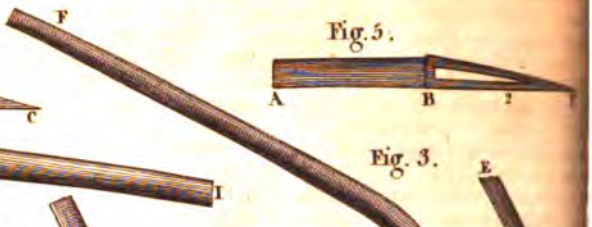


Fig. 5.

Fig. 4.

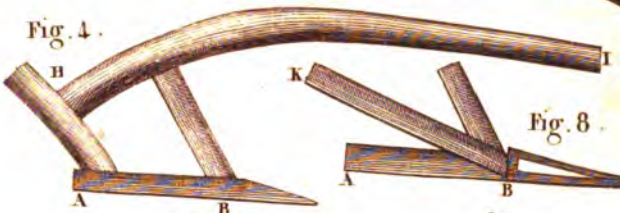
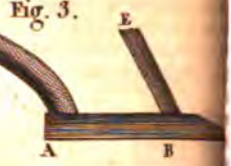


Fig. 8.

Fig. 3.



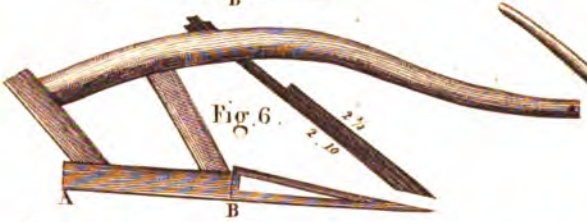


Fig. 7

Fig. 13.

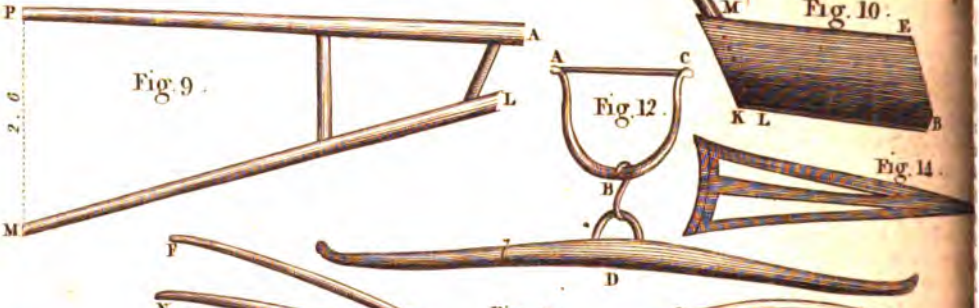


Fig. 14.

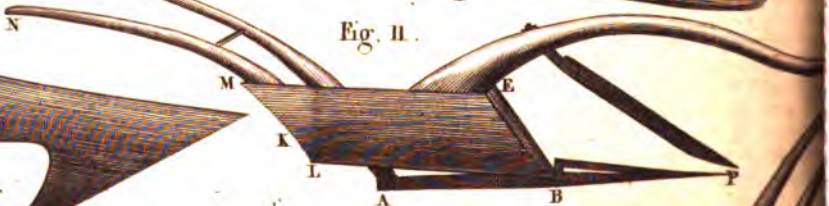


Fig. 19. Paring Plough.

Rotherham Plough

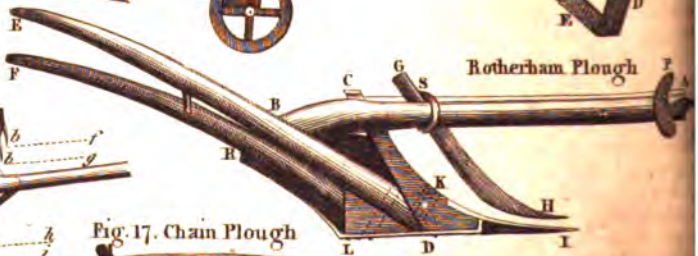


Fig. 54. Drill Rake

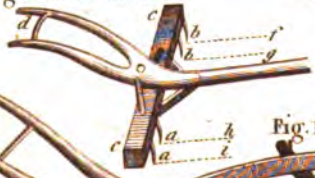


Fig. 17. Chain Plough

Fig. 57. Hand Hoe.

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t, the mouldboard, the two handles, the two gs, the ſock, and the coulter; the two laſt are le of iron, and all the reſt of wood.

The HEAD is deſigned for opening the ground ow. The length of the head from A to B (*Pl.* XCVIII, *Fig.* 1.) is about 20 inches, and the dth from A to D about five inches; C is the t upon which the ſock is driven, and the th from B to C is about ſix inches; *a* is the toiſe into which the larger handle is fixed, *b* is the mortoiſe into which the ſheath is fixed. he head is that part of the plough which goes e ground; therefore the ſhorter and narrower the friction will be leſs, and the plough more y drawn; but the longer the head is, the gh goes more ſteadily, and is not ſo eaſily put of its direction by any obſtructions that oc-

Twenty inches is conſidered as a mean th; and 5 inches as the moſt convenient dth.

he SHEATH, E, *Fig.* 2. is driven into the mor- *b*, and thus fixed to the head AB. It is not endicular to the head, but placed obliquely, to make the angle formed by the lines A B B about 60 degrees. The ſheath is about hes long, beſides what is driven into the ſe *b* (*fig.* 1.); about 3 inches broad, and one thick. The ſheath is fixed to the *mould-*, as in *fig.* 11. E, in the ſame manner as reſt is fixed to the head in *fig.* 7.

he MOULD-BOARD, is deſigned to turn over rth of the furrow made by the plough; and obvious, that, according to the poſition of heath, the mould-board will turn over the of the furrow more or leſs ſuddenly. Be- when it forms a leſs angle with the head 60 degrees, the plough is in great danger of *choked*, as the farmers term it.

e Larger HANDLE, FA, *fig.* 3. is fixed to the by driving it into the mortoiſe *a fig.* 1. It is d in the ſame plane with the head; its length AF is about 5 feet 4 inches, and its diame- the place where it is fixed to the beam is a- inches, and tapers a little to the top F. ten inches from A, there is a curve in the which, when F is raiſed to its proper makes the lower part of it nearly parallel ſheath E B. This curve is deſigned to hen the handle. The proper poſition of the is, when the top F is about 3 feet 2 inches than the bottom of the head AB. The the handles, the plough is the more eaſily ed, becauſe the levers are more diſtant from ntre of motion. The higher the top of the s, the plough is more eaſily raiſed out of ound, provided they be no higher than the part of a man's breaſt.

e BEAM, (*fig.* 4.) is fixed to the larger han- d the ſheath, all of which are placed in the plane with the head. The length, from H about 6 feet; its diameter is about 4 inches. the plough is in the ground, the beam l be juſt high enough not to be incommoded y thing on the ſurface. The poſition of the depends on the number of cattle in the h. When two horſes are yoked, the beam l be placed in ſuch a manner as to make the ndicular diſtance betwixt the bolt-hole of the beam and the plane of the head about 21 inches; when 4 horſes are yoked, two a-breaſt, this diſtance ſhould only be about 18 inches.

The SOCK, BP, (*fig.* 5.) is fixed to the end of the head, and is about two feet long. In fitting the ſock to the head, the point ought to be turned a little to the land or left ſide; becauſe otherwiſe it is apt to come out of the land altogether. When turned to the left, it likewiſe takes off more land; when turned upwards, the plough goes ſhallow; and when downwards, it goes deeper.

The COULTER, (*fig.* 6.) is fixed to the beam, and is about 2 feet 10 inches long, 2½ inches broad, ſharp at the point and before, and thick on the back, like a knife. It is fixed and directed by wedges, ſo as to make the point of it equal to, or rather a little before, the point of the ſock, and upon a line with the left ſide of the head. This oblique poſition enables it to throw roots, &c. out of the land, which requires leſs force than cutting or puſhing them forward.

The WREST, BD, (*fig.* 7.) is fixed to the head, and is about 26 inches long, two broad, and one thick. It is fixed to the head at B, in ſuch a manner as to make the angle contained between the lines AB and BD about 25°. The wreſt is ſeldom or never placed in the ſame plane with the head, but gradually raiſed from the place where it is fixed to it; that is, from B to K, as in *fig.* 8. The poſition of the wreſt determines the nature of the furrow. When the wreſt is wide and low ſet, the furrow is wide; and when it is narrow and high ſet, the furrow is narrow.

Fig. 9. repreſents the two HANDLES, fixed together by the two rungs. The larger handle has already been deſcribed; the leſſer one is a few inches ſhorter, and does not require to be quite ſo ſtrong. The diſtance of the handles at the little rung depends on the poſition of the wreſt. Their diſtance at M and P is about two feet ſix inches. The leſſer handle is fixed to the mould board at M, *fig.* 10. and to the wreſt KB, at L. *Fig.* 11. repreſents the plough complete, by joining together *fig.* 6. and 10. in the ſheath E B. The wreſt BK is ſuppoſed to make an angle with the head AB as in *fig.* 7. and the handles joined together as in *fig.* 9.

After this particular deſcription of all the parts and proportions of the Scots plough, it will eaſily appear how it ſeparates, raiſes, and turns over the earth of the furrow. If it had no coulter, the earth would open above the middle of the ſock, and in a line before the ſheath; but as the coulter opens the earth in a line with the left ſide of the head, if the ſoil has any coheſion, the earth of the furrow will be wholly raiſed from the left ſide, and, as the ſock moves forward, will be thrown on the right ſide of the ſheath, and by the caſting out of the mould-board, or the raiſing of the wreſt, will be turned over.

The BRIDLE, or MUZZLE, (*Fig.* 12.) is another article belonging to the plough. It is fixed to the end of the beam, and the cattle are yoked by it. The muzzle commonly uſed is a curved piece of iron, fixed to the beam by a bolt through it. A B C is the muzzle, A C the bolt by which it is fixed to the beam; D is the ſwingle-tree or croſs-tree, to which the traces are fixed; and B

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is a hook or *cleek*, as it is commonly called, which joins the muzzle and ſwingle-tree. Some uſe another kind of muzzle, A B C D, *Fig.* 13. It is fixed to the beam by two bolts, and has notches by which the cleek of the ſwingle-tree may be fixed either to the right or the left of the beam. There are alſo different holes for the hind-bolt to paſs through, by which the draught may be fixed either above or below the beam. A D is the fore-bolt upon which the muzzle turns; on B C are four notches, betwixt any two of which the cleek of the ſwingle-tree may be fixed. When the cleek is fixed at B, the plough is turned towards the firm land, and takes off a broader furrow; and when fixed at C, it is turned towards the ploughed land, and takes of a narrower furrow. E and F are the holes on each ſide through which the hindmoſt bolt paſſes. When the bolt is put through the higheſt two, theſe holes being thereby brought to the middle of the beam, the fore part of the muzzle is raiſed above the beam, and the plough is made to go deeper; and when put through the loweſt two, the fore part of the muzzle is ſunk below the beam, and the plough is made to go ſhallower. This muzzle may be ſo conſtructed as to have the ſame play with the common one. A *Fig.* 16. is the end of the beam; B a plate of iron ſunk into it, and, with a ſimilar one in the other ſide, is rivetted into it by bolts; C is the muzzle fixed to theſe plates of iron by the bolt D, which bolt may be put through any of the holes EE. From the conſtruction of this muzzle it is plain, that it has the ſame play with the common one, and that by it the land of the plough may be altered at pleaſure.

Of all forms, that of the SCOTS PLOUGH is the fitteſt for breaking up ſtiff and rough land, eſpecially where ſtones abound; and no leſs fit for ſtrong clays hardened by drought. The length of its head gives it a firm hold of the ground: its weight prevents it from being thrown out by ſtones; the length of the handles gives the ploughman great command to direct its motion; and by the length of its head, and of its mould-board, it lays the furrow-ſlice cleverly over. This plough was contrived during the infancy of agriculture, and was well contrived: in the ſoils above deſcribed, it has not an equal. But in tender ſoil it is improper, becauſe it adds greatly to the expence of plowing, without any counterbalancing benefit. The length of the head and mould-board increaſes the friction, and conſequently it requires a greater number of oxen or horſes than are neceſſary in a ſhorter plough. There is another particular in its form that reſiſts the draught: the mould-board makes an angle with the ſock, inſtead of making a line with it gently curving backward. There is an objection againſt it no leſs ſolid, that it does not ſtir the ground perfectly: the hinder part of the wreſt riſes a foot above the ſole of the head; and the earth that lies immediately below that hinder part, is left unſtirred. This is ribbing land below the ſurface, ſimilar to what is done by ignorant farmers on the ſurface. Theſe defects muſt be ſubmitted to in a ſoil that requires a ſtrong heavy plough; but may be avoided in a cultivated ſoil by a plough differently conſtructed.

Of all the ploughs fitted for a cultivated ſoil free of ſtones, that introduced into Scotland about 25 years ago, by James Small in Blackadder Mouſe, Berwickſhire, is the beſt. It is now in great requeſt; and with reaſon, as it avoids all the defects of the Scots plough. The ſhortneſs of its head and of its mouldboard leſſen the friction greatly: from the point of the ſock to the back part of the head it is only 30 inches; and its whole length, from the point of the beam to the end of the handles, between eight and nine feet. The ſock and mouldboard make one line gently curving; and conſequently gather no earth. Inſtead of a wreſt, the under edge of the mouldboard is in one plain with the ſole of the head, which makes a wide furrow, without leaving any part unſtirred. It is termed the CHAIN PLOUGH, becauſe it is drawn by an iron chain fixed to the back part of the beam immediately before the coulter. (See *Pl.* 298, *Fig.* 17.) This has two advantages: firſt, by means of a muzzle, it makes the plough go deep or ſhallow; and, next, it ſtreſſes the beam leſs than if fixed to the point, and therefore a ſlenderer beam is ſufficient. This plough is a capital improvement; not only by ſaving expence, but by making better work. It is proper for loams; for carſe clays; and, in general, for every ſort of tender ſoil free of ſtones. It is even proper for opening up paſture ground, when the ſoil has been formerly well cultivated. PLOUGH, § 5.

A ſpiked ſock is uſed in the Scots plough. The difference between it and the feathered ſock will be beſt underſtood by comparing their figures. *Fig.* 14. *Pl.* 298, is the common ſock, and *fig.* 15. the feathered one. From the conſtruction of the feathered ſock, it muſt meet with greater reſiſtance than the common ſock. However, when the plough takes off the earth of the furrow broader than that part of the ſock which goes upon the head, it is more eaſily drawn than the plough with the common ſock; for the earth, which the common ſock leaves to be opened by the wreſt, is more eaſily opened by the feather of the feathered ſock. In lea, the feathered ſock makes the plough go more eaſily, becauſe the roots of the graſs which go beyond the reach of the plough, are more eaſily cut by the feather than they can be torn aſunder by the common ſock. The feathered ſock is alſo of great uſe in cutting and deſtroying root-weeds. The common ſock, however, anſwers much better in ſtrong land. In fitting the feathered ſock to the head, the point of it muſt be turned a little from the land, or a little to the right hand.

Forty years ago, ploughs of different conſtructions were not known in this country. The Scots plough was univerſally uſed, and no other was known. There was no leſs ignorance as to the number of cattle neceſſary for this plough. In the ſouth of Scotland, ſix oxen and two horſes were univerſal; and in the north, 10 oxen, ſometimes 12. The firſt attempt to leſſen the number of oxen was in Berwickſhire. The low part of that county abounds with ſtone, clay, and marle, the moſt ſubſtantial of all manures, which had been long uſed by one or two gentlemen. About 35 years ago it acquired reputation, and ſpread rapidly. As two horſes and two oxen were employed

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Fig. 20. Four Coultered Plough.

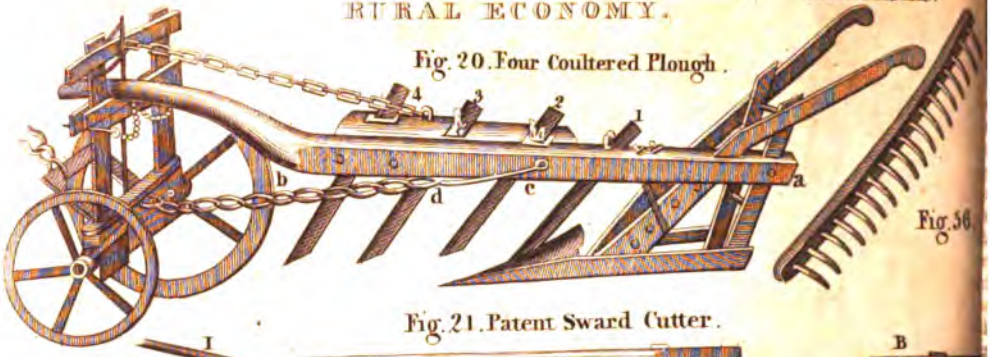

Fig. 56.

Fig. 21. Patent Sward Cutter.

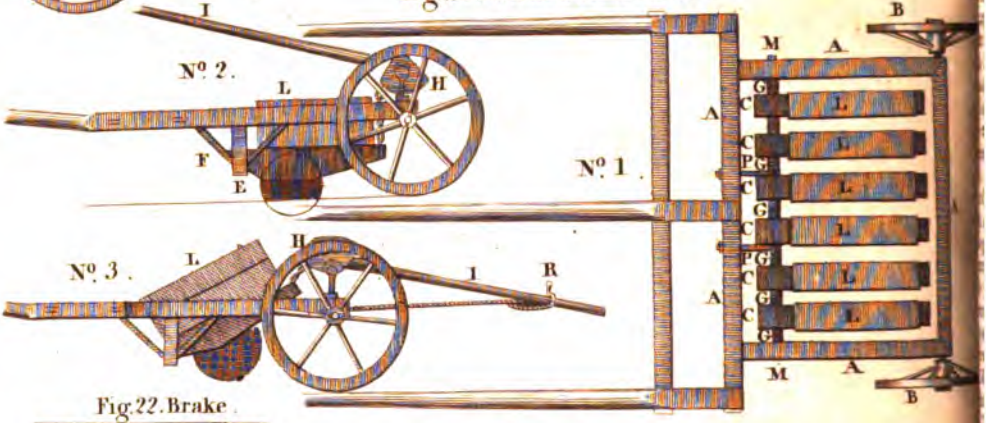

Fig. 22. Brake.

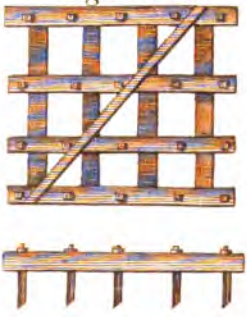

Fig. 23. First Harrow.

Fig. 24. Second Harrow.

Fig. 25. Third Harrow.

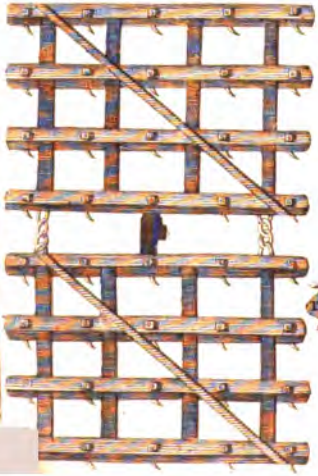

Fig. 26. Chain & Screw Harrow.

Fig. 45. Cleaning Harrow.

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loyed in every marl cart; the farmer, in sum-
er fallowing, and in preparing land for marl,
s confined to 4 oxen and 2 horses. And as that
grure afforded plenty of succulent straw for oxen,
oxen did better now than six formerly. Marling,
wever, a laborious work, proceeded slowly,
l people were taught by a noted farmer in that
untry, what industry can perform by means of
wer properly applied. It was reckoned a
ghty task to marl 5 or 6 acres in a year. That
ntleman by plenty of red clover for his work-
g cattle, accomplished the marling 50 acres in
summer, once 54. Having so much occasion
oxen, he tried with success two oxen and two
rses in a plough; and that practice became ge-
al in Berwickshire.
ere appears the advantage of the chain-plough.
great friction occasioned in the Scots plough
a long head, and by the angle it makes with
mouldboard, necessarily requires two oxen
d two horses, whatever the soil be. The fric-
n is so much less in the chain plough, that two
d horses are sufficient in every soil that is pro-
for it. Besides, the reducing the draught to
uple of horses has another advantage, that of
ving a driver unnecessary. This saving on
e plough, where two horses and two oxen
rmerly used, will, by the strictest compu-
be L. 15 Sterling yearly; and where 4
were used, no less than L. 20 Sterling.
is now scarce to be seen in the low coun-
Berwickshire a plough with more than two
We know but of one further improve-
, that of using two oxen instead of two
rses. That draught has been employed with
cess in several places, and the saving is very
. It may be confidently affirmed, no soil
d in a proper season, can ever require more
two horses and two oxen in a plough, even
ughing the stiffest clay. In all other soils, two
horses, or two good oxen abreast, may be
d on for every operation of the chain-plough.
chain-plough of a smaller size than ordinary,
by a single horse, is of all the most proper
rse-hoeing, supposing the land to be mellow,
it ought to be for that operation. It is suf-
for making furrows to receive the dung,
oughing the drills after dunging, and for
the crop. A still smaller plough of the
kind may be used for a kitchen-garden. It
e reduced to the smallest size, by being made
n: and where the land is properly dressed
kitchen garden, an iron plough of the smallest
drawn by a horse will save much spade-work.
Scotland, 40 years ago, a kitchen-garden
an article of luxury, merely, because at that
e there could be no cheaper food than oat-meal.
present, the farmer maintains his servants at
uble expence, as the price of oat-meal is dou-
d; and yet he has no notion of a kitchen gar-
more than he had 40 years ago. He never
ks, that living partly on cabbage, kail, and tur-
would save much oat-meal: nor, that change
food is more wholesome than vegetables alone,
oat-meal alone. We need not recommend
atoes, which in scanty crops of corn have pro-
a great blessing: without them, the labouring
r would frequently have been reduced to a
starving condition. Would the farmer but cu-
vate his kitchen garden with as much industry as
he bestows on his potato crop, he needed never
fear want; and he can cultivate it with the iron
plough at a very small expence. It may be held
by a boy of 12 or 13; and would be a proper edu-
cation for a ploughman. But the landlord ought
to give a beginning to the improvement. A very
small expence would inclose an acre for a kitchen
garden to each of his tenants; and it would excite
their industry, to bestow an iron plough on those
who do best. A single-horse plough may be also
profitably employed, for seed-furrowing barley,
where the land is light and well dressed: and it
may be used in the 2d or 3d plowing of fallow,
to encourage annual weeds, which are destroyed
in subsequent plowings.

The ROTHERHAM PLOUGH is a machine of very simple construction, and easily worked. (See *Pl.* 298, *fig.* 18.) A B is the beam, C D the sheath, E B D the main handle, F R the smaller handle, G H the coulter, K I the sock or share, N P the bridle, S the fly-band, and M L a piece of wood in place of a head. This plough should be made of ash or elm; the irons should be steeled and well-tempered; and that part of the plough which is under ground in tilling should be covered with plates of iron. The difference between this and the common plough consists in the bridle at the end of the beam, by which the ploughman can give the plough more or less land by notches at N, or make it cut deeper or shallower by the holes at P; in the coulter or share, which are so made and set as to cut off the new furrow without tearing; and in the mould-board, which is so shaped at first to raise a little, and then gradually turn over the new cut furrow with very little resistance. But the greatest advantage attending it, is its being so easy of draught, that it will do double the work of any common plough.

The PARING PLOUGH is an instrument used in several parts of England for paring off the surface of the ground, in order to its being burnt. (See *fig.* 19.) Mr Bradley has given the following description of a very simple instrument of this kind: From A to A is the plough-beam, about seven feet long, mortoised and pinioned into the block B, which is of clean timber without knots. C C are the sheaths or standards, made flat on the inside, to close equally with the paring plate, and fastened to it with a bolt and key on each side, as at D. E is the paring plate of iron laid with steel, about four inches wide, and from 12 to 18 inches long. This plate must be made to cut on the sides, which are bolted to the standards as well as at the bottom part. F F are two iron braces to keep the standards from giving way: these standards must be mortoised near their outsides and through the block. G G are the plough handles, which must be fixed slope-ways between the beam and the standards. The pin holes in the beam the use of which is to make this plough cut more or less deep, by fixing the wheels nearer to or farther from the paring plate, should not be above 2 inches asunder.

I. *Fig.* 20. *Plate.* 299. represents the FOUR-COULTERED PLOUGH of Mr Tull. Its beam is 10 feet 4 inches long, whereas that of the common plough is but 8. The beam is straight in the common

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plough, but in this it is ſtraight only from *a* to *b*, and thence arched: ſo that the line let down perpendicularly from the corner at *a*, to the even ſurface on which the plough ſtands, would be 11½ inches; and if another line were let down from the turning of the beam at *b* to the ſame ſurface, it would be one foot 8 inches; and a third line let down to the ſurface from the bottom of the beam at that part which bears upon the pillow, will ſhow the beam to be 2 feet 10 inches high in that part. At the diſtance of 3 feet 2 inches from the end of the beam *a*, at the plough-tail, the firſt coulter, or that next the ſhare, is let through; and at 13 inches from this, a 2d coulter is let through: a 3d at the ſame diſtance from that; and, finally, the 4th at the ſame diſtance from the third, that is, 13 inches, and from *a* to *b* is ſeven feet. The crookedneſs of the upper part of the beam of this plough is contrived to avoid the too great length of the three foremoſt coulters, which would be too much if the beam was ſtraight all the way; and they would be apt to bend and be diſplaced, unleſs they were very heavy and clumſy. Aſh is the beſt wood to make the beam of, it being ſufficiently ſtrong, and yet light. The ſheet in this plough is 7 inches broad. The fixing of the ſhare in this, as well as in the common plough, is the niceſt part, and requires the utmoſt art of the maker; for the well-going of the plough wholly depends upon the pitching of this. Suppoſing the ſole of the beam, and the left ſide of the ſhare, to be both horizontal, they muſt never be ſet parallel to each other; for if they are, the tail of the ſhare bearing againſt the trench as much as the point, would cauſe the point to incline to the right hand, and it would be carried out of the ground into the furrow. If the point of the ſhare ſhould be ſet ſo, that its ſide ſhould make an angle on the right ſide of the axis of the beam, this inconvenience would be much greater: and if its point ſhould incline much to the left, and make too large an angle on that ſide with the axis of the beam, the plough would run quite to the left hand; and if the holder, to prevent its running quite out of the ground, turns the upper part of its plough towards the left hand, the pin of the ſhare will riſe up and cut the furrow diagonally, leaving it half unploughed. To avoid this and ſeveral other inconveniences, the ſtraight ſide of the ſhare muſt make an angle upon the left ſide of the beam; but that muſt be ſo very acute a one, that the tail of the ſhare may only preſs leſs againſt the ſide of the trench than the point does. This angle is ſhown by the pricked lines at the bottom of *fig.* 9. where *ef* is ſuppoſed to be the axis of the beam let down to the ſurface, and *gf* parallel to the left ſide of the ſhare: and it is the ſubteniſe *eg* that determines the inclination which the point of the ſhare muſt have towards the left hand. The ſubteniſe, ſays Mr Tull, at the fore end of an eight-feet beam, ſhould never be more than one inch and a half, and whether the beam be long or ſhort, the ſubteniſe muſt be the ſame.

The great thing to be taken care of, is the placing the four coulters; which muſt be ſo ſet, that the four imaginary places deſcribed by their four edges, as the plough moves forward, may be all parallel to each other, or very nearly ſo; for if any one of them ſhould be very much inclined to, or ſhould recede much from, either of the other, then they would not enter the ground together. To place them thus, the beam muſt be carefully pierced in a proper manner. The 2d coulter-hole muſt be two inches and a half more on the right hand than the firſt, the third muſt be as much more to the right hand of the ſecond, and the 4th the ſame meaſure to the right hand of the 3d; and this two inches and a half muſt be carefully meaſured from the centre of one hole to the centre of the other. Each of theſe holes is a mortoiſe an inch and quarter wide, and three inches and a half long at the top, and three inches at the bottom. The two oppoſite ſides of this hole are parallel to the top and bottom, but the back is oblique, and determines the obliquity of the ſhanking of the coulter, which is wedged tight up to the poll. The coulter, is 2 feet 8 inches long before it is worn; the handle takes up ſixteen inches of this length, and is allowed thus long, that the coulter may be driven down as the point wears away. As to the wheels, the left hand wheel is 6 inches diameter, and that on the right hand 12 or 13 inches, and the diſtances at which they are ſet from each other is 2 feet 5½ inches.

II. The Patent Sward-cutter. The different parts of this inſtrument are repreſented by N° 1. 2. 3. of *Fig.* 21. *Pl.* 299. A. A. &c. a ſtrong frame 3 feet 4 inches from the fore to the hind part, by 4 feet 3 inches, the breadth of the machine within ſide; the timber (when of fir) 4 inches ſquare, placed on two wheels B. B.; 5 feet diameter, a little more or leſs (the old fore-wheels of a chaiſe may anſwer the purpoſe), to ſupport the hind part of the machine. C. C. &c. are ſix pieces of wood, called *bulls*, 3 feet long, 5 inches and a half broad, the thickneſs 6 inches at E. and tapering to 3 inches at F. Into theſe bulls are fixed the cutting wheels, which are iron, 13 inches diameter, ½ths of an inch thick at the centre, and an inch diameter for piercing holes to fix the axles in; from that they are to be of ſuch thickneſs as allow the edges to be well ſteeled. The wheels are fixed by 2 bolts going through the ends with eyes in one end for the axles of the wheels to run in, and nuts and ſcrews on the other to make them very firm by being ſunk in the bulls, to prevent their interfering with the weights L. L. &c. reſting on them. G. G. &c. are hollow pieces of wood, called *thorles*, each 3¼ inches long, which incloſe the bolt M. M. and keep the bulls C. &c. at their proper diſtances, but may be made longer or ſhorter at pleaſure, according as the ſward requires to be cut in larger or ſmaller pieces. They are in two pieces bound together, and ſecured by a ſtrap of leather or cord, which allows them to be readily changed when the cutting wheels require to be kept at more or leſs diſtance.

The iron bolt M. M. goes through two pieces of wood or iron P. P. 7 inches long, called the wood, ſupported by iron ſtays fixed to the frame and through all the bulls. It requires to be ſtrong as the draught of the horſes terminate there. II. N° 2. and 3. a cylinder or ſegment of wood 7 inches diameter, called a *rocking bar*, which goes acroſs the frame, and moves on the pins fixed into it, one at each end, ſupported by the

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iron bolt or piece of wood mortoiſed into the frame, 8 inches high, as appears in N° 2. and 3. to which 6 chains or ropes are fixed by hooks, at different diſtances, as you want your cuts, 9, 8, 7, or 6 inches from one another, and are joined to the end of each bull in which the cutting wheels run; ſo that when the rocking tree is turned about by the lever I. fixed in the middle of it, all the bulls, with their cutting wheels, are raiſed out of the ground at once, as in N° 3. by which means the machine may be turned, or moved from place to place with great eaſe, without any danger of ruining the wheels. L. L. L. &c. N° 1. 2. 3. The weights of freeſtone, 26 inches long and 6 inches broad; the under one 4 inches thick, the upper one 3 inches thick; weighing about 64 lb. the under, and 48 the upper; each of them having two holes, through which iron ſpikes, firmly fixed in the bulls, paſs, in order to keep them ſteady.

When the ground is eaſily cut, the under ſtone will anſwer; when more difficult, the other ſtone may be added; ſo that every wheel may have 7 or 8 weight upon it, which has been found ſufficient for the ſtiffeſt land and tougheſt ſward the machine has ever been tried on. Caſt iron weights will anſwer fully better, but are more expenſive. The lever I. N° 2. 3. which ought to be 7 feet long, muſt have a ſliding rope on it; fixed to the back part of the frame; ſo that when the cutting wheels are all taken out of the ground three or four inches, by the rocking tree's being turned partly round by the lever, the rope may be fixed to it with a loop over the pin R. N° 3. (it ought to be fixed 3 feet 4 inches from the extremity of the lever I.) Thus all the cutting wheels are kept out of the ground till the machine is turned; and then by removing the loop off the pin, it ſlips back towards the frame, and the lever is gently let back to its place, as in N° 2. by which the cutting wheels are put into their former poſture, by the weights laid on the bulls in which they run. The levers muſt be made of good tough aſh.

P. N° 1. a ſmall boat of iron, with a hook on the head of it (one is ſufficient), to ſtrengthen the bulls. M. to be hooked on the centre of it, and bolted to the frame by a nut and ſcrew. The boxes in which the cutting wheels run, may be ſecured below at the hinder part with a plate of thin black iron, 6 inches long, 3 inches broad, having a ſlit in it where the wheels run, to prevent long graſs, weeds, or ſmall ſtones, from filling the boxes, and clogging the wheels. To the frame N° 1. are fixed (for a double-horſe ſward-cutter) the ſhafts, as in a waggon, of ſuch length, length, and diſtance from one another, as any workman may think proper. For a ſingle-horſe ward-cutter (which has only 4 cutting wheels), a pair of ſhafts are uſed, and may make the two ſides of the frame without any joinings. The width of the frame, in proportion to the double-horſe ſward-cutter, is as 4 to 6. A double-horſe ward-cutter ſhould have 8 bulls and wheels, that when it is uſed to reduce hard clody ſummer fallow, or land for barley, before the laſt furrow, or even after it, the whole weight (42 ſtone) employed in cutting the ſtiffeſt land and tougheſt ſward, may be applied to the 8 bulls then at 6 inches from one another. The 64 lb. weights to be applied to ſix of the bulls, and two of the 48 lb. weights to each of the additional bulls which is a ſufficient weight for the purpoſe, and will effectually prevent a clod of more than ſix inches breadth from eſcaping being broke into pieces. In the ſame manner a ſingle-horſe ſward-cutter may have ſix bulls for the above mentioned purpoſe; the 28 ſtone belonging to it divided thus: The 64 lb. weights to four of the bulls and two of the 48 lb. weights to each of the additional bulls.

That the machine may come as cheap as poſſible, the inventor is of opinion that the expence of the two wheels and the iron axle (which is conſiderable) may be ſaved, by joining ſtrongly to the frame at S N° 3. a piece of wood with a little curve at the extremity of it, reſembling the ſoot of a ſledge, formerly much uſed in Scotland to carry in the corn from the field; the part of it reſting on the ground being kept 18 inches (the half diameter of the wheels) from the frame by a ſtrong ſupport of wood. As the two outer bulls next the frame are apt to get under it, ſo as to prevent the cutting wheels from being taken out of the ground, a thin ſlip of iron fixed to the inſide of the frame, nearly oppoſite to the back end of the bulls, of convenient length, will be neceſſary.

The original intention of this machine was to prepare old graſs-ground for the plough, by cutting it acroſs the ridges, in the beginning of or during winter, when the ground is ſoft, to anſwer all the purpoſes that Mr Tull propoſed by his four-coulter plough above deſcribed, and ſo ſtrongly recommended by him for bringing into tilth graſs ground that has been long reſted. This the ſward-cutter has been found to do much more effectually and expeditiouſly: For Mr Tull's machine cuts the ſward in the ſame direction with the plough; and is liable, from every obſtruction any of the coulters meet with, to be thrown out of its work altogether, or the inſtrument broken: to which the ſward-cutter, conſiſting of 4, 6, or more cutting wheels, is never liable, from theſe being entirely independent of one another, cutting the ground acroſs the ridges before ploughing, and rendering that operation eaſier to two horſes than it would be to three, without its being cut. The furrow being cut acroſs, falls finely from the plough in ſquares of any ſize required not under ſix inches, in place of long ſlips of tough ſward ſeldom and imperfectly broke by the four-coultered plough.

This inſtrument is very fit for preparing ground for burnbating, as it will ſave much hand-labour. It may be properly uſed in croſs-cutting clover of one or two years ſtanding, to prepare the ground for wheat, if the land is ſtiff and moiſt enough. It may be applied to cutting and croſs-cutting paſture-ground, intended to have manure of any kind put upon it to meliorate the graſs. In this it will far exceed the ſcarificator mentioned in one of Mr Young's tours; as that inſtrument is liable, as well as the four coultered plough, to be thrown out of its work when meeting with a ſtone or other interruption. This the ſward-cutter is proof againſt, which is looked on as its greateſt excellence.

In preparing for barley the ſword-cutter excels

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a roller of any kind in reducing the large hard clods in clay land, occaſioned by a ſudden drought, after its being ploughed too wet. It is alſo very proper for reducing ſuch clay land when under a ſummer fallow. In this operation, the ſward-cutter is greatly to be preferred to the cutting-roller, mentioned by Mr Young, in one of his tours; for the wheels of the latter being all dependent one on another, when one is thrown out by a ſtone, 3 or 4 muſt ſhare the ſame fate. Beſides, the cutting roller has but 7 wheels in ſix feet; whereas the ſward cutter has 6 in 4 feet 3 inches, at 9 inches diſtant; and, if neceſſary may have them ſo near as 6 inches.

After old graſs ground is cut acroſs with the ſward cutter and plowed, it has a very uncommon and work-like appearance, from each ſquare turned over by the plough being raiſed up an inch or two at the ſide laſt moved by the earth-board; ſo that the field when finiſhed, is all prettily waved, and reſembles a piece of water when blown on by a gentle breeze. By theſe means a very great deal of the land's ſurface is expoſed to the froſt and other influences of the air, which cannot fail to have a good effect on it.

Two horſes are ſufficient for the draught of a double horſe ſward cutter, and one horſe for a ſingle horſe one. One man manages the machine and drives the horſes. He begins his operation by firſt meaſuring off 20 or 30 paces from the machine, and there fixes a pole. He then cuts the field croſs, as near at right angles with the ridges as he can. When the cutting wheels are paſt the laſt furrow about a yard or ſo, and the machine is upon the outmoſt ridge of the field on which it muſt turn, he muſt ſtop the horſes; then take hold of the lever I. N° 2. and by pulling it to him he raiſes the cutting wheels out of the ground, which are kept ſo by the loop of the rope being put over the pin R. in the lever I. N° 3. till the machine is turned and brought to its proper place, which is done by meaſuring off the ſame diſtance formerly done on the oppoſite ſide of the field. When the cutting wheels are exactly over the utmoſt furrow, then, on the horſes being ſtopped, the rope is ſlipt off the pin R, and the lever returned to its former place, as repreſented N° 2. which allows the weights L. L. &c. to force the cutting wheels into the ground again. He then goes on till the interval betwixt the firſt and ſecond ſtroke of the machine is all cut. In this manner the field is to be finiſhed, after which it may be plowed. N. B. There muſt be a pole at each end of the field.

It is of no conſequence whether the land to be ſward-cut is in crooked ridges or ſtraight, in flat ridges or in very high raiſed ones. Be the ſurface ever ſo uneven, the cutting wheels, being all independent of one another, are forced by their weights into every furrow or hollow. One ſward-cutter will cut as much in one day as ſix ploughs will plow. The land may lie ſeveral months in winter after being ſward-cut when there is no vegetation to make the cuts grow together again before it is plowed; but the ſooner it is plowed after cutting the better, that it may have the benefit of all the winter's froſt, which makes it harrow better at ſeed time. When the ground is harrowed, the harrows ought to go with the waves which appear after ploughing, not againſt them, as they are thus leſs apt to tear up the ſ rows all cut into ſquares. This, however, re only be attended to the two firſt times of harrow ing, as they are called.

Any wright and ſmith may make the inſtru ment. It is very ſtrong, very ſimple, and ca managed and moved from place to place; a if put under cover, will laſt many years. It w invented ſome time ago by the Hon. Rob SANDILANDS; and is repreſented in the plate improved by him, the price being at the ſame t reduced from 15 l. or 16 l. to 5 l. or 6 l.

III. *The* BRAKE. The brake is a large and wei harrow, the purpoſe of which is to reduce a ſ born ſoil, where an ordinary harrow makes li impreſſion. (See *Pl.* 299, *fig.* 22.) It conſiſts ſquare bulls, each ſide 5 inches, and 6½ fee length. The teeth are 17 inches long, bending ward like a coulter. Four of them are inſerted each bull, fixed above with a ſcrew-nut, ha 12 inches free below, with a heel cloſe to the der part of the bull, to prevent it from b puſhed back by ſtones. The nut above m eaſy to be taken out for ſharping. The bra quires 4 horſes or 4 oxen. One of a leſ will not fully anſwer the purpoſe: one larg require 6 oxen; in which caſe the work m performed at leſs expence with the plough.

It may be applied with great advantage i following circumſtances. In the fallowing o clay that requires frequent plowings a bra between every plowing will pulverize the ſoil, render the ſubſequent plowings more eaſy. the month of March or April, when ſtrong gr is plowed for barley, eſpecially if bound couch graſs, a croſs brakeing is preferable croſs plowing, and is done at half the exp When ground is plowed from the ſtate of m and after a competent time is croſs plowe brake is applied with great ſucceſs, immed after the croſs plowing, to reduce the w proper tilth.

A brake with a greater number of teeth above, is improper for ground that is bou gether by the roots of plants, which is alway caſe of ground new broken up from its n ſtate. The brake is ſoon choked, and can d execution till freed from the earth it holds. leſs number of teeth would be deficient in pu lizing the ſoil.

IV. *The* HARROW. Harrows are com conſidered as of no uſe but to cover the ſ but they have another uſe ſcarce leſs effe which is to prepare land for the ſeed. This article of importance for producing a good c But both of theſe purpoſes are imperfectly formed by the common harrow.

The harrow commonly uſed is of differ forms. The firſt we ſhall mention has two b 4 feet long and 18 inches aſunder with 4 wood teeth in each. A ſecond has 3 bulls and 12 wo en teeth. A 3d has 4 bulls, and 20 teeth of wo or iron, 10, 11, or 12 inches aſunder. Now, fine mould, the laſt may be ſufficient for cov ing the ſeed; but none of them are ſufficient prepare for the ſeed any ground that requ ſubdue

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ıduing. The only tolerable form is that with n teeth; but 1ſt, this harrow is by far too ıt for ground newly taken up from the ſtate nature, for clays hardened with ſpring drought, ſor other ſtubborn ſoils: it floats on the ſur- e; and after frequent returns in the ſame tract, ing is done effectually. 2dly, The teeth are thick ſet, by which the harrow is apt to be ked, eſpecially where the earth is bound with s, which is often the caſe. The lightneſs and ber of teeth keep the harrow upon the ſur- , and prevent one of its capital purpoſes, that ding the ſoil. Nor will fewer teeth an- for covering the ſeed properly. 3dly, The are too ſhort for reducing a coarſe ſoil to er tilth; and yet it would be in vain to make longer, becauſe the harrow is too light for g deep into the ground. The common har- are alſo ſo ill conſtructed, as to ride at every upon one another. Much time is loſt in ng them. Laſtly, it is equally unfit for ting weeds. The ground is often ſo bound couch graſs, as to make the furrow ſlice ſ upright, notwithſtanding much labour, the roots keep the field.

in evident, that the ſame harrows, whatever r form, can never anſwer all the different s of harrowing, or operate equally in all t ſoils, rough or ſmooth, firm or looſe. llowing, therefore, have been recommend- which are of three different forms, adapted ferent purpoſes. They are all of the ſame t, drawn each by two horſes. Birch is the wood for them, becauſe it is cheap, and not o ſplit. The firſt (*Pl.* CCXCIX. *fig.* 23.) is poſed of 4 bulls, each 4 feet 10 inches long, nches broad, and 3½ deep; the interval be- the bulls 11¼ inches; ſo that the breadth e whole harrow is 4 feet. The bulls are con- d by 4 ſheths, which go through each bull, re fixed by timber-nails driven through both. ch bull five teeth are inſerted 10 inches free the bull, and 10 inches aſunder. They are e ſame form with thoſe of the brake, and in- into the wood in the ſame manner. Each e teeth is 3 lb. weight; and where the har- made of birch, the weight of the whole is me 14 lb. Dutch. An erect bridle is fixed rner of the harrow, 3 inches high, with 4 es for drawing higher or lower. To this e a double tree is fixed for two horſes draw- breaſt, as in a plough. And to ſtrengthen harrow, a flat road of iron is nailed upon the ow from corner to corner in the line of the ght.

he 2d harrow, *fig.* 24. conſiſts of two parts, nected by a crank or hinge in the middle, and chains of equal length, one at each end, ch keep the two parts always parallel, and at ſame diſtance from each other. The crank is contrived, as to allow the two parts to ply to ground like two unconnected harrows; but ber of them to riſe above the other. They form an angle downward, but not upward. as they have the effect of two harrows in curv- ground, and of one weighty harrow in a plain. is harrow is compoſed of ſix bulls, each four long, 3 inches broad, and 3½ deep. The in- tervals between the bulls 9½ inches; which makes the breadth of the whole harrow, including the length of the crank, to be 5 feet 5 inches. Each bull has 5 teeth, 9 inches free under the wood, and 10 inches aſunder. The weight of each tooth is 2 lb.; the reſt as in the former.

The 3d harrow, (*Pl.* CCXCIX, *fig.* 25.) conſiſts alſo of 2 parts, connected together like that laſt mentioned. It has 8 bulls, each 4 feet long, 2½ inches broad, and 3 deep. The interval between the bulls is 8 inches; and the breadth of the whole harrow, including the length of the crank, is 6 feet 4 inches. In each bull are inſerted 5 teeth, 7 inches free under the wood, and 10½ inches aſunder, each tooth weighing 1 lb. The reſt as in the 2 former harrows.

Theſe harrows are a conſiderable improvement. They ply to curved ground like two unconnected harrows; and when drawn in one plain, they are in effect one harrow of double weight, which makes the teeth pierce deep into the ground. The imperfection of the common harrows ſhows the advantages of the ſet of harrows here recommended. The firſt is proper for harrowing land that has long lain after ploughing, as where oats are ſown on a winter furrow, and in general for harrowing ſtiff land: it pierces deep into the ſoil by its long teeth, and divides it minutely. The 2d is intended for covering the ſeed: its long teeth lays the ſeed deeper than the common harrow can do; which is no ſlight advantage. By placing the ſeed conſiderably under the ſurface, the young plants are, on the one hand, protected from too much heat, and, on the other, have ſufficiency of moiſture. At the ſame time, the ſeed is ſo well covered that none of it is loſt. Seed ſlightly covered by the common harrows wants moiſture, and is burnt up by the ſun; beſide, that a proportion of it is left upon the ſurface uncovered. The 3d harrow ſupplies what may be deficient in the 2d, by ſmoothing the ſurface, and covering the ſeed more accurately. The 3 harrows make the ground finer and finer, as heckles do lint. They have another advantage not inferior to any mentioned: they mix manure with the ſoil more intimately than can be done by common harrows; and upon ſuch intimate mixture depends greatly the effect of manure. Theſe harrows are contrived to anſwer an eſtabliſhed principle in agriculture, That fertility depends greatly on pulverizing the ſoil, and on intimate mixture of manure with it.

4. *The* CHAIN AND SCREW HARROW. (*Pl.* 299. *fig.* 26.) is the plan of a harrow alſo invented by Mr Sandilands, and to which he has given the name of the *chain and ſcrew harrow*. Its properties are, that if your ridges be high, and you wiſh to harrow them from one end to the other, by lengthening the chain (which the ſcrew commands), the harrow, when drawn along, forms an angle, downwards, and miſſes none of the curve of the ridge, ſo far as it extends, which may be 9 feet, the diſtance from A to B. The extent, in the contrary direction, is 5 feet 6 inches. When the crowns of the ridges have got what is thought ſufficient harrowing lengthwiſe, ſhorten the chain by the ſcrew, which forms an angle upwards: the harrow is then drawn by the horſes,

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one

one on each ſide of the furrow; which completely harrows it, and the ſides of the ridge, if 18 feet broad. When you want to harrow even ground or high ridges acroſs with the ſcrew, you can bring the harrow to be horizontal, ſo as to work as a ſolid harrow without a joint.

The teeth are formed and fixed in the common manner, ſquare, not in the fashion of coulters; and are 9 or 10 inches below the wood, and of ſuch ſtrength as it is thought the land requires. The teeth cut, or rather tear, the ground at every 4 inches without variation, though ſeemingly placed irregularly; and this without any riſk of choking, except ſometimes at the extreme angles, where the teeth are neceſſarily near other; but which may be cleaned with the greateſt eaſe, by raiſing them a little from the ground. The figures 1, 2, &c. point out where 12 teeth on each ſide of the harrow are placed. Where a ſtrong brake-harrow is not neceſſary, by making the teeth ſhorter and lighter, you may have 48 teeth, which will tear the ground at every 2 inches, cover the ſeed well, and make a fine mould. Harrows for every purpoſe, and of any ſize, may be made on the above principle; by which no tooth can ever follow the tract of another, and all of them will be kept conſtantly acting.

V. The ROLLER is an inſtrument of capital uſe in huſbandry, though ſcarcely known in ordinary practice; and, where introduced, it is commonly ſo ſlight as to have very little effect.

Rollers are of different kinds; ſtone, caſt iron, and wood. Each of theſe has its advantages. We would recommend the laſt, conſtructed in the following manner. Take the body of a tree, 6 feet 10 inches long, the larger the better, made as near a perfect cylinder as poſſible. Surround this cylinder with three rows of fillies, one row in the middle, and one at each end. Line theſe fillies with planks of wood equally long with the roller, and ſo narrow as to ply into a circle. Bind them faſt together with iron rings. Beech wood is the beſt, being hard and tough. The roller thus mounted ought to have a diameter of 3 feet 10 inches. It has a double pair of ſhafts for 2 horſes abreaſt. Theſe are ſufficient in level ground; in ground not level, 4 horſes may be neceſſary. The roller without the ſhafts ought to weigh 200 ſtone Dutch; and the large diameter makes this great weight eaſy to be drawn.

Rolling wheat in April is an important article in looſe ſoil; as the winter rains preſſing down the ſoil leave many roots in the air. Barley ought to be rolled immediately after the ſeed is ſown; eſpecially where graſs ſeeds are ſown with it. The beſt time for rolling a gravelly ſoil is as ſoon as the mould is ſo dry as to bear the roller without clinging to it. A clay ſoil ought neither to be tilled, harrowed, nor rolled, till the field be perfectly dry. And as rolling a clay ſoil is chiefly intended for ſmoothing the ſurface, a dry ſeaſon may be patiently waited for, even till the crop be three inches high. There is the greater reaſon for this precaution, becauſe much rain immediately after rolling is apt to cake the ſurface when drought follows. Oats in a light ſoil may be rolled immediately after the ſeed is ſown, unleſs the ground be ſo wet as to cling to the roller. In a clay ſoil, delay rolling till the grain be above ground. The proper time for ſowing graſs ſeeds in an oat field, is when the grain is three inches high; and rolling ſhould immediately ſucceed whatever the ſoil be. Flax ought to be rolled immediately after ſowing, and ſhould never be neglected; for it makes the ſeed grow kindly, and prevents after growth; the bad effects of which is viſible in every ſtep of the proceſs by which flax. The firſt year's crop of ſown graſſes ought to be rolled as early the next ſpring as the ground will bear the horſes. It fixes all the roots ciſely as in the caſe of wheat. Rolling the 2d, 3d crops in looſe ſoil is uſeful, though not eſſential as rolling the firſt crop.

In the firſt place, rolling renders a looſe ſoil more compact and ſolid; which encourages the growth of plants, by making the earth cling to every part of every root. Nor need we be afraid of rendering the ſoil too compact; for a roller that can be drawn by 2 or 4 horſes will do that effect. adly, Rolling keeps in the moiſture and hinders the drought to penetrate. This effect is of great moment. In a dry ſeaſon may make the difference of a good crop, a crop, eſpecially where the ſoil is light. 3dly, rolling graſs ſeeds, beſides the foregoing advantages, facilitates the mowing for hay; and advantage of this practice will lead farmers to mow their corn alſo, which will increaſe quantity of ſtraw both for food and litter.

There is a ſmall roller for breaking land intended for barley. The common way to break clods with a mell; which requires many hands, and is a laborious work. This roller performs the work more effectually, at much leſs expence: let a harrowing precede, which will break the clods a little; and after lying a day, or a day and a half, to dry, this roller will diſſolve them into powder. This however does not ſuperſede the uſe of the great roller after all the other particles are finiſhed, to make the ſoil compact, and to keep out the ſummer drought. A ſtone of 3 feet long, and 15 inches diameter, drawn by one horſe, is ſufficient to break clods that are not diſſolved by preſſure. The uſe of this roller in preparing land for barley is gaining ground even among ordinary tenants, who have been ſenſible both of the expence and toil of the wooden mells. But in a clay ſoil, the clods are ſometimes too firm, or too tough, to be broken by ſo light a machine. In that caſe, a roller of the ſame ſize, but of a different conſtruction is neceſſary. It ought to be ſurrounded with rings of iron, 6 inches aſunder, and 7 deep; which will cut even the moſt ſtubborn clods, and reduce them to powder. This inſtrument, in a ſtrong clay, may make the difference of a plentiful and a ſcanty crop.

VI. THE FALLOW-CLEANSING MACHINE invented by Mr AARON OGDEN, a ſmith at Ashton-under-Line, near Manchester, in Lancaſhire. It is intended for cleanſing fallows from weeds, &c. which exhauſt the riches of the ſoil. As *Fig.* 27. *Pl.* 300. is the frame; B, the firſt roller; C, the ſecond ditto; in which laſt are two cranks to move the arms D, D, which work the rakes

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Fig. 27. Fallow Cleansing Machine

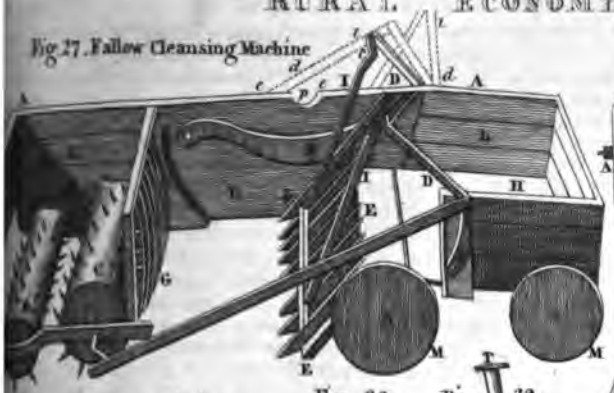


Fig. 36.

Fig. 37.

Fig. 38.

Fig. 39.

Fig. 40.

Fig. 29.

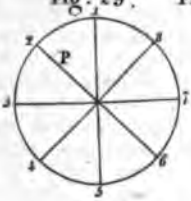


Fig. 32.

Fig. 30.

Fig. 31.

Fig. 11.

Fig. 13.

Fig. 35.

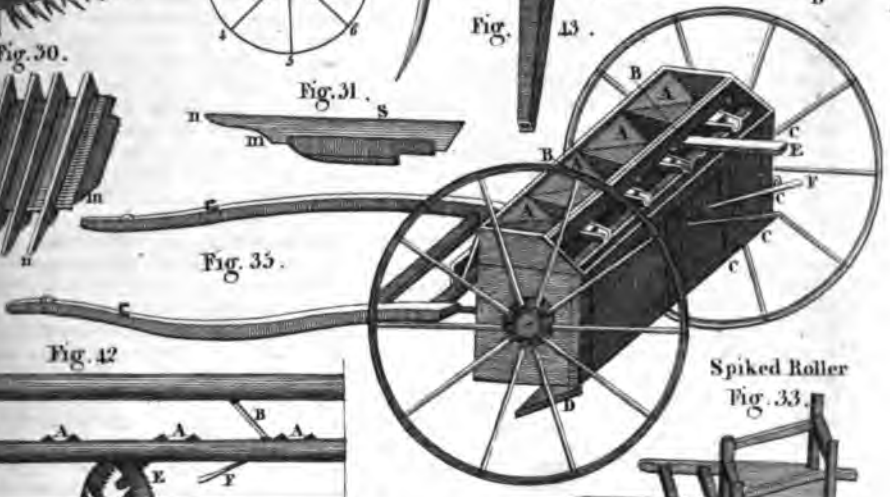


Fig. 42

Spiked Roller
Fig. 33.

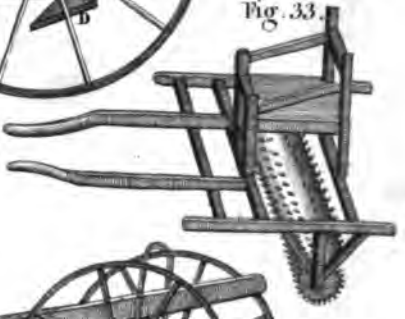
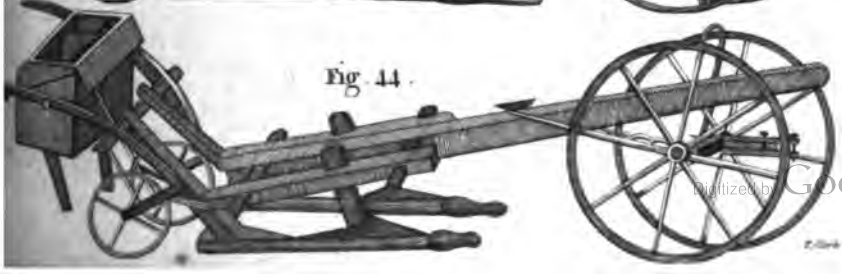


Fig. 34. Universal sowing Machine.

Fig. 44.



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e directors fixed on the plank E. The under
le of the lower ends or ſhares of theſe directors
e ſharp, to cut the clods and let them come on
e upper ſide. Each alternate heel of the ſhare
longer than the intermediate one, that they
y not have more than one half to cut at once.
the back of the plank E are two ſcrews to let
wſe, that the directors may be ſet higher or
wer. The ſhares are to penetrate the ground
w three inches, to raiſe the quicks till the
e I, I, fetches them into the cart H, where a
n muſt be ready with a muck hook to clear
m backward when gathered. In the rake I
two teeth for every ſpace of the directors, that
s, &c. may be gathered without damage.
K are two ſtaples, by which the machine is
wn: under them at *b* are two hooks, placed
o raiſe the machine in turning, by the help
e traces; and the axle tree of the cart ſhould
ed upon a pin, that it may turn like a wag-
. F, F, are the triggers to throw the rake be-
the roots. The long teeth at G, are to
e the roller C. I, I, is the rake which ga-
up the weeds into the cart H, and is drawn
e the trigger F by the working of the arms
preſſed by the dotted lines at *d d*, *iii*. The
F, of which there is one on each ſide,
on the pivots *a*; ſo that when the points *b*
ake I have been drawn up by the directors
e part marked *c*, the trigger, giving way,
the rake to paſs; but immediately fall-
e rake returns along the upper ſurface of
ger marked *e*, *e*, and of courſe falls on the
when it comes to the end, a little beyond
ivot *a*. The boarding is taken away on one
in the Plate, to give a more perfect view of
ner parts of the machine; and in fact it
ld perhaps be better if all the boarding, mark-
L, L, was taken away, and frame work put
ſtead. The cart H might undoubtedly alſo
de lighter. The wheels M, M, appear in
ate to be made of ſolid wood; but there is
ceſſity they ſhould be ſo. At N. *Fig.* 28. is
er view of the roller C, by which the diſpo-
of the ſpikes may be eaſily comprehended.
e the circle O, deſcribed by the end of the
N, to be divided by 4 ſtrait lines into 8 e-
ments, as repreſented at P, *Fig.* 29. Let
e be done at the other end of the roller,
arallel lines be drawn from one correſpond-
unt to the other the length of the roller;
the points with figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8;
wards draw oblique lines, as from 1, at the
of O. to 2, at the other end, and from 2 to 3,
n theſe oblique lines the ſpikes are to be fix-
equal diſtances, in 8 circles, deſcribed on the
nference of the roller. The ſpikes of the
roller B are fixed in the ſame manner, ex-
that the diameter being ſmaller, there are
6 inſtead of 8 rows. R, *Fig.* 30. is another
of the directors, with the plank E on which
are fixed; and S, *Fig.* 31. is a ſection of a
of the plank, with one of the directors as fix-
which may be ſeen the heel *m*, from whence
e point of the ſhare *n* is a ſharp cutting edge.
he ſame letters in figure R. T, *Fig.* 32. is
of the long teeth to be ſeen at G; it is bent
rds the roller C, which it ſerves to cleanſe.
When the end of the rake *b*, *Fig.* 27. after riſing above *c*, is puſhed, by the motion of the arms D, D, along the upper part *e*, *e*, of the trigger F, and comes to the end beyond *a*; as it falls, the part of the arm marked *c* reſts in the notch *p*, till it is again raiſed by the motion of the roller C with the rake. The roller C is to be one foot diameter, the ſpikes 9 inches long, that they may go through the furrow (if the ſoil ſhould be looſe) into the hard earth, the more effectually to work the rake, which otherwiſe might be ſo overcharged as to cauſe the roller to drag without turning. In the rake ends *b* there ſhould be pivots, with rollers or pullers on, to go in the groove, to take off the friction; and they would likewiſe take the triggers more ſurely as the rake comes back. The rake ſhould alſo be hung ſo far backwarder, that when it is fallen the arms of it may lie in the ſame plane or parallel with the directors, on which it comes up; which will require the frame to be two inches longer in the model. This will cauſe the rake to fall heavier, and drive the teeth into the roots, and bring them up without ſhattering. Theſe teeth muſt be made of ſteel, very fine, and ſo long as to reach down to the plank on which the directors are fixed, that is to ſay, ſix inches long; the directors are alſo to be made ſix inches broad above the plank. The rake head ſhould alſo fall a little before the crank is at its extremity, which will cauſe the rake to puſh forward to let the teeth come into the roots. The rake teeth muſt drop in the ſame plane with the roller and wheels, or on the ſurface of the earth. No more ſpace ſhould be given from the roller C to the long teeth at G, than that the rake may juſt miſs the ſpikes of the roller C and fall on the places before mentioned. As the firſt roller B was intended to cleanſe the ſecond C more than for any other uſe, it may be omitted when the machine is made in large, as Mr Ogden has lately found that the long teeth at G anſwer the end alone, and this renders the machine about a ſixth part ſhorter. Now, to ſuit any ſort of earth, there ſhould be to each machine three planks, with directors at different ſpaces, to uſe occaſionally; in the firſt, the ſpaces between the directors ſhould be 8 inches wide, in the ſecond 6, and the third 4. This will anſwer the ſame end as having ſo many machines.

FIG. 33. exhibits a full view of the SPIKED ROLLER. As there may be ſome objections to the rake not leaving the roots when it has brought them up, Mr Ogden has ſeveral methods of cleanſing it; but to make it as ſimple as poſſible, he chooſes to let it be without them; but ſuppoſe it ſhould bring ſome roots back again with it, it will probably loſe them before it gets back to the extremity; whence they will lie light, and be of but little detriment to the others coming up. The firſt machine ſhould be made 4 feet 6 inches wide, the teeth divided into equal ſpaces, the outſides into half ſpaces.

VII. The NEW PATENT UNIVERSAL SOWING MACHINE. (See *Pl.* CCC. *Fig.* 34 to 44.) This machine, whether made to be worked by hand, drawn by a horſe, or fixed to a plough, and uſed with it, is extremely ſimple in the conſtruction, and not liable to be put out of order; as there is

but

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but one movement to direct the whole, nor does it require any ſkill in working. It will ſow wheat, barley, oats, rye, clover, cole ſeed, hemp, flax, canary, rape, turnip, beſides a great variety of other kinds of grain and ſeeds broad-caſt, with an accuracy hitherto unknown. It is equally uſeful in the new huſbandry, particularly when fixed to a plough; it will then drill a more extenſive variety of grain, pulſe, and ſeed, through every gradation, with regard to quantity, and deliver each kind with greater regularity than any drill plough whatever. When uſed in this manner, it will be found of the utmoſt ſervice to farmers who are partial to the old huſbandry, as, among many other very valuable and peculiar properties, it will not only ſow in the broad caſt way with the moſt ſingular exactneſs, but ſave the expence of a ſeedſman; the ſeed being ſown (either over or under furrow at pleaſure), and the land plowed, by the ſame operation.

A fair and deciſive experiment for aſcertaining the ſuperior advantage of broad caſting or drilling any particular crop, was never before ſo practicable; as the ſeed may now be put in with the utmoſt degree of regularity, in both methods of culture, by the ſame machine; conſequently, the ſeed will be ſown in both caſes with equal accuracy, without which it is impoſſible to make a juſt deciſion.

The excellence of this machine conſiſts in ſpreading any given quantity of ſeed over any given number of acres with a mathematical exactneſs, which cannot be done by hand; by which a great ſaving is made in ſeeding the ground, as well as benefiting the expected crop. There has always been a difficulty in ſowing turnip ſeed with any degree of exactneſs, both from the minuteneſs of the ſeed, and the ſmallneſs of the quantity required to be ſown on an acre. Here the machine has a manifeſt advantage, as it may be ſet to ſow the leaſt quantity ever required on an acre; and with an accuracy the beſt ſeedſman can never attain to. It will alſo ſow clover, cole, flax, and every other kind of ſmall ſeed, with the utmoſt degree of regularity. It will likewiſe broad caſt beans, peaſe, and tares, or drill them with the greateſt exactneſs, particularly when conſtructed to be uſed with a plough. Another advantage is, that the wind can have no effect on the falling of the ſeed.

USE *of the* MACHINE *without a* PLOUGH, *and to be* DRAWN *by a* HORSE.—It may in this caſe be made of different lengths at the deſire of the purchaſer. The upper part AAAA, *Fig.* 35. contains the hoppers from which the grain or ſeed deſcends into the ſpouts. The ſeveral ſpouts all reſt upon a bar, which hangs and plays freely by two diagonal ſupporters BB; a trigger fixed to this bar bears a catch wheel: this being fixed on the axle, occaſions a regular and continual motion, or jogging of the ſpouts, quicker or ſlower in proportion to the pace the perſon ſowing with it drives. If he quickens his pace, the bar will receive a greater number of ſtrokes from the catch wheel, and the grain or ſeed will feed the faſter. If he drives ſlower, the contrary muſt take place. In going along the ſide of a hill, the ſtrength of the ſtroke is corrected by a ſpring which acts with more or leſs power, in proportion as the machine is more or leſs from a horizontal poſition and counteracts the difference of gravity in the bar, ſo that it preſſes, in all ſituations, with a proper force againſt the catch wheel. This ſpring unneceſſary if the land be pretty level. At the bottom of the machine is placed an apron or ſhe in a ſloping poſition, and the corn or ſeed, falling thereon from the ſpouts above, is ſcatte about in every direction under the machine, covers the ground in a moſt regular and unif manner.

To ſow the corn or ſeed in drills, there moveable ſpouts (*ſee Fig.* 43), which are fixed or taken off at pleaſure, to direct the ſeed the upper ſpout to the bottom of the fur The machine is regulated for ſowing any par lar quantity of ſeed on an acre by a braſs ſli A, *Fig.* 40. fixed by ſcrews againſt a braſs ſli on each of the ſpouts. The machine is pre ed from feeding while turning at the ends, by ly removing the lever E, *Fig.* 34. out of the nel G, to another at H, on the right hand which carries back the bar from the catch and occaſions the motion of the ſpouts to and at the ſame time brings them upon by the action of the diagonal ſupporters; no corn or ſeed can fall from them. The in this form is particularly uſeful for broa ing clover upon barley or wheat; or for ſ any other kind of ſeed, where it is neceſſa the land ſhould firſt be harrowed exceedin and even.

MANNER *of* USING *the* MACHINE, *when d by a* HORSE.—Place the machine about two from the ends of the furrows where you int ſhall begin to ſow. Fill the hoppers with and drive it forwards with the outſide wh the firſt furrow. When you are at the end length, at the oppoſite ſide of the field, li lever E, *Fig.* 35. into the channel H, and th chine will inſtantly ſtop ſowing. Drive it bout two feet, and then turn. Fill the h again if neceſſary; then remove the lever gain into the channel G, and in returning, outſide wheel of the machine go one furrow in the tract which was made by it, in paſſing the oppoſite end; for example, if the wheel ed down the 8th furrow from the outſide o field, let it return in the 7th; and in ever lowing length let the outſide wheel alway one furrow within the tract made by the wheel: becauſe the breadth ſown is about es leſs than the diſtance between the wheels the machine be kept in a perpendicular poſi If the farmer wiſhes to ſow more or leſs ſeed any one part of the field than the other, it is raiſing the handles a little higher, or ſinking a little lower than uſual; and it will occaſi ſufficient alteration; and ſhould the laſt tra leſs in breadth than the machine, thoſe ſp which are not wanted may be taken up from bar, and prevented from feeding, by turning knob above them. When the land required be ſown has what is called a VENT, that is, the ſides of the field run in an oblique line t furrows, which are thus unequal in length; ſpouts muſt be taken up or let down in ſucce

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turning the knobs; as that part of the machine here they are placed arrives at the ends of the rows. This is done while the machine is going forwards. If the land be tolerably level, the machine may be fixed by the screw in the front, and the machine may then be used by any common harrow boy.

METHOD *of* REGULATING *the* MACHINE.—In each spout is fixed a bridge, (see *Fig.* 40.) with an aperture in it, B, for the grain or seed to pass through. This aperture is enlarged or contracted by a slider, A, which passes over it; and when properly fixed for the quantity of seed designed to be sown on an acre, is fastened by two strong screws firmly against the bridge. This is used in sowing all kinds of seed, where it is required to sow from one bushel upwards on an acre. To sow one, two, or 3 gallons, or any of the intermediate quantities, as of clover, cole seed, &c. a brass plate, *Fig.* 39. is placed between the bridge and the slider, with the largest aperture B towards, which aperture is enlarged or contracted by the slider as before. To sow turnips, the same plate is placed between the bridge and slider, with its smallest aperture A downwards, the hollow part about the same aperture in-

41. is a view of the regulator, by which measures in the several spouts are all set exactly with the utmost ease, to make them feed alike. The extreme height of the largest aperture equal to the breadth AB, and the breadth equal to the height of the smallest aperture viz. that for turnips. The side AC is divided into 60 equal parts, and on it moves the index or *horse* D; which being placed at any particular degree according to the quantity of seed required to be sown on an acre, is fixed upon it, by a screw on the side of the slider. The end of the regulator is then put through the aperture in the bridge or plate, (whichever is intended to be used) and the slider against the bridge in the spout, and by it, till it stops against the horse on the regulator; then the slider is fastened against the bridge firmly by the two screws; care being taken that it stands nearly square. By these means the apertures being all fixed in the same manner, will work equally. The size of the apertures, and the quantity of seed to be sown on an acre, may be regulated with a far greater accuracy than is required in common practice. The spouts may be regulated with the utmost nicety, in 5 minutes, to each particular seed, for the whole season. A little practice will enable any person, who has but a very moderate capacity, to make the spouts feed equally, even without using the regulator.

The *price* of the machine to be used with a single furrow plough, is 3½ guineas; with a double furrow plough 4½ guineas, the large machine, *fig.* 40. made to broad-cast 7 furrows at a time 8½ guineas. If only to sow 5 furrows at a time, and worked by the hand, 6 guineas. If made with a drag, 5 shillings more.

Of the MACHINE, *when made to be* USED BY HAND.—The difference of the machine in this case is that it is made lighter, with but three spouts, without shafts, and is driven forwards by the hand.

dles. It hath also a bolt in front, which being pushed in by the thumb, releases the machine; so that it can then easily be placed in a perpendicular position. This alteration is necessary to keep the handles of a convenient height, in sowing up and down a hill, where the slope is considerable; and is done while the machine is turning at the end of the length. The method of regulating and using it is the same as when made to be drawn by a horse.

Of the MACHINE, *when* CONSTRUCTED *to be used with a* PLOUGH.—This is the most useful application of the machine; and it can be fixed without difficulty to any kind of plough, as represented in *fig.* 34. The advantages arising from the use of it are great and numerous; for, beside the increase in the crop, which will be insured by the seeds being broad-cast with a mathematical nicety, a large proportion of seed, the value of which alone, in a few months, will amount to more than the price of the machine, and the seeds-man's labour will be saved. The seed may likewise be sown either under or over furrow; or one cast each way, as is practised by some farmers. The seed also, being cast by the machine upon the fresh plowed land, may be immediately harrowed in, before the mould has lost any part of its moisture; which in a dry season will greatly promote the crop. In drilling any kind of grain, pulse, or seed, it possesses every property that can be wished for in the best drill-plough, nor will it bruise the seed, or feed irregularly. The construction of the machine is the same as the large ones, except being made with one hopper and spout instead of several, and the apron moveable instead of being fixed, as may be seen by inspecting *fig.* 37. The only alteration necessary to make the machine broad-cast or drill is, in the former case to place the apron B, *fig.* 34. at the bottom of the machine, upon the hooks FF, sloping either towards the furrows or the unplowed land, according as it is intended to sow the seed, either over or under furrow. Wherever the apron is required to be shifted, it is done in less than a second; as it only requires to be moved up or down with the hand, when a catch fixes it.

To prepare it for drilling, instead of the apron, place the long spout, *fig.* 43. upon the brackets, on the front of the machine, by the ears AA, to receive the seed from the upper spout, and fasten the lower end of it, by a small cord, to that hook upon which the apron is hung for broad-casting, which is next the plough, (see *fig.* 36;) the seed will then be directed by the long spout, to the centre of the furrow, near the heel of the plough. The spring for correcting the strength of the stroke, is necessary only when they are required to go along the side of a considerable declivity. The machine, when fixed to a plough, does not require the smallest degree of skill in using, as nothing is necessary but to keep the hopper filled, which will contain a sufficient quantity of seed to go upwards of 140 roods, before it will want re-filling, when 3½ bushels are sown on an acre. The accuracy with which it will broad-cast, may in some measure be conceived, by considering that the seed regularly descends upon the apron or shelf, and is thence scattered upon the ground, in quantity ex-

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actly proportioned to the speed of the plough: also that each cast spreads to the 3d furrow; and thus shuts upon the last. In this manner it is continually filling up, till the whole field is completely covered; so that it is impossible to leave the smallest space without its proper quantity of seed. When the plough is wanted for any other purpose, the machine, with the wheel at the heel of the plough for giving it motion, can be removed or replaced at any time in five minutes.

FIG. 44. represents the machine fixed to a *double furrow creasing plough*, and prepared for drilling. This plough is chiefly used for creasing the land with furrows, after it has been once plowed and harrowed; which is necessary when the seed is to be sown broad-cast upon land that has been a clover-lay, &c. because, if the seed be thrown upon the rough furrows, a considerable part of it will fall between them, and be unavoidably lost, by lying too deep in the earth. This mode partakes of both methods of culture; the seed, though sown broad-cast, falling chiefly into the furrows. The seed is thus broad-cast, with an inconceivable regularity, at the time the land is creased. The advantages it also possesses for drilling all sorts of grain or seed with this plough, are evident. This machine is made with two upper and two long spouts for drilling, two aprons for broad-casting, and with a double hopper; but in other respects is the same as when intended for a single furrow plough: it is used in all cases with the greatest ease imaginable. The interval between the points of the two shares is usually ten inches; the beam about 9 feet long; and the whole is of a light construction.

EXPLANATION *of the* FIGURES *of the* UNIVERSAL SOWING MACHINE. *Fig.* 34. The machine fixed to a Kentish turn wrest plough. A, The machine. B, The apron upon which the seed falls and rebounds upon the land, in broad-casting. C, Lid to cover the hopper. D, Wheel at the heel of the plough. E, strap, FF, Hooks, upon which the apron turns by a pivot on each side. G, Stay, to keep the machine steady. H, Lever, to prevent it from sowing.

FIG. 35. The machine constructed to be drawn by a horse. AAAA, The hoppers. BB, The diagonal supporters. CCCC, The upper spouts. D, The apron or shelf upon which the seed falls from the upper spouts. E, The lever, which carries back the bar, and prevents the machine from sowing. FF, Staples upon the handles, through which the reins pass, for the man who conducts the machine, to direct the horse by. I, Screw, to fix the machine occasionally. N. B. The knobs, by turning which each particular spout may be taken from off the bar, and thereby prevented from seeding, are over each upper spout; but, to prevent confusion, are not lettered in the Plate.

FIG. 36. Is the same machine with that in *fig.* 34. A, B, G, H, C, &c. The dotted lines expresses the situation of the long spout, when the apron is removed, and the machine adapted for drilling.

FIG. 37. Also the same machine, with the front laid open to show the inside: A, The catch-wheel fixed upon the axle. BB, The axle upon which the machine hangs between the handles of the plough. C, The pulley, by which the strap from the wheel at the heel of the plough turns the catch wheel. D, The bar, upon which the upper spouts rests, suspended by the diagonal supporters. E bearing against the catch-wheel by the trigger and thereby kept in motion while the plough going. G, The apron in a sloping position, upon which the corn or seed falls from the upper spouts and is scattered by rebounding upon the land. turns upon pivots, and thus throws the seed either towards the right hand or left at pleasure.

FIG. 38. The upper spout.

FIG. 39. The plate which is placed between bridge and the slider, for sowing small seeds. aperture A being downwards for sowing turnips the larger one B downwards for sowing clover,

FIG. 40. The bridge, fixed in the upper spouts A, The slider, which contracts or enlarges different apertures. B, The aperture in the bridge through which the seed passes, when sowing quantity from one bushel upwards on an acre.

FIG. 41. The regulator, made of brass. The slider or horse which moves upon it, fixed at any particular degree by a screw in the

FIG. 42. Represents the movement in the chine *fig.* 35. AAAA, Cleets, between which upper spouts rest. BB, The diagonal supports by which the bar with the upper spouts C, The catch-wheel. DD, The axle. E, trigger upon the bar, which bears against catch-wheel. FF, Stays from the back of the chine, by which the bar plays.

FIG. 43. The long spout. AA, The ears which it hangs.

FIG. 44. The double-furrow creasing plough scribed above.

SECT. II. *Of* PREPARING LAND *for* CROPPING.

I. OBSTRUCTIONS. In preparing land for ping, the first thing that occurs, is to consider obstructions to regular ploughing. The most midable of these, are *stones* lying above or the surface. Stones above the surface may voided by the ploughman, though not loss of ground; but stones below the surface commonly not discovered till the plough bo tered to pieces, and perhaps a day's work. The clearing land of stones is therefore nec to prevent mischief. And to encourage the ration, it is attended with much actual profit. the first place, the stones are useful for re when large they must be blown, and are monly proper for building. And as the blo with gunpowder does not exceed a halfpenny each inch that is bored, these stones come rally cheaper than to dig as many out of the ry. 2dly, As the soil round a large stone is monly the best in the field, it is purchased at a rate by taking out the stone; for not only is ground lost that is occupied by a large stone, also a considerable space round it, to which plough has not access without danger. A 3d vantage is, that the plowing can be carried with much expedition, when there is no app henfion of stones: in stony land, the plough m proceed so slow, as not to perform half of its wo

To clear land of stones is an undertaking expensive for a tenant who has not a very

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ſe. As it is profitable both to him and to his lord, it appears reaſonable that the expenſe uld be divided, where the leaſe exceeds not 19 rs. It falls naturally upon the landlord to be he expence of blowing the ſtones, and upon tenant to carry them off the field.

nother obſtruction is *wet ground*. Water may rove gravelly or ſandy ſoils; but it *ours* a clay or renders it unfit for vegetation, and con- s low ground into a moraſs, unfit for any pur- . A great deal has been written upon diffe- methods of draining land, moſt of them ſo nſive as to be ſcarce fit for the landlord, much he tenant. One way of draining without ex- , when land is to be incloſed with hedge ditch, is to direct the ditches ſo as to carry e water. But this method is not always licable. If the run of water be conſiderable, l deſtroy the ditches, and lay open the fen- eſpecially where the ſoil is looſe or ſandy. tches will not anſwer, hollow drains are ſome made, and ſometimes open drains, made ſo as to command the water. The former is up with looſe ſtones, with bruſh-wood, or any other porous matter that permits the to paſs. The latter is left open. To make mer effectual, the ground muſt have ſuch as to give the water a briſk courſe. To them in a level ground is a groſs error: ages are ſoon ſtopped up with ſand and , and the work is rendered uſeleſs. This venience takes not place in open drains; but are ſubject to other inconveniences: They ways filling up, and make a yearly repara- neceſſary; and they obſtruct both plowing paſturing.

e following is the beſt in every view. It is pen drain made with the plough, cleaving the intended for the drain over and over, till rrow be made of a ſufficient depth for carry- off the water. The ſlope on either ſide may, peated plowings, be made ſo gentle as to o obſtruction either to the plough or to the w. There is no occaſion for a ſpade, unleſs ooth the ſides of the drain, and to remove ral obſtructions in the bottom. This drain ted at much leſs expence than either of mer; and it is perpetual, as it can never be ked. In level ground indeed graſs may at the bottom, but to clear off the graſs in 4 or 5 years, will reſtore it to its original ſition. A hollow drain may be proper be- n the ſpring-head and the main drain, where ſtance is not great; but in every other caſe rain recommended is the beſt. Where a le- eld is infeſted with water from higher ground, ater ought to be intercepted by a ditch car- along the foot of the high ground, and ter- ing in ſome capital drain. The only way to a field of water that is hollow in the mid- is to carry it off by ſome drain ſtill lower.

clay ſoil of any thickneſs is often peſtered rain, which ſettles on the ſurface. The on- medy is high narrow ridges, well rounded. to clear the furrows, the furrow of the foot- ought to be conſiderably lower, to carry off water cleverly. It cannot be made too low, othing hurts clay ſoil more than the ſtagnation of water on it. Some gravelly ſoils have a clay bottom; which is a ſubſtantial benefit to a field when in graſs, as it retains moiſture. But when in tillage, ridges are neceſſary to prevent rain from ſettling at the bottom; and this is the only caſe where a gravelly ſoil ought to be ridged. Clay ſoils that have little or no level, have ſometimes a gravelly bottom. For diſcharging the water, the beſt method is, at the end of every ridge to pierce down to the gravel, which will abſorb the water. But if the furrow of the foot-ridge be low enough to receive all the water, it will be more expeditious to make a few holes in that furrow. In ſome caſes, a field may be drained, by filling up the hollows with earth from higher ground. But as this method is expenſive, it will only be taken where no other method anſwers. Where a field happens to be partly wet, partly, dry, there ought to be a ſeparation by a middle ridge, if it can be done conveniently; and the dry part may be plowed while the other is drying,

The low part of BERWICKSHIRE is generally a brick clay, extremely wet and poachy in winter. This in a good meaſure may be prevented by proper incloſing, as there is not a field but can be drained into lower ground all the way down to the Tweed. But as this would leſſen the quantity of rain in a dry climate, ſuch as is all the E. ſide of Britain, it may admit of ſome doubt whether the remedy would not be as bad as the diſeaſe. See DRAIN, § 1—8.

II. OF BRINGING into CULTURE LAND from the STATE of NATURE. To improve a moor, let it be opened in winter when it is wet; and when the plough cannot be employed at any other work. In ſpring, after froſt is over, a ſlight harrowing will fill up the ſeams with mould, to keep out the air, and rot the ſod. In that ſtate let it lie the following ſummer and winter, which will rot the ſod more than if laid open to the air by plowing. Next April, let it be croſs-plowed, breaked, and harrowed, till it be ſufficiently pulverized. Let the manure laid upon it, whether lime or dung, be intimately mixed with the ſoil by repeated harrowings. This will make a fine bed for turnip ſeed if ſown broad-caſt. But if drills be intended, the method muſt be followed that is directed afterward in treating of the culture of turnip. A ſucceſsful turnip-crop, fed on the ground by ſheep, is a fine preparation for laying down a field with graſs-ſeeds. It is an improvement upon this method, to take 2 or 3 ſucceſſive crops, of turnip, which will require no dung for the 2d and following crops. This will thicken the ſoil, and enrich it greatly.

The beſt way of improving SWAMPY GROUND after draining, is paring and burning. But where the ground is dry, and the ſoil ſo thin as that the ſurface cannot be pared, the beſt way, of bringing it into tilth from the ſtate of nature, is to plow it with a feathered ſock, laying the graſſy ſurface under. After the new ſurface is mellowed with froſt, fill up all the ſeams by harrowing croſs the field, which by excluding the air will effectually rot the ſod. In this ſtate let it lie ſummer and winter. In the beginning of May after, a croſs-plowing will reduce all to ſmall ſquare pieces,

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which muſt be pulverized with the brake, and made ready for a May or June crop. If theſe ſquare pieces be allowed to lie long in the ſap without breaking, they will become tough and not be eaſily reduced.

III. RIDGES. THE firſt thing is to conſider what grounds ought to be formed into ridges, and what ought to be tilled with a flat ſurface. Dry ſoils, which ſuffer by want of moiſture, ought to be tilled flat, to retain moiſture. The method for ſuch tilling, is to go round and round from the circumference to the centre, or from the centre to the circumference. This method is advantageous in point of expedition, as the whole is finiſhed without once turning the plough. At the ſame time, every inch of the ſoil is moved, inſtead of leaving either the crown or the furrow unmoved, as is commonly done in tilling ridges. Clay ſoil, which ſuffers by water ſtanding on it, ought to be laid as dry as poſſible by proper ridges. A loamy ſoil is the medium between theſe two. It ought to be tilled flat in a dry country, eſpecially if it incline to the ſoil firſt mentioned. In a moiſt country, it ought to be formed into ridges, high or low according to the degree of moiſture and tendency to clay.

In grounds that require ridging, an error prevails, that ridges cannot be raiſed too high. *High ridges* labour under ſeveral diſadvantages. The ſoil is heaped upon the crown leaving the furrows bare; the crown is too dry, and the furrows too wet: the crop, which is always beſt on the crown, is more readily ſhaken with the wind, than where the whole crop is of an equal height; the half of the ridge is always covered from the ſun, a diſadvantage which is far from being ſlight in a cold climate. High ridges labour under another diſadvantage in ground that has no more level than barely ſufficient to carry off water; they ſink the furrows below the level of the ground; and conſequently retain water at the end of every ridge. The furrows ought never to be ſunk below the level of the ground. Water will more effectually be carried off by leſſening the ridges both in height and breadth: a narrow ridge, the crown of which is but 18 inches higher than the furrow, has a greater ſlope than a very broad ridge where the difference is 3 or 4 feet.

In forming ridges where the ground hangs conſiderably, they may be too ſteep as well as too horizontal: and if to the ridges be given all the ſteepneſs of a field, a heavy ſhower may do irreparable miſchief. To prevent this the ridges ought to be ſo directed croſs the field, as to have a gentle ſlope for carrying off water ſlowly, and no more. In that reſpect, a hanging field has greatly the advantage of one that is nearly horizontal; becauſe in the latter, there is no opportunity of a choice in forming the ridges. A hill is of all the beſt adapted for directing the ridges properly. If the ſoil be gravelly, it may be plowed round and round, beginning at the bottom and aſcending gradually to the top in a ſpiral line. This method of plowing a hill, requires no more force than plowing on a level; and removes the great inconvenience of a gravelly hill, that rains go off too quickly; for the rain is retained in every furrow. If the ſoil be ſuch ſo as to require ridges, they may be directed to any [illegible] that is proper.

To form a field into ridges, that has not been formerly cultivated, the rules mentioned above muſt be put in execution. After ſeeing the advantage of forming a field into ridges, people were naturally led into an error, that the higher the better. But the practice of making their ridges crooked certainly did not originate from deſign, but from the lazineſs of the driver ſuffering the cattle to turn inſtead of making them finiſh the ridge without turning. There is more than one diſadvantage in this ſlovenly practice. Firſt, the water is led in by the curve at the end of every ridge, and ſours the ground. 2dly, As a plough has the leaſt friction poſſible in a ſtraight line, the friction muſt be increaſed in a curve, the back part of the mouldboard preſſing hard on the one hand, and the culture preſſing hard on the other. 3dly, The plough moving in a ſtraight line, has the great command in laying the earth over. But when the ſtraight line of the plough is applied to the curvature of a ridge to heighten it by gathering the earth moved by the plough is continually falling back, in ſpite of the moſt ſkilful ploughman.

The inconveniences of ridges high and crooked are ſo many, that one would be tempted to apply a remedy at any riſk. And yet if the ſoil be clay, it would not be adviſable for a tenant to apply the remedy upon a leaſe ſhorter than 18 or 19 years. In a dry gravelly ſoil, the work is not difficult nor hazardous. When the ridges are cleaved 2 or 3 years ſucceſſively in the courſe of cropping, the operation ought to be concluded in one ſummer. The earth, by reiterated plowings, ſhould be accummulated upon the furrows, and to raiſe them higher than the crowns; they cannot be raiſed too high, for the accumulated earth will ſubſide by its own weight. Croſs-plowing once or twice, will reduce the ground to a flat ſurface, and give opportunity to form ridges at will. The ſame method brings down ridges in clay ſoils. Only let the work be carried on with expedition, becauſe a hearty ſhower, before the new ridges are formed, would ſoak the ground in water, and make the farmer ſuſpend the work for the remainder of that year at leaſt. In a ſtrong clay, the ridges ſhould not be altered, unleſs it can be done to perfection in one ſeaſon. On this ſubject Anderſon has the following obſervation, in his *Eſſays on Agriculture*, I. p. 146.

"The difficulty of performing this operation properly with the common implements of huſbandry, and the obvious benefit that accrues to the farmer from having his fields level, has introduced many new inventions of ploughs, harrows, drags, &c. calculated for ſpeedily reducing his fields to that ſtate; none of which have as yet been found fully to anſwer the purpoſe for which they were intended, as they all indiſcriminately carry the earth that was on the high places into the hollows that were lower; which, although it may in ſome caſes, render the ſurface of the ground tolerably ſmooth and level, is uſually attended with inconveniences far greater, for a conſiderable length of time, than that which it was intended to remove.

"For experience ſufficiently ſhows, that even

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he beſt vegetable mould, if buried for any length f time ſo far beneath the ſurface as to be depri-ed of the benign influences of the atmoſphere, ecomes an inert, lifeleſs maſs, little fitted for ourithing vegetables; and conſtitutes a ſoil very nproper for the purpoſes of the farmer. It there-re behoves him, to preſerve, on every part of his elds, an equal covering of that vegetable mould at has long been uppermoſt, and rendered fer-le by the meliorating influence of the atmoſphere, ut, if he ſuddenly levels his high ridges by any theſe mechanical contrivances, he buries all the od mould that was on the top of the ridges in old furrows; by which he greatly impoveri-one part of his field, while he too much enrich-another; and he has the mortification frequent-to ſee the one half of his crop rotted by an over-xuriance, while other parts of it are weak and ſhy, or one part ripe and ready for reaping, hile the other is not properly filled.

"On theſe accounts, if the farmer has not a ng leaſe, it will be in general much his intereſt leave the ridges as he found them, rather than attempt to alter their direction; and, if he a-ds with due caution to moderate the height theſe ridges, he may reap very good crops.

"But, where a man is ſecure of poſſeſſing his ound for any length of time, the advantages that will reap from having level and well laid out lds, are ſo conſiderable as to be worth purchaſ-g if it ſhould even be at a conſiderable expence. t the loſs that is ſuſtained at the beginning, by is mechanical mode of levelling ridges, if they : of conſiderable height, is ſo very great, that it doubtful if any future advantages can fully com-nſate it. I would therefore adviſe, that all this elling apparatus ſhould be laid aſide; and the lowing more efficacious practice be ſubſtituted its ſtead: A practice that I have long followed th ſucceſs, and can ſafely recommend as the y beſt that has yet come to my knowledge.

"If the ridges have been raiſed to a very great ght, as a preparation for the enſuing operations, y may be firſt *cloven*, or *ſcalded* out, as it is lled, that is, plowed ſo as to lay the earth on dge from the middle towards the furrows. f they are only of a moderate degree of height, s operation may be omitted. When you mean proceed to level the ground, let a number of n be collected, with ſpades, more or fewer as nature of the ground requires, and then ſet a ugh to draw a furrow directly acroſs the ridges the whole field intended to be levelled. Di-e this line into as many parts as you have la-rers, allotting to each one ridge or two, more leſs, according to their number, height, and o-r circumſtances. Let each of the labourers, ſoon as the plough has paſſed that part aſſigned n, begin to dig in the bottom of the furrow that plough has juſt made, about the middle of the e of the old ridge, keeping his face towards old furrow, working backwards till he comes the height of the ridge, and then turn towards other furrow, and repeat the ſame on the o-r ſide of the ridge, always throwing the earth t he digs up into the deep old furrow between ridges, that is directly before him; taking care not to dig deep where he firſt begins, but to go deeper and deeper as he advances to the height of the ridge, ſo as to leave the bottom of the trench he thus makes acroſs the ridge entirely level, or as nearly ſo as poſſible. And when he has finiſhed that part of the furrow allotted to him that the plough has made in going, let him then finiſh in the ſame manner his own portion of the furrow that the plough makes in returning. In this manner, each man performs his own taſk through the whole field, gradually raiſing the old furrows as the old heights are depreſſed. And, if an attentive over-ſeer is at hand, to ſee that the whole is equally well done, and that each furrow is raiſed to a greater height than the middle of the old ridges, ſo as to allow for the ſubſiding of that looſe earth, the operation will be entirely finiſhed at once, and never again need to be repeated.

"In performing this operation, it will always be proper to make the ridges, formed for the purpoſe of levelling, which go acroſs the old ridges, as broad as poſſible; becauſe the deep trench, that is thus made in each of the furrows, is an impediment in the future operations, as well as the height that is accumulated in the middle of each of theſe ridges; ſo that the fewer there are of theſe, the better. The farmer, therefore, will do well to advert to this, and begin by forming a ridge by always turning the plough to the right hand, till it becomes of ſuch breadth as makes it very inconvenient to turn longer in that manner; and then, at the diſtance of twice the breadth of this new-formed ridge from the middle of it, mark off a furrow for the middle of another ridge, turning round it to the right hand, till it becomes of the ſame breadth, and then, turning to the left hand, plough out the interval that was left between the two new formed ridges. By this mode of plowing, each ridge may be made of 40 or 50 or 60 yards in breadth, without any great inconvenience; for although ſome time will be loſt in turning at the ends of theſe broad ridges, yet as this operation is only to be once performed in this manner, the advantage that is reaped, by having few open furrows, is more than ſufficient to counterbalance it. To moderate the height that would be formed in the middle of each of theſe great ridges, it will be proper to mark out the ridges, and draw the furrow that is to be the middle of each ſome days before you collect your labourers to level the field; that you may, without any hurry or loſs of labour, clear out a good trench through the middle of each of the old ridges; as the plough at this time going and returning nearly in the ſame track, prevents the labourers from working properly without this precaution.

"If theſe rules are attended to, your field will be at once reduced to a proper level, and the rich earth that formed the ſurface of the old ridge be ſtill kept upon the ſurface of your field; ſo that the only loſs that the poſſeſſor of ſuch ground can ſuſtain by this operation, is merely the expence of performing it."

Dr ANDERSON, afterwards makes a calculation of the different expences of levelling by the plough and by the ſpade, in which he finds the latter by far

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far the cheapeſt method. Let it be a rule to direct the ridges north and ſouth if the ground will permit. In this direction, the eaſt and weſt ſides of the ridges, dividing the ſun equally between them, will ripen at the ſame time. It is a great advantage, to form ridges ſo narrow, and ſo low, as to admit the crowns and furrows to be changed alternately every crop. The ſoil neareſt the ſurface is the beſt; and by ſuch plowing, it is always kept near the ſurface, and never buried. In high ridges, the ſoil is accumulated at the crown and the furrows left bare. Such alteration of crown and furrow is eaſy where the ridges are only ſeven or eight feet broad. This mode of plowing anſwers perfectly well in ſandy and gravelly ſoils, and even in loam; but it is not ſafe in clay ſoil. In that ſoil, the ridges ought to be 12 feet wide, and 20 inches high; to be preſerved always in the ſame form by caſting, that is, by plowing two ridges together, beginning at the furrow that ſeparates them, and plowing round and round till the two ridges be finiſhed. By this method, the ſeparating furrow is raiſed a little higher than the furrows that bound the two ridges. But at the next plowing, that inequality is corrected, by beginning at the bounding furrows, and going round and round till the plowing of the two ridges be completed at the ſeparating furrow.

IV. *Of* Clearing Ground *of* Weeds. For this purpoſe a new inſtrument, termed a Cleaning Harrow, was introduced by Lord Kames, and is ſtrongly recommended in his *Gentleman Farmer*. See *Plate* 299, *fig.* 45. It is one entire piece like the firſt of thoſe mentioned above, conſiſting of ſeven bulls, 4 feet long each, $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches broad, $2\frac{1}{4}$ deep. The bulls are united together by ſheths, ſimilar to what are mentioned above. The intervals between the bulls being $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches, the breadth of the whole harrow is 3 feet 5 inches. In each bull are inſerted 8 teeth, each 9 inches free below the wood, and diſtant from each other 6 inches. The weight of each tooth is a pound, or near it. The whole is firmly bound by an iron plate from corner to corner in the line of the draught. The ſize, however, is not invariable. The cleaning harrow ought to be larger or leſs according as the ſoil is ſtiff or free.

To give this inſtrument its full effect, ſtones of ſuch a ſize as not to paſs freely between the teeth ought to be carried off, and clods of that ſize broken. The ground ought to be dry, which it commonly is in May. In preparing for barley, turnip, or other ſummer crop, begin with plowing and croſs-plowing. If the ground be not ſufficiently pulverized, let the great brake be applied, to be followed ſucceſſively with the 1ſt and 2d harrows. (See *Pl.* 299, *fig.* 23, & 24.) In ſtiff ſoil, rolling may be proper, or twice between the acts. Theſe operations will looſen every root, and bring ſome of them to the ſurface. This is the time for the 3d harrow, (*fig.* 25.) conducted by a boy on one of the horſes, who trots ſmartly along the field, and brings all the roots to the ſurface: there they are to lie for a day or two, till perfectly dry. If any ſtones or clods remain, they muſt be carried off in a cart. And now ſucceeds the operation of the *cleaning harrow*. It is drawn by a ſingle horſe, directed by reins, which the man at the oppoſite corner puts over his head, to have both hands free. In this corner is fixed a rope, with which the man from time to time raiſes the harrow from the ground, to let the weeds drop. For the ſake of expedition, the weeds ought to be dropt in a ſtraight line croſs the field, whether the harrow be full or not; and ſeldom is a field ſo dirty but that the harrow may go 30 yards before the teeth are filled. The weeds will be thus laid in parallel rows, like thoſe of hay raked together for drying. A harrow may be drawn ſwiftly along the rows, to ſhake out all the duſt; and then the weeds may be carried clean off the field in carts. But inſtead of burning them, they may be converted into uſeful manure, by laying them in a heap with a mixture of hot dung to begin fermentation. At firſt view, this way of cleaning land will appear oppoſe; but neither the labour nor expence is immoderate. At any rate, theſe ought not to be grudged; for if a field be once thoroughly cleaned, the ſeaſons muſt be very croſs, or the farmer very indolent, to make it neceſſary to renew the operation in leſs than 20 years. In the worſt ſeaſons a few years paſture is always under command which effectually deſtroys trienniel plants, ſuch as thiſtles and couch-graſs.

V. *Of* different Kinds *of* Soils, *and* Plants Proper *to* each. 1. Clay is in general the ſtiffeſt of all ſoils, and contains an unctuous quality. (See Clay.) But under the term clay earths of different ſorts and colours are included. One kind is ſo obſtinate, that ſcarcely any thing will ſubdue it; another is ſo hungry and porous that it abſorbs whatever is applied, and turns it into its own quality. Some clays are fatter than others, and the fatteſt are the beſt; ſome are more ſoft and ſlippery. But all of them retain water poured on their ſurfaces, where it ſtagnates, and chills the plants, without ſinking into the ſoil. The cloſeneſs of clay prevents the roots and fibres of plants from ſpreading in ſearch of nouriſhment. The blue, the red, and the white clay, if ſtiff, are unfavourable to vegetation. The ſtony and looſer ſort are leſs ſo; but none of them are worth any thing till their texture is ſo looſened by a mixture of other ſubſtances, and opened, as to admit the influence of the ſun, the air, and froſt. Among the manures recommended for clay, ſand is of the others to be preferred; and ſea-ſand the beſt of all, as it moſt effectually breaks the cohefion.

Sea Sand is preferred, becauſe it is not formed wholly of ſmall ſtones; but contains a great deal of calcareous matter, ſuch as, ſhells grated and broken to pieces by the tide; and alſo ſalts. The ſmaller the ſand is the more eaſily it penetrates the clay; but it abides leſs time in it than the larger. The next beſt ſand is that waſhed down by rains on gravelly ſoils. Thoſe which are dry and light are the worſt. Small gritty gravel has alſo been recommended by the beſt writers on agriculture for theſe ſoils; and in many inſtances they have anſwered the purpoſe. Shell marle, aſhes, and all animal and vegetable ſubſtances, are very good manures for clay; but they have been found moſt beneficial when ſand is mixed with them. Lime has been often uſed, but eminent agriculturiſts have found no advantage from it ſingly, when applied to clays. The crops moſt ſuitable

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itable for such lands are, wheat, beans, cabages, and rye-grass. Clover seldom succeeds, or indeed any plants whose roots require depth, nd a wide spread in the earth.

1. CHALK. Chalky soils are generally dry and arm, and if there be a tolerable depth of mould, ruitful; producing great crops of barley, rye, ats, vetches, clover, trefoil, burnet, and particularly sainfoin. The latter plant flourishes in a alky soil better than any other. But if the surce of mould be very thin, this soil requires good ouring with clay, marle, loam, or dung. As ese lands are dry, they may be sown earlier than hers. When barley is 3 inches high, throw in lb. of clover, or 15 lb. of trefoil, and roll it well. e next summer mow the crop for hay; feed off e aftermath with sheep; and in winter give it a p-dressing of dung. This will produce a crop e 2d spring, which should be cut for hay. As on as this crop is carried off, plow up the land, d in the beginning of September sow 3 bushels rye per acre, either to feed off with sheep in e spring or to stand for harvest. If you feed it sow winter vetches in Aug. or Sept. and make em into hay the following summer. Then get e land into as fine tilth as possible, and sow it th sainfoin, which, with a little manure once two or three years, will remain and produce od crops for 20 years together.

2. *Light poor land* seldom produces good crops any thing, till well manured. After it is well ured, sow 3 bushels of buck wheat per acre, in ril or May: When in bloom, let the cattle in w days eat off the best, and tread the other rn; this done, plow in what remains immedily. This will soon ferment and rot; then lay ne, and sow 3 bushels of rye per acre. If this be got off early enough, sow turnips; if not, ter vetches to cut for hay. Then get it in od tilth and sow turnip-rooted cabbages, in s 3 feet apart. This plant seldom fails, if it sufficient room, and the intervals be well se-hoed; and it is the best spring feed for sheep en turnips are over. The horse-hoeing will n and prepare the land for sainfoin; for the g of which April is the best season. The uay is to sow it broad-cast, 4 bushels to an e; but experienced husbandmen prefer sowing drills two feet asunder; for then it may be se-hoed, and half the seed will be sufficient. e horse-hoeing will also earth up the plants, render them more luxuriant and lasting. If sow it broad-cast, give it a top-dressing in c. or Jan. of rotten dung or ashes, or rather of h mixed up in compost. From various trials, s found that taking only one crop in a year, feeding the after-growth, is better than to w it twice. Cut it as soon as it is in full bloom, he weather will permit. The hay will be the tter, and the strength of the plants less imred, than if it stands till the seed is formed.

3. *Light rich land*, being the most easy to culte to advantage, and capable of bearing most ds of grain, pulse, and herbage, little need be l upon it. Such lands are the best adapted to drill husbandry, especially where machines used, which require shallow furrows to be de for the seed. This, if not prone to couchgrass, is the best of all soils for lucerne; which, if sown in two feet drills, and kept clean, will yield an astonishing quantity of the most excellent herbage. But lucerne will never be cultivated to advantage where couch-grass and weeds abound; nor in the broad-cast method, even where they do not; because horse-hoeing is essential to the vigorous growth of this plant.

5. *Coarse rough land.* Plow deep in autumn; when it has lain two weeks, cross-plow it, and let it lie rough through the winter. In March give it another good plowing; drag, rake, and harrow it well, to get out the rubbish, and sow 4 bushels of black oats per acre if the soil be wet, and white oats if dry. When about 4 inches high, roll them well after a shower: This will break the clods; and the fine mould falling among the roots of the plants will promote their growth greatly. Some sow clover and rye-grass among the oats, but this is bad husbandry. If designed for clover, sow it single, and let a coat of dung be laid on in Dec. The snow and rain will then dilute its salts and oil, and carry them down among the roots of the plants. This is better than mixing the crops on such land, for the oats will exhaust the soil so much that the clover will be impoverished. The following summer you will have a good crop of clover, which cut once, and feed the after-growth. In the winter plow it in, and let it lie till February: Then plow and harrow it well; and in March, if the soil be moist, plant beans in drills of 3 feet, to admit the horse hoe freely. When you horse-hoe them a 2d time, sow a row of turnips in each interval, and they will succeed well. But if the land be strong enough for sowing wheat as soon as the beans are off, the turnips may be omitted.

SECT. III. *Of the* CULTIVATION *of* PARTICULAR PLANTS.

THE preceding part of this treatise is all preparatory to the capital object of a farm, that of raising plants for the nourishment of man, and other animals. These are of two kinds; culmiferous and leguminous; differing widely from each other. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, rye-grass, are of the first kind: of the other kind are, pease, beans, clover, cabbage, and many others.

Culmiferous plants, says BONNET, have 3 sets of roots. The first issue from the seed, and push to the surface an upright stem; the 2d set issue from a knot in that stem; and a 3d from another knot, nearer the surface. Hence the advantage of laying seed so deep in the ground as to afford space for all the sets. Leguminous plants form their roots differently. Pease, beans, cabbage, have store of small roots, all issuing from the seed, like the outermost set of culmiferous roots; and they have no other roots. A potatoe and a turnip have bulbous roots. Red clover has a strong tap root. The propagation of plants is naturally divided into 3 subdivisions: 1st, Plants cultivated for fruit; 2d, Plants cultivated for roots; 3d, Plants cultivated for leaves.

1. PLANTS CULTIVATED *for* FRUIT. 1. WHEAT and RYE. Any time from the middle of April to the middle of May, the fallowing for wheat may commence. The moment should be chosen, when the

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the ground, beginning to dry, has yet ſome remaining ſoftneſs: in that condition, the ſoil divides eaſily by the plough, and falls into ſmall parts. This merits the ſtricteſt attention of the farmer. Ground plowed too wet, riſes, as is ſaid, *whole fur*, as when paſture ground is plowed: where plowed too dry, it riſes in great lumps, which are not reduced by ſubſequent plowings; it alſo requires double force to plow ground too dry, and the plough is often broken to pieces. When the ground is in proper order, the farmer ought not to loſe a moment. This firſt courſe of fallow muſt yield to the barley ſeed; but as that is commonly over the firſt week of May, or ſooner, the ſeaſon muſt be unfavourable if the fallow cannot be reached by the middle of May.

As clay ſoil requires high ridges, theſe ought to be cleaved at the firſt plowing, beginning at the furrow, and ending at the crown. This plowing ought to be as deep as the ſoil will admit: and water-furrowing ought inſtantly to follow; for if rain happen before water-furrowing, it ſtagnates in the furrow, neceſſarily delays the 2d plowing till that part of the ridge be dry, and prevents the furrow from being mellowed and roaſted by the ſun. If this firſt plowing be well executed, annual weeds will riſe in plenty.

About the firſt week of June, the great brake will looſen and reduce the ſoil, encourage a 2d crop of annuals, and raiſe to the ſurface the roots of weeds moved by the plough. Give the weeds time to ſpring, which may be in 2 or 3 weeks. Then proceed to the 2d plowing about the firſt of July; which muſt be croſs the ridges, to reach all the ſlips of the former plowing. By croſs-plowing the furrows will be filled up, and water furrowing be ſtill more neceſſary than before. Employ the brake again about the 10th of Auguſt, to deſtroy the annuals that have ſprung ſince the laſt ſtirring. The deſtruction of weeds is a capital article in fallowing: yet ſo blind are people to their intereſt, that nothing is more common than a fallow field covered with charlock and wild muſtard, all in flower, and 10 or 12 inches high. The field having now received two harrowings and two breakings is prepared for manure, whether lime or dung, which without delay ought to be incorporated with the ſoil by a repeated harrowing and a gathering furrow. This ought to be about the beginning of Sept. and ſoon after, the ſeed may be ſown. As in plowing a clay ſoil it is of importance to prevent poaching, the hinting furrows ought to be done with two horſes in a line. If 4 ploughs be employed in the ſame field, to one of them may be allotted the care of finiſhing the hinting furrows.

LOAM, being a medium between ſand and clay, is of all ſoils the fitteſt for culture, and the leaſt ſubject to chances. It does not hold water like clay; and when wet, it dries ſooner. It is more retentive than ſand of that degree of moiſture which promotes vegetation. But it is more ſubject to couch-graſs than clay, and to other weeds; to deſtroy which, fallowing is ſtill more neceſſary than in clay.

Beginning the fallow about the firſt of May, or as ſoon as barley ſeed is over, take as deep a furrow as the ſoil will admit. Where the ridges are ſo low and narrow that the crown and furrow can be changed alternately, there is little or no occaſion for water furrowing. Where the ridges are ſo high as to make it proper to cleave them, water furrowing is proper. The 2d plowing may be at the diſtance of five weeks. Two crops of annuals may be got in the interim, the firſt by the brake and the next by the harrow; and by the ſame means eight crops may be got in the ſeaſon. The ground muſt be cleared of couch-graſs and knot-graſs roots, by the cleaning harrow. The time for this operation is immediately before the manure is laid on. The ground, being then in its looſeſt ſtate, parts with its graſs roots more freely. After the manure is ſpread and incorporated with the ſoil by brakeing or harrowing, the ſeed may be ſown under furrow, if the ground hang ſo as eaſily to carry off the moiſture. To leave it rough without harrowing has two advantages: it is not apt to cake with moiſture, and the inequalities make a ſort of ſhelter to the young plants againſt froſt. But if it lie flat, it ought to be ſmoothed with a ſlight harrow after the ſeed is ſown, which will facilitate the courſe of the rain from the crown to the furrow.

A *ſandy ſoil* is too looſe for wheat. The chance for a crop is after red clover, the roots which bind the ſoil; and the inſtructions above even for loam are applicable here. Rye is a crop much fitter for ſandy ſoil than wheat; and if wheat, it is generally ſown after a ſummer-fallow. Laſtly, Sow wheat as ſoon in October as the ground is ready. When ſown a month more early, it is too forward in ſpring, and apt to be hurt by froſt: when ſown a month later, it has not time to root before froſt comes on, and froſt ſpews it out of the ground.

SETTING OF WHEAT is a method which is reckoned one of the greateſt improvements in husbandry that was made laſt century. It ſeems to have been firſt ſuggeſted by planting grains in a garden from mere curioſity, by perſons who had no opportunity of extending it to a lucrative purpoſe. Nor was it attempted on a larger ſcale by a little farmer near Norwich began it about 40 years ſince, upon leſs than an acre of land. For 2 or 3 years only a few followed his example; and theſe were generally the butt of their neighbours merriment for adopting ſo ſingular a practice. They had, however, conſiderably better crops than larger crops than their neighbours: this, together with the ſaving in ſeed, engaged more to follow them: while ſome ingenious perſons, obſerving the great advantage, recommended and publiſhed its utility in the Norwich papers. Theſe recommendations had their effect. The curioſity and inquiry of the Norfolk farmers (particularly round Norwich) were excited, and they found ſufficient reaſon to make general experiments. Among the firſt was one of the largeſt occupiers of lands in the county who ſet 57 acres in one year. His ſucceſs from the viſible ſuperiority of his crop, both in quantity and quality, was ſo great, that the following autumn he ſet 300 acres and has continued the practice ever ſince. This noble experiment eſtabliſhed the practice, and was the means of introducing it generally among the intelligent farmers in a very large diſtrict of land; there being

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w who now ſow any wheat, if they can procure nds to ſet it. It has been generally obſerved, it although the ſet crops appear very thin du- g the autumn and winter, the plants tiller and ead prodigiouſly in the ſpring. The ears are diſputably larger, without dwarfiſh or ſmall ; the grain is of a larger bulk, and ſpecifical- heavier per buſhel than when ſown.

The lands on which this method is particularly ſperous, are either after a clover ſtubble, or on ch trefoil and graſs-ſeed were ſown the ſpring ter the laſt. Theſe grounds, after the uſual ring, are once turned over by the plough in readed flag or turf, at ten inches wide; along a man, who is called a *dibbler*, with two n-irons ſomewhat bigger than ram-rods, but derably bigger at the lower end, and pointed e extremity, ſteps backwards along the turf makes the holes about 4 inches aſunder every , and one deep. Into theſe holes the drop- (women, boys, and girls) drop two grains, ch is quite ſufficient. After this, a gate buſh- with thorns is drawn by one horſe over the , and cloſes up the holes. By this mode, e pecks of grain is ſufficient for an acre; and g immediately buried, it is equally removed vermin or the power of froſt. The regulari- its riſing gives the beſt opportunity of keeping from weeds, by weeding or hand-hoeing.

ing of wheat is a method peculiarly benefi- when corn is dear; and, if the ſeaſon be fa- ble, may be practiſed with great benefit to farmer. Sir Thomas Beevor of Hethel- in Norfolk, found the produce to be two bu- per acre more than from the wheat which is ; but having much leſs ſmall corn intermix- with it, the ſample is better, and always fetches gher price, to the amount generally of 2 s. per ter. This, method, too, ſaves to the farmer to the public ſix pecks of ſeed-wheat in every ; which, if nationally adopted, would of it- afford bread for more than *half a million of* .

ded to theſe conſiderations, the great ſupport to the poor by this *ſecond* harveſt, as it may led, which enables them to diſcharge their and maintain their families without having e to the pariſh.—The expence of ſetting by is now reduced to about 6 s. per acre; which, od weather, may be done by one dibbler, at- ed by 3 droppers, in two days. This is 5 s. day; of which, if the dibbler gives to the dren ſixpence each, he will have himſelf 3 s. for his day's work, which is more than he earn by any other labour ſo eaſy to himſelf. if he has a wife who dibbles with him, and 2 of his own children to drop to him, his gains then be prodigious, and enough to enſure a y of candidates for that work, even in the populous parts of the country.

But this method, in ſeaſons when ſeed-corn is cheap, or the autumn particularly unfavour- e to the practice, muſt certainly be leſſened. light lands, for inſtance, a very dry time pre- nts dibbling; as the holes made with the inſtru- nts will be filled up again by the mould as faſt the inſtrument is withdrawn. So, again, in a very wet ſeaſon, on ſtrong and ſtiff clays, the ſeeds in the holes cannot be properly covered by the buſhes drawn over them. But theſe extremes of dry and wet do not often happen, nor do they af- fect lands of a moderately conſiſtent texture, or both light and heavy ſoils at the ſame time, ſo that the general practice is in fact never greatly impeded by them.

Propagating *of* wheat *by* dividing *and* transplanting *its* roots. In the *Philoſ. Tranſ.* for 1768, we meet with a very extraordinary ex- periment, of which the following is an abſtract. On the 2d June 1766, Mr C. Miller ſowed ſome grains of the common red wheat; and on the 8th of Auguſt a ſingle plant was taken up and ſeparated into 18 parts, and each part planted ſe- parately. Theſe plants having puſhed out ſeveral ſide-ſhoots, about the middle of Sept. ſome of them were taken up and divided, and the reſt be- tween that time and the middle of October. This 2d diviſion produced 67 plants. Theſe plants re- mained through the winter, and another diviſion of them, made between the middle of March and the 12th of April, produced 509 plants. They were then divided no further, but permitted to remain. The plants were in general ſtronger than any of the wheat in the fields. Some of them produced upwards of 100 ears from a ſingle root. Many of the ears meaſured 7 inches in length, and contained between 60 or 70 grains. The whole number of ears which, by the proceſs above mentioned, were produced from one grain of wheat, was 21,109, which yielded three pecks and three quarters of clear corn, the weight of which was 47 lb. 7 ounces; and from a calcula- tion made by counting the number of grains in an ounce, the whole number of grains was about 576,840.

By this account we find, that there was only one general diviſion of the plants made in the ſpring. Had a 2d been made, Mr Miller thinks the number of plants would have amounted to 2000. The ground was a light blackiſh ſoil, upon a gravelly bottom; and, conſequently, a bad ſoil for wheat. One half of the ground was well dung- ed, the other half had no manure. There was, however, no difference diſcoverable in the vigour, or growth of the plants. It is evident, that the expence and labour of ſetting in the above manner by the hand, will render it impracticable upon a large ſcale. A correſpondent of the Bath Society, therefore, (Robert Bogle, Eſq; of Daldowin, near Glaſgow,) to extend the practice, has pro- poſed the uſe of the harrow and roller until ſome better implements be invented. This method oc- curred to him from attending to the practice uſual with farmers, of harrowing their fields after the grain is ſprung up. Upon inveſtigating the prin- ciples upon which theſe practices are founded, they ſaid, "that after very heavy rains, and then exceſſive dry weather, the ſurface of their lands were apt to be caked, the tender fibres of the young roots were thereby prevented from puſh- ing, and of courſe the vegetation was greatly ob- ſtructed; in ſuch inſtances, they found every great benefit from harrowing and rolling."

Theſe principles he owns to be well founded,

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but contends, that the benefit arising from harrowing and rolling is not derived from pulverising entirely, but from subdividing and enabling the plants *to tiller*, as it is termed. "The harrow (he observes) certainly breaks the incrustation, and the roller crumbles the clods; but the harrow removes many of the plants from their original stations; and if the corn has begun to tiller at the time it is used, the roots will be, in many instances, subdivided, and then the application of my system of divisibility comes into play. The roller then serves to plant the roots which have been torn up by the harrow." But on this the Society observe, that the teeth of a harrow are too large to divide roots so small and tenacious as are those of grain; and whenever such roots stand in the line any tooth makes, they will, if small, be only turned on one side by the earth yielding to their lateral pressure, or, if large, the whole root will be drawn out of the ground. The principal uses, therefore, derived from harrowing and rolling these crops are, opening the soil between the plants, earthing them up, breaking the clods, and closing the earth about their roots.

Mr BOGLE, without contesting these points, urges the scheme of propagating wheat by dividing and transplanting its roots. "I have conversed (says he) much with many practical farmers, who all admit that my plan has the appearance not only of being practical, but advantageous. I have also seen in the 9th number of Mr Young's *Annals of Agriculture*, the account of an experiment which strongly corroborates my theory. It was made by the Rev. Mr Pike of Edmonton. From this, and other experiments which have been made under my own eye, I foresee clearly, that the system is practicable, and will certainly be productive of great benefit, should it become general. Besides the saving of 9 pecks of seed in the land town bushel, other very important advantages will attend the setting out of wheat from a seed-bed, such as an early crop; the certainty of good crops; rendering a summer fallow unnecessary; saving dung; and having your wheat perfectly free from weeds without either hand or horse hoeing: 500 plants in April produced almost a bushel of grain. My gardener says, he can set 1000 plants in a day, which is confirmed by the opinion of two other gardeners."

On this letter the Society has the following note: "Mr BOGLE will see, by the society's premium-book this year, that by having offered several premiums for experiments of the kind he so earnestly recommends, we wish to have his theory brought to the test of practice. Our reason for this, as well as for printing Mr B's letter, was rather to excite decisive trials by ingenious persons, than from any expectation of the practice ever becoming general. *General*, indeed, it never can be. A sufficient number of hands could not be found to do it. Unkindly seasons at the time of transplanting and dividing the roots would frequently endanger and injure, if not destroy the crops. But admitting the mode generally practicable, we doubt whether all the advantages he has enumerated would be derived from this mode of culture. Why should dividing and transplanting the roots of wheat entitle the crop to be early, or afford a *certainty* of its being *a good one*? We cannot think that *less manure* is necessary in this method, than either in drilling or broad-cast; nor can we admit, that such crops would be perfectly free from weeds without either hand or horse-hoeing. We readily agree with Mr Bogle that by this mode of culture on a general scale an immense quantity of seed-corn would be annually saved to the nation; and in this, we believe, the advantage, were it practicable, would principally consist."

Mr BOGLE afterwards communicated to the Society his thoughts more at large on this subject with authentic accounts which were made at his instance, and which were attended with very great success. The society, conceiving this system may be attended with considerable advantage, if brought into general practice, have given, at the end of the volume, a few of his leading principles. Mr Bogle states,

1. That he has known many instances of very great crops having been obtained by harrowing fields of corn after they were sprouted. 2. That he has also received an authentic account of one instance where the same good effects were produced by plowing the field. 3. On the system of transplanting, he states, that a very great proportion of the seed will be saved, as a farmer will have a nursery, or small patch of plants, by which his fields may be supplied: he calculates that one acre will yield plants sufficient for 10 acres. 4. That a very great increase of crops may be obtained by this method, probably a double crop, may perhaps a triple quantity of wheat reaped either by drilling, or by the broad-cast husbandry. 5. That a great part of the labour may be performed by infirm men and women and children, who are at present supported by the parish charity. 6. That the expence will not exceed from 20s. to 30s. per acre, if the work be performed by able-bodied men and women; but that it will be much lower, if that proportion of the work which may be done by employing boys and girls should be allotted to them. That in general he has found the distance of 6 inches every way a very proper distance for setting out the plants at; but recommends them to be tried at other spaces, such as 6, 8, or 12 inches. 8. That he conceives an earlier crop may be obtained in this manner than can be obtained by any other mode of cultivation. 9. That a single crop may also be procured in this way, because if the land be plowed immediately before the plants are set out, the corn will spring much quicker from the plants than the weeds will from their seeds. 10. That such lands as are overflowed in winter and spring, and are of course unfit for sowing with wheat in autumn, may be rendered fit for crops of wheat by planting them in spring, or summer. 11. That he has known instances of wheat being transplanted in Oct. Nov. Feb. March, April, and even as late as the middle of May, which have all answered very well. 12. That he has known an early kind of wheat sown as late as the middle of May, which has ripened in very good time; and hence he conceives, if the plants should be taken from the early kind, the season of transplanting might be prolonged

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prolonged at leaſt till the 1ſt of July, perhaps e- n later. 13. That he has reaſon to think wheat, ts, and barley, are not annuals, but perennials, vided they are eaten down by cattle and ſheep, are kept low by the ſcythe or ſickle; and are rented from ſpindling or coming to the ear. , That one very prevalent motive with him in ſecuting this plan, is, that he is of opinion it y enable Government to deviſe means of ſup- ting the vagrant poor. Laſtly, he has hinted, t from this mode of cultivation, the real and ific value of different kinds of grain may be accurately aſcertained by making a com- ſon of it with a few plants of each kind ſet at the ſame time, than can be done when in drills or broad-caſt; and when the moſt able kinds of wheat, oats, or barley, are diſ- ered, he ſtates, that in a very ſhort time, a cient quantity of that valuable kind may be ured to ſupply the kingdom with ſeed from gle grain of each kind; for he calculates, 47,000 grains of wheat may be produced by ability in two years and three months.

pon theſe propoſitions the Society obſerves, t although Mr Bogle appears to be *too san-* in his expectations of ſeeing his plan realized *ural practice*, it certainly merits the atten- of Gentlemen Farmers. We wiſh them to heir experiments, and report their ſucceſs. grand improvement has been, and ever e, progreſſive. They muſt neceſſarily ori- e with gentlemen: and thence the circle is ded over provinces and countries. At all n, Mr Bogle is juſtly entitled to the thanks e Society, and of the public, for the great tion he has paid to the ſubject."

OATS. As winter plowing enters into the re of oats, we muſt remind the reader of the of froſt upon tilled land. Providence has cted no region intended for the habitation n. If in warm climates the ſoil be meliora- by the ſun, it is no leſs meliorated by froſt in climates. Froſt acts upon water, by expand- into a larger ſpace. Froſt has no effect up- earth, or ſand. But upon wet earth it moſt vigorouſly; it expands the moiſture, requiring more ſpace puts every particle of arth out of its place, and ſeparates them from other. In that view, froſt may be conſider- as a *plough* ſuperior to any that can be de, by the hand of man: its action reaches minuteſt particles; and, by dividing and ſe- ating them, it renders the ſoil looſe and fria- . This operation is the moſt remarkable in ed land, which gives free acceſs to froſt. With pect to clay ſoil, there is no rule in huſbandry re eſſential than to open it before winter in pes of froſt. It is even adviſable in a clay-ſoil leave the ſtubble rank; which, when plowed before winter, keeps the clay looſe, and admits froſt into every cranny. It is therefore, dan- rous to plow clay ſoil when wet; becauſe wa- r is a cement for clay, and binds it ſo as to ren- r it unfit for vegetation. It is, however, leſs ngerous to plow wet clay before winter than ter. A ſucceeding froſt corrects the bad effects ſuch plowing; a ſucceeding drought increaſes em.

The common method is, to ſow oats on new-plowed land in March, as ſoon as the ground is tolerably dry. If it continues wet all March, it is too late to venture them after. It is much better to ſummer-fallow, and to ſow wheat in the autumn. But the preferable, method eſpecially in clay-ſoil, is to turn over the field after harveſt, and to lay it open to the influences of froſt and air, which leſſens the tenacity of clay, and reduces it to a free mould. The ſurface ſoil by this means is finely mellowed for reception of the ſeed; and it would be a pity to bury it by a 2d plowing before ſowing. In general, the bulk of clay-ſoils are rich; and ſkilful plowing without dung, will probably give a better crop, than unſkilful plowing with dung.

We muſt add a word of carſe clays which are *artificial*, whether left by the ſea, or ſweeped down from higher grounds by rain. The method commonly uſed of dreſſing carſe-clay for oats, is, not to ſtir it till the ground be dry in ſpring, which ſeldom happens before the firſt of March, and the ſeed is ſown as ſoon after as the ground is ſufficiently dry for its reception. Froſt has a ſtronger effect on ſuch clays than on natural clay. And if the field be laid open before winter, is rendered ſo looſe by froſt as to be ſoon drenched in water. The particles at the ſame time are ſo ſmall, as that the firſt drought in ſpring makes the ſurface cake or cruſt. The difficulty of reducing this cruſt into mould for covering the oat-ſeed, has led farmers to delay plowing till March. But we are taught by experience, that this ſoil plowed before winter, is ſooner dry than when the plowing is delayed till ſpring; and as early ſowing is a great advantage, the objection of the ſuperficial cruſting is eaſily removed by the firſt harrow above deſcribed, which will produce abundance of mould for covering the ſeed. The plowing before winter not only procures early ſowing, but has another advantage: the ſurface ſoil that had been mellowed during winter by the ſun, froſt, and wind, is kept above.

The dreſſing a loamy ſoil for oats differs little from dreſſing a clay ſoil, except that being leſs hurt by rain, it requires not high ridges, and therefore ought to be plowed crown and furrow alternately. Where there is both clay and loam in a farm, it is obvious from what is ſaid above, that the plowing of the clay after harveſt ought firſt to be diſpatched. If both cannot be overtaken that ſeaſon, the loam may be delayed till the ſpring with leſs hurt. Next of a gravelly ſoil; which is the reverſe of clay, as it never ſuffers but from want of moiſture. Such a ſoil ought to have no ridges; but be plowed circularly from the centre to the circumference, or from the circumference to the centre. It ought to be tilled after harveſt: and the firſt dry weather in ſpring ought to be laid hold of to ſow, harrow, and roll; which will preſerve it in ſip.

The culture of oats is ſimple. That grain is probably a native of Britain: it grows on the worſt ſoil with very little preparation. Before turnips were introduced, it was always the firſt crop upon land broken up from the ſtate of nature. Upon ſuch land, it may be a good method, to build upon the crown of every ridge, in the form of a

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wall, all the ſurface earth, one ſod above another, as in a fold for ſheep. After ſtanding in this form all ſummer and winter, let the walls be thrown down, and the ground prepared for oats. This will ſecure one or two good crops; after which the land may be dunged for a crop of barley and graſs ſeeds. This method may anſwer in a farm where manure is ſcarce.

3. Barley is a culmiferous plant that requires a mellow ſoil. Upon that account, extraordinary care is requiſite where it is to be ſown in clay. The land ought to be ſtirred immediately after the crop is removed, which lays it open to be mellowed with the froſt and air. In that view, a peculiar ſort of plowing has been introduced, termed *ribbing*; by which the greateſt quantity of ſurface poſſible is expoſed to the air and froſt. The obvious objection to this method is, that half of the ridge is left unmoved. And to obviate that objection, the following method is offered, which moves the whole ſoil, and at the ſame time expoſes the ſame quantity of ſurface to the froſt and air. As ſoon as the former crop is off the field, let the ridges be gathered with as deep a furrow as the ſoil will admit, beginning at the crown and ending at the furrows. This plowing looſens the whole ſoil, giving free acceſs to the air and froſt. Soon after, begin a 2d plowing: let the field be divided by parallel lines croſs the ridges, with intervals of 30 feet or ſo. Plow once round an interval, beginning at the edges, and turning the earth toward the middle of the interval: which covers a foot or ſo of the ground formerly plowed. Within that foot plow another round ſimilar to the former; and after that, other rounds, till the whole interval be finiſhed, ending at the middle. Inſtead of beginning at the edges, and plowing toward the middle, begin at the middle and plow toward the edges. Plow the other intervals in the ſame manner. As the furrows of the ridges will thus be pretty much filled up, let them be cleared and water-furrowed without delay. By this method, the field will be left ridged up for winter. In this form, the field is kept perfectly dry; for beſide the capital furrows that ſeparate the ridges, every ridge has a number of croſs furrows that carry the rain inſtantly to the capital furrows. In hanging grounds retentive of moiſture, the parallel lines ought not to be perpendicular to the furrows of the ridges, but to be directed a little downward, to carry rain-water the more haſtily to theſe furrows. If the ground be clean, it may be in that ſtate winter and ſpring, till the time of ſeed-furrowing. If weeds riſe, they muſt be deſtroyed by plowing, or braking, or both; for there cannot be worſe huſbandry, than to put ſeed into dirty ground.

This method reſembles common ribbing in appearance, but is very different in reality. As the common ribbing is not preceded by a gathering furrow, the half of the field is left untilled, compact as when the former crop was removed; impervious in a great meaſure to air or froſt. The common ribbing at the ſame time lodges the rain-water on every ridge, preventing it from deſcending to the furrows, which is hurtful in all ſoils, and deſtructive in a clay ſoil. The *ſtirbing* here deſcribed, or *ribbing*, prevents theſe noxious effects. By the two plowings the whole ſoil is opened, admitting freely air and froſt; and the multitude of furrows lays the ſurface perfectly dry. When it is proper to ſow the ſeed, and laid flat with the brake, and the ſeed-furrow which ſucceeds, is ſo ſhallow as to bury little or none of the ſurface earth: whereas the ſtirring for barley being done with the deepeſt furrow buries all the ſurface-ſoil that was mellowed by the froſt and air. This method is alſo leſs expenſive, for after common ribbing, which keeps all the rain water, the ground is commonly ſo ſtirred, as to make the ſtirring a laborious work.

Barley is leſs valuable when it does not ripe equally. Barley, which comes up ſpeedily in a duſky ſoil, gains a great advantage over the weeds. Therefore, firſt take out about one of the contents of the ſacks of ſeed barley, to allow for the ſwelling of the grain. Lay the ſeed with the grain to ſteep in clean water: let it be covered with it for at leaſt 24 hours. When the ground is dry, and no likelihood of rain for 2 days, it is better to lie 36 hours. Sow the grain wet from ſteeping, without any powdered quick lime, which would ſuck up part of its moiſture. The ſeed will ſcatter well, but ſow rather moſt put in $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{3}$ more ſeed in bulk than uſual of dry grain, as the grain is ſwelled in proportion: harrow it in as quickly as poſſible after it is ſown: and give it the benefit of a ſtirring furrow. It will riſe in a fortnight at fartheſt.

The following experiment by a correſpondent of the Bath Society is conſidered as very intereſting: "The laſt ſpring (1783) being remarkably dry. I ſoaked my ſeed barley in the black water taken from a reſervoir which conſtantly receives the draining of my dung-heap and ſtables. As the light corn floated on the top, I ſkimmed it off, and let the reſt ſtand 24 hours. On taking it out of the water, I mixed the ſeed grain with a ſufficient quantity of ſifted wood aſhes, to make it ſow regularly, and ſowed 3 fields with it. I began ſowing the 16th and finiſhed the 23d of April. The produce was 60 buſhels per acre, of fine clean barley, without any *ſmall* or *green* corn, or weeds at harveſt. No perſon in this country had better grain. I ſowed alſo ſeverat other fields with the ſame ſeed dry, and without any preparation, but the crop, like thoſe of my neighbours, was very poor; not more than 20 buſhels per acre, and much mixed with *green* corn and weeds. I alſo ſowed ſome of the ſeed dry on one ridge in each of my former fields, but the produce was very poor in compariſon of the other parts of the field."

Where the land is in good order, and free from weeds, April is the month for ſowing barley. Any day is proper. The dreſſing loamy ſoil and light ſoil for barley, is the ſame with that deſcribed; only that to plough dry is not ſo eſſential as in dreſſing clay ſoil. Loam or ſand may be ſtirred a little moiſt: better, however, delay a week or two, than to ſtir a loam when moiſt. Clay muſt never be plowed moiſt, even though the ſeaſon ſhould eſcape altogether. But this will ſeldom be neceſſary; for not in one year of 20 will it happen, but that clay is dry enough for plowing ſome time in May. Froſt may correct clay plowed wet after

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ter harveſt; but plowed wet in the ſpring, it utes into a hard maſs, not to be diſſolved but by ry hard labour.

On the cultivation of this grain we have the llowing obſervations by a Norfolk farmer. The ſt ſoil is that which is dry and healthy, rather ht than ſtiff, but yet of ſufficient ſtrength to re- in moiſture. On this kind of land the grain is ways the beſt bodied and coloured, and has the neſt rind. Theſe qualities recommend it moſt the maltſter. If the land is poor, it ſhould be y and warm; and when ſo, it will often bear ter grain than richer land in a cold and wet ſi- tion. In the choice of ſeed, the beſt is of a lively colour, and brightiſh caſt, without a deep redneſs or black tinge at the tail. If the d be a little ſhrivelled, it is the better; for that at ſhrivelling proves it to have a thin ſkin, and have ſweated in the mow. The neceſſity of a nge of ſeed by not ſowing two years together at grew on the ſame ſoil, is not in any part of ſhandry more evident than in the culture of grain, which, if not frequently changed, will r coarſer every year. Liming has been found judicial. Sprinkling a little ſoot with the wa- which it is ſteeped has been of great ſervice, ſecures the ſeed from inſects. In a very dry ſome, barley that has been wetted for malt- and begins to ſprout, will come up ſooner, produce a good crop.

On lands tolerably manured, (ſays this wri- I ſowed clover with my barley, which I ed at harveſt; and fed the clover all the fol- ing winter, and from ſpring to July, when I owed it till the following ſpring, and then ſow- ith barley and clover as before. Repeating method every year, I had very large crops, would not recommend this practice on poor land. We ſow on our lighteſt lands in April, ir moiſt lands in May; finding that thoſe which are the moſt ſubject to weeds pro- the beſt crops when ſown late. The com- method is to ſow the barley ſeed broad-caſt o ſowings; the firſt harrowed in once, the ice; the uſual allowance from 3 to 4 buſhels re. But if farmers could be prevailed on to this practice, they would ſoon find their ac- t in it. Were only half the quantity ſown ly, the produce would be greater, and the leſs liable to lodge: For when corn ſtands cloſe, the ſtalks are drawn up weak; and on account are leſs capable of reſiſting the force inds, or ſupporting themſelves in heavy rains. n our great ſucceſs in ſetting and drilling it, ſome of our farmers tried theſe methods barley; but did not find it anſwer their ex- tions, except on very rich land. I have my- ſelf 80 ſtalks on one root of barley, which roduced good and long ears, and the grain better than any other; but the method is too ſive for general practice. In poor land, ſow or your crop will be worth little. Farmers do not reaſon on the matter, will be of a dif- t opinion; but the fact is indiſputable."

hen the barley is ſowed and harrowed in, he es that the land be rolled after the firſt ſhow- rain, to break the clods. This will cloſe the about the roots, which will be a great advantage to it in dry weather. When the barley has been up 3 or 4 weeks, roll it again with a heavy roller, which will prevent the ſun and air from penetrating the ground to the injury of the roots. This rolling, before it branches out, will alſo cauſe it to tiller into a greater number of ſtalks; ſo that if the plants be thin, the ground will be thereby filled, and the ſtalks ſtrengthened. If the blade grows too rank, as it ſometimes will in a warm wet ſpring, mowing is a much better method than feeding it down with ſheep; becauſe the ſcythe takes off only the rank tops, but the ſheep being fond of the ſweet end of the ſtalk next the root, will often bite ſo cloſe as to injure its future growth.

4. BUCK WHEAT. The uſes of this plant have been mentioned above, in *Part* I. *Sect.* VI. It delights in a mellow ſandy ſoil; but ſucceeds well in any dry looſe healthy land, and moderately ſo in a free loamy ſtone brash. A ſtiff clay is its averſion, and it is entirely labour loſt to ſow it in wet poachy ground. The proper ſeaſon for ſowing is from the laſt week of May or the beginning of June. It has been ſown, however, ſo early as the beginning of April, and ſo late as the 22d of July, by way of experiment; but the latter was rather extreme to be choſen, and the former was in danger from froſt. In an experiment upon a ſmall piece of ground, the grain of two different crops was brought to maturity in ſummer 1787. After ſpring feedings, a crop of turnip-rooted cabbage, or vetches, there will be ſufficient time to ſow the land with buck-wheat. In hot dry ſummers, a crop of vetches might even be mown for hay early enough to introduce a crop of this grain after it.

In 1780, about 7 acres of a ſandy ſoil on Briſlington Common, having been firſt tolerably well cleanſed from brambies, furze, &c. received one plowing. To reduce the irregularities of the ſurface, it was rolled; and on the 9th of June 1780, 2½ buſhels of buck-wheat per acre ſown, the ground rolled again without harrowing. The vegetation appeared in 5 or 6 days, as is conſtantly the caſe. The growth was ſo rapid, that the fern, with which this land greatly abounded, was completely kept under. About the middle of September the crop was mown, but by reaſon of a great deal of rain about that time, it was not ſecured until the beginning of October; hence a loſs of great part of the grain by ſhedding, as well as ſome eaten by birds. However, there were ſaved about 24 Wincheſter buſhels per acre; and, notwithſtanding its long expoſure to the weather, received no ſort of damage, only perhaps that the fineſt and moſt perfect grain was the firſt to fall from the plant. The ground after this had almoſt the appearance of a fallow, and was immediately plowed.

When it had lain a moderate time to meliorate, it was harrowed, ſown with Lammas wheat, and plowed in under furrow in a contrary direction to the firſt plowing. Thus a piece of land, which in April was in a ſtate of nature, in November was under a promiſing crop of grain, without the aid of manure, or any great degree of tillage. Nor was the harveſt deficient; for the produce was from 26 to 30 buſhels per acre. As ſoon as the wheat

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wheat crop was taken off, the ground had one plowing, and on the 1st Sept. was sown with turnip seed. The turnips were not large, but of an herbage so abundant as in the following spring to support 120 ewes with their lambs 4 weeks. After this it was manured with a compostion of rotten dung and natural earth, about 20 putt loads per acre, and planted with potatoes. The crop sold for L. 138, besides a considerable quantity used in the family, and as much reserved as sowed ten acres. In autumn it was again sown with wheat, and produced an excellent crop. In spring 1784, it was manured and planted with potatoes; the crop, (though tolerably good) by no means equalled the former, producing about 100 sacks per acre only. In spring 1785, the land was for a 3d time under a crop of wheat, it being intended to try how far this mode of alternate cropping, one year with potatoes and another with wheat may be carried.

From the success of the preceding and other experiments by NEHEMIAH BARTLEY, Esq. of Bristol, as detailed in the *Bath Society Papers*, it would seem, that the culture of this plant ought in many cases to be adopted instead of a summer fallowing: for the crop produced appears not only to be so much clear gain in respect to such practice, but also affords a considerable quantity of straw for fodder and manure, and is a better preparation for a succeeding crop than a summer fallowing.

5. BEANS. The properest soil for beans is a deep and moist clay. There was lately introduced into Scotland a method of sowing beans with a drill-plough, and horse-hoeing the intervals: which, beside affording a good crop, is a dressing to the ground. But as that method is far from being general, we keep in the common track.

As this grain is early sown, the ground intended for it should be plowed before winter, to give access to the frost and air; beneficial in all soils, and necessary in a clay soil. Take the first opportunity after January when the ground is dry, to loosen the soil with the harrow, *Pl.* 299. *fig.* 23. till a mould be brought upon it. Sow the seed, and cover it with the 2d harrow, *fig.* 24. The 3d, *fig.* 25. will smooth the surface, and cover the seed equally. These harrows make the very best figure in sowing beans; which ought to be laid deep in the ground, not less than six inches. In clay soil, the common harrows are altogether insufficient. The soil, which has rested long after plowing, is rendered compact and solid: the common harrows skim the surface: the seed is not covered; and the first heavy shower of rain lays it above ground. Where the farmer overtakes not the plowing after harvest, and must plow immediately before sowing, the plough answers the purpose of the first harrow; and the other two will complete the work. But the labour of the first harrow is ill saved; as the plough before winter is a fine preparation for grain of every kind. If the ground plowed before winter happen by a superfluity of moisture to cake, the first harrow going along the ridges, and crossing them, will loosen the surface, and give access to the air for drying. As soon as the ground is dry, sow without delay. If rain happen in the interim, wait till a dry day or two come.

Carse-clay, plowed before winter, seldom fails to cake. Upon that account, a 2d plowing is necessary before sowing; which ought to be performed with an ebb furrow, to keep the foul mould as near the surface as possible. To cover the seed with the plough is expressed by the phrase *to sow under furrow*. The clods raised in this plowing are a sort of shelter to the young plants in the chilly spring months. The above method will answer for loam. As for a sandy or gravelly soil, it is altogether improper for beans.

Though we cannot approve the horse-hoeing of beans, with the intervals that are commonly allotted for turnip, yet we would strongly recommend the drilling them at the distance of 10 or 12 inches, and keeping the intervals clean of weeds. This may be done by hand hoeing, at the same time laying fresh soil to the roots of the plants. But as this is expensive, and hands are not always to be got, a narrow plough, drawn by a single horse, might be used, with a mould-board on each side to scatter the earth upon the roots of the plants. This is a cheap and expeditious method: it keeps the ground clean; and covers the plants with fresh soil.

As beans delight in a moist soil, and have the end of growing in a moist season, they cover the ground totally when sown broadcast, keep in the dew, and exclude the sun and air; the plants grow to a great height; but carry little seed, and that little not well ripened. Hence the advantage of drilling; which gives free access to the sun and air, dries the ground, and affords plenty of ripe seed.

6. PEASE are of two kinds; the white and the gray. The cultivation of the latter only belongs to this place. There are two species of the gray kind, distinguished by their time of ripening. One ripens soon, and for that reason is termed *hot seed*: the other, which is slower in ripening, is termed *cold seed*.

Pease, a leguminous crop, is proper to intervene between two culmiferous crops; less for the profit of a pease crop, than for meliorating the ground. Pease, however, in a dry season, will produce 6 or 7 bolls each acre; but, in an ordinary season, they seldom reach above 2, or 3. Hence, in a moist climate, which all the west of Britain is, red clover seems a more beneficial crop than pease; as it makes as good winter food as pease, and can be cut green thrice during summer.

A field intended for cold seed ought to be plowed in October or November; and in February as soon as the ground is dry, the seed ought to be sown on the winter furrow. A field intended for hot seed ought to be plowed in March or April immediately before sowing. But if infested with weeds, it ought to be also plowed in October and November.

Pease laid a foot below the surface will vegetate; but the most approved depth is six inches in light soil, and four inches in clay soil; for which reason, they ought to be sown under furrow when the ploughing is delayed till spring. Of all grain beans excepted, they are the least in danger of being

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ing buried. Peaſe differ from beans, in loving dry ſoil and a dry ſeaſon. Horſe-hoeing has little effect when the plants are new ſprung; and when they are advanced, their length prevents it. Its growing at the ſame time is the cauſe of their carrying ſo little ſeed: the ſeed is buried among the leaves; and the ſun cannot penetrate to make it grow and ripen. The only practicable remedy to obtain grain, is thin ſowing; but thick ſowing produces more ſtraw, and mellows the ground more. Half a boll for an Engliſh acre may be ſtored thin ſowing; three firlots, thick ſowing. Notwithſtanding what is ſaid above, Mr HUNTER, a noted farmer in Berwickſhire, began ſome time ago to ſow all his peaſe in drills; and never failed to have great crops of peaſe as well as of beans. He ſowed double rows at a foot interval, and 2½ feet between the double rows, which admitted horſe-hoeing. By that method, he had alſo good crops of beans on light land.

Peaſe and beans mixed are often ſown together, in order to catch different ſeaſons. In a moiſt ſeaſon, the beans make a good crop; in a dry one, the peaſe.

The growth of plants is commonly checked by drought in the month of July; but promoted by rain in Auguſt. In July, graſs is parched; in Auguſt, it recovers verdure. Where peaſe are ſo far advanced in the dry ſeaſon that the ſeed begins to fill, their growth is indeed checked, but the ſeed continues to fill. If only in the bloſſom at that ſeaſon, their growth is checked a little; but they become vigorous again in Auguſt, and continue growing without filling till ſtopped by froſt. Hence it is, that cold ſeed, which is early ſown, has the beſt chance to produce corn: hot ſeed, which is late ſown, has the beſt chance to produce ſtraw.

The following method is practiſed in Norfolk, for ſowing peaſe upon a dry light ſoil, immediately after being opened from paſture. The ground is pared off with a plough extremely thin, and every ſod is laid regularly on its back. In every ſod a double row of holes is made. A pea dropt in every hole lodges in the flay'd ground immediately below the ſod, thruſts its roots horizontally, and has ſufficient moiſture. This method enabled Norfolk farmers, in the barren year 1740, to furniſh white peaſe at 12s. per boll.

II. PLANTS CULTIVATED FOR ROOTS. (See Part I. § III.) 1. TURNIPS delight in a gravelly ſoil; and can be raiſed to great perfection, and with the leaſt hazard of miſcarrying. At the ſame time, there is no ſoil but will bear turnips when well prepared. No perſon ever deſerved better of a country, than he who firſt cultivated turnips in the field. No plant is better fitted for the climate of Britain, no plant proſpers better in the moiſt part of it, and no plant contributes more to fertility. In a word, there has not for two centuries been introduced a more valuable improvement.

Of all roots, turnips require the fineſt mould; and to that end, of all harrows froſt is the beſt. To give acceſs to froſt, the land ought to be prepared by ribbing after harveſt, as above directed in preparing land for barley. If the field be not ſubject to annuals, it may lie in that ſtate till the end of May; otherwiſe the weeds muſt be deſtroyed by a brakeing about the middle of April; and again in May, if weeds riſe. The firſt week of June, plow the field with a ſhallow furrow. Lime it if requiſite, and harrow the lime into the ſoil. Draw ſingle furrows with intervals of three feet, and lay dung in the furrows. Cover the dung ſufficiently, by going round it with the plough, and forming the three feet ſpaces into ridges. The dung comes thus to lie below the crown of every ridge.

The ſeaſon of ſowing muſt be regulated by the time intended for feeding. Where intended for feeding in Nov. Dec. Jan. and Feb. the ſeed ought to be ſown from the 1ſt to the 20th of June. Where the feeding is intended to be carried on to March, April, and May, the ſeed muſt not be ſown till the end of July. Turnips ſown earlier than above directed, flower that very ſummer, and run faſt to ſeed; which renders them unfit for food. If ſown much later, there is no food but from the leaves. Though by a drill plough the ſeed may be ſown of any thickneſs, the ſafeſt way is to ſow thick. Thin ſowing is liable to many accidents, which are far from being counterbalanced by the expence that is ſaved in thinning. Thick ſowing can bear the ravage of the black fly, and leave a ſufficient crop behind. It is a protection againſt drought, gives the plants a rapid progreſs, and eſtabliſhes them in the ground before it is neceſſary to thin them.

The ſowing turnips broad caſt is univerſal in England, and common in Scotland, though a barbarous practice. The eminent advantage of turnips is, that beſide a profitable crop, they make a moſt complete fallow; and the latter cannot be obtained but by horſe hoeing. Upon that account, the ſowing turnips in rows at 3 feet diſtance is recommended. Wider rows anſwer no profitable end, ſtraiter rows afford not room for a horſe to walk in. When the turnips are about 4 inches high, annual weeds will appear. Go round every interval with the ſlighteſt furrow poſſible, two inches from each row, moving the earth from the rows toward the middle of the interval. A thin plate of iron muſt be fixed on the left ſide of the plough, to prevent the earth from falling back and burying the turnips. Let women weed the rows with their fingers; which is better, and cheaper, than with the hand hoe, which is alſo apt to diſturb the roots of the turnips that are to ſtand, and to leave them open to drought by removing the earth from them. The ſtanding turnips are to be 12 inches from each other; a greater diſtance makes them ſwell too much; leſs affords them not ſufficient room. A woman ſoon comes to be expert in weeding. The following hint may be neceſſary to a learner. To ſecure the turnip that is to ſtand, let her cover it with the left hand; and with the right pull up the turnip on both ſides. After thus freeing the ſtanding turnip, ſhe may ſafely uſe both hands. Let the field remain in this ſtate till the appearance of new annuals make a 2d plowing neceſſary; which muſt be in the ſame furrow with the former, but deeper. As in this plowing the iron plate is removed, part of the looſe earth will fall back on the roots of the plants: the reſt will fill the mid-

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dle of the interval, and bury every weed. When weeds begin again to appear, then is the time for a 3d plowing in an oppoſite direction, which lays the earth to the roots of the plants. This plowing may be about the middle of Auguſt; after which, weeds riſe very faintly. If they do riſe, another plowing will clear the ground of them. Weeds that at this time riſe in the row, may be cleared with a hand hoe, which can do little miſchief among plants 12 inches from each other. But it may be done cheaper with the hand. And after the leaves of turnips in a row meet together, the hand is the only inſtrument that can be applied for weeding.

In ſwampy ground, the ſurface of which is beſt reduced by paring and burning, the ſeed may be ſown in rows with intervals of a foot. To ſave time, a drill plough may be uſed that ſows 3 or 4 rows at once. Hand hoeing is proper for ſuch ground; becauſe the ſoil under the burnt *ſtratum* is commonly full of roots, which digeſt and rot better under ground than when brought to the ſurface by the plough. While theſe are digeſting, the aſhes will ſecure a good crop. In cultivating turnips, care ſhould be taken to procure good, bright, nimble, and well dried ſeed, and of the beſt kinds. The Norfolk farmers generally raiſe the oval white, the large green topp'd, and the red or purple topp'd kinds, which from long experience they have found moſt profitable. The roots of the green topp'd will grow to a large ſize, and continue good much longer than others. The red or purple topp'd will alſo grow large, and continue good till February; but the roots become hard and ſtringy ſooner than the former. The green topp'd growing more above ground, is in more danger of injury from ſevere froſts than the red or purple, which are more than half covered by the ſoil; but it is the ſofteſt and ſweeteſt, when grown large, of any kind. They are brought to table a foot in diameter, as good as garden turnips.

Turnips delight in a light ſoil, of ſand and loam mixed. When the ſoil is rich and heavy, although the crop may be as weighty, they will be rank, and run to flower earlier in ſpring. Turnip ſeed will not do well without frequent changing. The Norfolk ſeed is ſent to moſt parts of the kingdom, and even to Ireland, but after two years it degenerates; ſo that thoſe who wiſh to have turnips in perfection ſhould procure it freſh every year from Norwich, to prevent being impoſed by ſeed of that name, inferior in quality.

When the plants have got five leaves, they ſhould be hoed, and ſet out at leaſt ſix inches apart. A month afterward, or earlier if it be a wet ſeaſon, a 2d hoeing ſhould take place, and the plants be left at leaſt 14 inches from each other, eſpecially if intended for feeding cattle; for where the plants are left thicker, they will be proportionably ſmaller, unleſs the land is very rich indeed. Some of the beſt Norfolk farmers ſow turnips in drills 3 feet aſunder, and at a 2d hoeing leave them a foot apart. By theſe means the trouble and expence of hoeing is much leſſened, and the crop of equal weight as when ſown in the common method. The intervals may eaſily be cleared of weeds by the horſe hoe. Great quantities of turnips are raiſed in Norfolk every year for feeding black cattle, which turn to great advantage. An acre of land contains 4840 ſquare yards, or 43,560 ſquare feet. If then every ſquare foot contains one turnip, and they weigh only 1 lb. each, here will be a maſs of excellent food, of 46 tons per acre, worth from 4 to 5 guineas, and ſometimes more.

Extraordinary crops of barley frequently ſucceed turnips, eſpecially when fed off the land by feeding them off, the cattle ſhould not be ſuffered to run over too much of the ground at once, for in that caſe they will tread down and ſpoil twice as many as they eat. In Norfolk, they are confined by herdles to as much as is ſufficient for them for one day. By this mode the crop is eaten clean, the ſoil is equally trodden, which itſelf is of much ſervice, and equally manured by the cattle. A notion prevails in many places, that mutton fattened with turnips is thereby rendered rank and ill taſted; but this is a vulgar error. The beſt mutton in Norfolk is all fed with turnips. Rank paſtures, and marſhy lands, produce rank mutton.

If the land be wet and ſpongy, the beſt method is to draw and carry off your turnips to ſome dry paſture; for the treading of the cattle will not only injure the crop, but render the land ſo wet that you muſt be at an additional expence in plowing. To preſerve turnips for late ſpring feed, the beſt method, and which has been tried with ſucceſs by ſome of the beſt Engliſh farmers is, To ſtack them up in dry ſtraw; a load of which is ſufficient to preſerve 40 tons of turnips. The method is eaſy, and as follows:

After drawing your turnips in February, cut off the tops and tap roots (which may be given to ſheep), and let them lie a few days in the field. Then, on a layer of ſtraw next the ground, put a layer of turnips two feet thick; then another layer of ſtraw, and ſo on alternately, till you have brought the heap to a point. Care muſt be taken to turn up the edges of the layers of ſtraw, to prevent the turnips from rolling out; cover the top well with long ſtraw, and it will ſerve as a thatch for the whole. In this method, the ſtraw imbibes the moiſture exhaled from the roots, all vegetation will be prevented, and the turnips will be nearly as good in May as when firſt drawn from the field. If ſtraw be ſcarce, old hay or ſtubble will anſwer the ſame purpoſe. But to avoid this trouble and expence, farmers in all countries would find it their intereſt to adopt the method uſed by the Norfolk farmers, which is, to continue ſowing turnips to the end of Auguſt; by which means their late crops remain good in the field till the end of April, and often till the middle of May. The advantages of having turnips good till the ſpring feed is ready, are ſo obvious and great, that many of the moſt intelligent farmers are now come into it, and find their account in ſo doing.

2. Potatoes. The choice of ſoil is not of greater importance for any other plant than for potatoes. This plant in clay ſoil, or in rank black loam lying low without ventilation, never yields palatable food. In a gravelly or ſandy ſoil, expoſed to the ſun and to free air, it thrives to perfection.

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ſection, and has a good reliſh. But a rank black loam, though improper to raiſe potatoes for the table, produces them in great plenty; and the product is a palatable food for horned cattle, hogs, and poultry. The ſpade is a proper inſtrument for raiſing a ſmall quantity, or for preparing corners or other places inacceſſible to the plough; but for raiſing potatoes in quantities, the plough is the only inſtrument.

As two great advantages of a drilled crop are, to deſtroy weeds, and to have a fallow at the ſame time with the crop, no judicious farmer will think of raiſing potatoes in any other way. In Sept. or Oct. as ſoon as that year's crop is removed, let the field have a rouſing furrow, a croſs plaiſing next, and then be cleared of weeds by the cleaning harrow. Form it into three feet ridges, in that ſtate to lie till April, which is the proper time for planting potatoes. Croſs brake it, to raiſe the furrows a little. Then lay well putrefied horſe dung along the furrows, upon which lay the roots 8 inches diſtant. Cover up theſe with the plough, going once round every row. This makes a warm bed for the potatoes; not dung below, and a looſe covering above, that admits every ray of the ſun. As ſoon as the plants appear above ground, go round every row a ſecond time with the plough, which will lay upon the plants an additional inch or two of mould, and at the ſame time bury all the annuals; and this will complete the plowing of the ridges. When the potatoes are ſix inches high, the plough, with the deepeſt furrow, muſt go twice along the middle of each interval in oppoſite directions, laying earth firſt to one row, and next to the other. And to perform this work, a plough with a double mould board will be more expeditious. But as the earth cannot be laid cloſe to the roots by the plough, the ſpade muſt ſucceed, with which four inches of the plants muſt be covered, leaving little more but the tops above ground; and this operation will bury all the weeds that have ſprung ſince the former plowing. What weeds ariſe after, muſt be pulled up by the hand. The hoe is never to be uſed here.

In the *Bath Society Papers*, we have the following practical obſervations on the culture and uſe of potatoes, given as the reſult of various experiments made for 5 years ſucceſſively. When the potato crop has been the only object in view, the following method is the moſt eligible:

The land being well pulverized by two or three good harrowings and plowings, is then manured with 15 or 20 cart loads of dung per acre, before it receives its laſt earth. Then it is thrown on to what the Suffolk farmers call the *Trench balk*, which is narrow and deep ridge work, about 15 inches from the centre of one ridge to the centre of the other. Women and children drop the ſets in the bottom of every furrow 15 inches apart; then follow and cover them with large hoes, a foot in width, pulling the mould down ſo as to bury the ſets five inches deep; they muſt receive two or three hand hoeings, and be kept free from weeds; always obſerving to draw the earth as much as poſſible to the ſtems of the young plants. The firſt or 2d week in April is the moſt advantageous time for planting.

In the end of Sept. or the beginning of Oct. when the haulm becomes withered, they ſhould be plowed up with a ſtrong double breaſted plough. The workman muſt be cautioned to ſet his plough very deep, that he may ſtrike below all the potatoes, to avoid damaging the crop. The women who pick them up, if not carefully attended to, will leave many in the ground, which will prove detrimental to any ſucceeding crop. To avoid which, let the land be harrowed, and turn the ſwine in to glean the few that may be left. By this method, the ſets will be 15 ſquare inches from each other; it will take 18 buſhels to plant an acre; and the produce, if on a good mixed loamy ſoil, will amount to 300 buſhels.

If the potatoes are planted as a preparation for wheat, it is preferable to have the rows two feet two inches from each other, hand hoeing only the ſpace from plant to plant in each row; then turning a ſmall furrow from the inſide of each row by a common light plough, and afterwards with a double breaſted plough with one horſe, ſplit the ridge formed by the firſt plowing thoroughly to clean the intervals. This work ſhould not be done too deep the firſt time, to avoid burying the tender plants; but the laſt earth ſhould be plowed as deep as poſſible; and the cloſer the mould is thrown to the ſtems of the plants, the better. Thus 15 buſhels will plant an acre, and the produce will be about 300 buſhels; and the land, by the ſummer plowings, will be prepared to receive ſeed wheat immediately, and almoſt enſure a plentiful crop. The potato ſets ſhould be cut a week before planting, with one or two eyes to each, and the pieces not very ſmall; two buſhels of freſh ſlaked lime ſhould be ſown over the ſurface of the land as ſoon as planted, which will effectually prevent the attacks of the grub.

A premium having been offered by the above mentioned Society for the cultivation of potatoes by farmers, &c. whoſe rent does not exceed 40l. per annum, the following methods were communicated, by which thoſe who have only a ſmall ſpot of ground may obtain a plentiful crop.

1. The earth ſhould be dug 12 inches deep, if the ſoil will allow of it; after this, a hole ſhould be opened about ſix inches deep, horſe dung, or long litter ſhould be put therein about 3 inches thick; this hole ſhould not be more than 12 inches in diameter; upon this dung or litter, a potato ſhould be planted whole, upon which a little more dung ſhould be ſhook, and then earth put thereon. In like manner the whole plot of ground muſt be planted, taking care that each potato be at leaſt 16 inches apart; and when the young ſhoots make their appearance, they ſhould have freſh mould drawn round them with a hoe; and if the tender ſhoots are covered, it will prevent the froſt from injuring them: they ſhould again be earthed when the ſhoots make a 2d appearance, but not be covered, as the ſeaſon will then be leſs ſevere. A plentiful ſupply of mould ſhould be given them, and the perſon who performs this buſineſs ſhould never tread upon the plant, or the hillock that is raiſed round it; as the lighter the earth is, the more room the potato will have to expand. From a ſingle root thus planted, very near 40 lb. of large potatoes were obtained, and

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from almoſt every other root upon the ſame plot, from 15 to 20 lbs.; and unleſs the ſoil be ſtoney or gravelly, 10 lb. or half a peck of potatoes may almoſt always be obtained from each root, by purſuing the above method. But cuttings or ſmall ſets will not do for this purpoſe.

The 2d method will ſuit thoſe who have not time to dig their ground. Where weeds much abound, and have not been cleared in the winter, a trench may be opened in a ſtraight line the whole length of the ground, and about ſix inches deep: in this trench the potatoes ſhould be planted about 10 inches apart; cuttings or ſmall potatoes will do for this method. When they are laid in the trench, the weeds that are on the ſurface may be pared off on each ſide about 10 inches from it, and be turned upon the plants; another trench ſhould then be dug, and the mould that comes out of it turned on the weeds. Each trench ſhould be regularly dug, that all the potatoes may be 10 or 12 inches from each other. This method will raiſe more potatoes than can be produced by digging the ground twice, and dibbling in the plants; as the weeds lighten the ſoil, and give the roots room to expand. They ſhould be twice hoed, and earthed up in rows. If cut potatoes are to be planted, every cutting ſhould have two eyes, for though fewer ſets will be obtained, there will be a greater certainty of a crop, as one eye often fails. Where a crop of potatoes fail in part, amends may ſtill be made by laying a little dung upon the knots of the ſtraw or ſtalks of thoſe potatoes that do appear, and covering them with mould; each knot or joint thus ordered, will, if the weather prove wet afterwards, produce more potatoes than the original roots. From the ſmalleſt potatoes planted whole, from 4 to 6 lb. at a root were obtained, and ſome of the ſingle potatoes weighed near 2 lb. Theſe were dug in, in trenches where the ground was covered with weeds, and the ſoil was a ſtiff loamy clay.

A good crop may be obtained by laying potatoes upon turf at about 12 or 14 inches apart, and upon beds of about 6 feet wide; on each ſide of which a trench ſhould be opened about 3 feet wide, and the turf that comes from thence ſhould be laid with the graſſy ſide downwards upon the potatoes; a ſpit of mould ſhould next be taken from the trenches, and be ſpread over the turf; and in like manner the whole plot of ground that is to be planted muſt be treated. When the young ſhoots appear, another ſpit of mould from the trenches ſhould be ſtrewed over the beds, to cover the ſhoots; this will prevent the froſt from injuring them, encourage them to expand, and totally deſtroy the young weeds. When the potatoes are taken up in the autumn, turn the earth again into the trenches, ſo as to make the ſurface level.

For field planting, a good method is to dung the land, which ſhould be once plowed previous thereto; and when plowed a 2d time, the potato plants ſhould be dropped before the plough in every 3d furrow, about 8 or 10 inches apart. Plants that are cut with two eyes are beſt for this purpoſe. The reaſon for planting them at ſo great a diſtance as every 3d furrow, is, that when the ſhoots appear, a horſe hoe may go upon the two vacant furrows to keep them clean; and after they are thus hoed, they ſhould be moulded up in ridges; and if this crop be taken up about Oct. or Nov. the land will be in excellent condition to receive a crop of wheat. Lands that are full of twitch or couch graſs may be made clean by this method, as the horſe hoeing is as good as a fallow; and if, when the potatoes are taken up, women and children were to pick out ſuch filth, no traces of it would remain; and by burning it, a quantity of manure would be procured. After plowing, none ſhould ever dibble in potatoes, for treading the ground.

Vacant places in hedge rows might be grubbed and planted with potatoes, and a good crop might be expected, as the leaves of trees, thorns, &c. are a good manure, and will ſurpriſingly encourage their growth, and gratify the wiſhes of the planter; who by cultivating ſuch places, will then make the moſt of his ground, and it will be in fine order to receive a crop of corn the following year.

The beſt method of taking up potatoes, is to plow once round every row at the diſtance of 6 inches, removing the earth from the plants, and gathering up with the hand all the potatoes that appear. This diſtance is proper to prevent cutting the roots. When the ground is thus cleared by the plough, raiſe the potatoes with a fork having three broad toes. The potatoes muſt then be gathered with the hand.

As potatoes are a comfortable food, it is of importance to have them all the year round. For a long time, potatoes in Scotland were confined to the kitchen garden; and after they were planted in the field, it was not ſuppoſed at firſt that they could be uſed after December. Of late years they have been kept good even till April; which has proved a great ſupport to many a poor family. But it is eaſy to preſerve them till the next crop. When taken out of the ground, lay in the cellar a bed a quantity that may ſerve till April, and cover from froſt with dry ſtraw preſſed down; bury the remainder in a hole dug in dry ground, mixed with the huſks of dried oats, ſand, or dry leaves of trees, over which build a ſtack of hay or corn. When the pit is opened for taking out the potatoes, the eyes of what have begun to puſh muſt be cut out; and this cargo will keep till the end of June. To be certain of making the old crop meet the new, the ſetting of a ſmall quantity may be delayed till June, to be taken up at the ordinary time before froſt. This cargo, having not arrived to full growth, will not be ſo ready to puſh as what are ſet in April. If the old crop be exhauſted before the new crop is ready, the interval may be ſupplied by the potatoes of the new crop that lie next the ſurface, to be picked out with the hand; which, far from hurting the crop, will rather improve it.

3. CARROTS and PARSNIPS. Of all roots the carrot requires the deepeſt ſoil. It ought at leaſt to be a foot deep, all equally good from top to bottom. If ſuch a ſoil be not in the farm, it muſt be made artificially by trench ploughing, which brings to the ſurface what never had any communication with the ſun or air. When this is

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is ſufficiently improved by a crop or two with g, it is fit for bearing carrots. Beware of ging the year when the carrots are ſown; for h freſh dung they ſeldom eſcape rotten ſcabs. e only ſoils proper for carrots are loam and l.

he ground muſt be prepared by the deepeſt ow that can be taken, the ſooner after harveſt better; immediately upon the back of which, bing ought to ſucceed, as directed for barley. he end of March, or beginning of April, which e time of ſowing the ſeed, the ground muſt be ſhed with a brake. Sow the ſeed in drills, intervals of a foot for hand hoeing, where crop is an acre or two: but if the quantity of ld be greater, the intervals ought to be 3 feet rſe hoeing.

flat ground without ridges, it is proper to e parallel furrows with the plough, ten feet dar to carry off redundant moiſture. From t we have obſerved in PART I. SECT. VI. of treatiſe, the farmer will find carrots a very ntageous crop; inſtances are there given of excellence as food for horſes, cattle, and hogs. he culture of PARSNIPS is the ſame with that rrots.

. PLANTS *cultivated for* LEAVES, *or for ts and* ROOTS. There are many garden of theſe kinds. The plants proper for the e cabbage red and white, colewort plain and l, turniped rooted cabbage, and the root of ly.

CABBAGE is an intereſting article in huſbandry. eaſily raiſed, is ſubject to few diſeaſes, reſiſts more than turnips, is palatable to cattle, and r fills them than turnips, carrots, or potatoes. ſeaſon for ſetting cabbage depends on the uſe ntended for. If intended for feeding in Nov. and Jan. plants procured from ſeed ſown the f July the preceding year muſt be ſet in or April. If intended for feeding in March, and May, the plants muſt be ſet the firſt f the preceding July, from ſeed ſown in the Feb. or beginning of March the ſame year. e ſetting of the plants retards their growth; ch means they have a vigorous growth the ng ſpring. And this crop makes an impor- nk in the chain that connects winter and r green food. Where cabbage for ſpring is neglected, a few acres of rye, ſown at ſtmas, will ſupply the want. After the rye ſumed there is time ſufficient to prepare the d for turnips.

ere the cabbage plants are to be ſet in March, ld muſt be made up after harveſt in ridges 3 ide. In that form let it lie all winter, to be red with air and froſt. In March, take the pportunity, between wet and dry, to lay n the furrows. Cover the dung with a , which will convert furrow into a crown, e crown into a furrow. Set the plants u- e dung, 3 feet from each other. Plant them o make a ſtraight line croſs the ridges, and the furrows, to which a gardener's line ed perpendicularly croſs the furrows will uiſite. This will ſet each plant at the diſ- ceciſely of 3 feet from the plants that ſur- round it. The purpoſe of this is to give opportunity for plowing, not only along the ridges, but acroſs them. This mode ſaves hand hoeing, is a more complete dreſſing to the ſoil, and lays earth neatly round every plant.

If the ſoil be deep and compoſed of good earth, a trench-plowing after the preceding crop will be proper; in which caſe, the time for dividing the held into three-feet ridges, ought immediately to precede the dunging for the plants. If weeds riſe ſo cloſe to the plants as not to be reached by the plough, deſtroy them with a hand-hoe. Unleſs the ſoil be much infeſted with annual weeds, twice plowing after the plants are ſet will be a ſufficient dreſſing. The firſt removes the earth from the plants; the next, at the diſtance of a month or ſo, lays it back.

Where the plants are to be ſet in July, the field muſt be ridged as directed for barley. It ought to have a ſlight plowing in June before the planting, to looſen the ſoil, but not ſo as to burn the ſurface earth; after which the three feet ridges muſt be formed, and the other particulars carried on as directed above with reſpect to plants ſet in March.

2. As to the TURNIP-ROOTED CABBAGES, in the Bath Society Papers we have the following account of SIR THOMAS BEEVOR'S method of cultivating them; which he found to be cheaper and better than any other.

"In the firſt or 2d week of June, I ſow the ſame quantity of ſeed, hoe the plants at the ſame ſize, leave them at the ſame diſtance from each other, and treat them in all reſpects like the common turnip. In this method I have always obtained a plentiful crop of them; to aſcertain the value of which I need only inform you, that on 23d of April laſt, having then two acres left of my crop, ſound, and in great perfection, I divided them by fold hurdles into three parts of nearly equal dimenſions. Into the firſt part I put 24 ſmall bullocks of about 30 ſtone weight each (14 lb. to the ſtone), and 30 middle-ſized fat wethers, which, at the end of the firſt week, after they had eaten down the greater part of the leaves, and ſome part of the roots, I ſhifted into the ſecond diviſion, and then put 70 lean ſheep into what was left of the firſt; theſe fed off the remainder of the turnips left by the fat ſtock; and ſo they were ſhifted through the three diviſions, the lean ſtock following the fat as they wanted food, until the whole was conſumed.

"The 24 bullocks and 30 fat wethers continued in the turnips until the 21 of May, and the 70 lean ſheep until the 29th, which is one day over four weeks: ſo that the two acres kept me 24 ſmall bullocks and 110 ſheep four weeks not reckoning the overplus day of keeping the lean ſheep; the value, at the rate of keeping at that ſeaſon, cannot be eſtimated in any common year at leſs than 4d. a-week for each ſheep, and 1s. 6d. per week for each bullock, which would amount together to the ſum of L. 14 : 10 : 8 for the two acres.

"You will obſerve, gentlemen, that in the valuation of the crop above mentioned I have claimed no allowance for the great benefit the farmer

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receives by being enabled to ſuffer his graſs to get into a forward growth, nor for the ſuperior quality of theſe turnips in fattening his ſtock; both which circumſtances muſt ſtamp a new and a great additional value upon them. But as their continuance on the land may ſeem to be injurious to the ſucceeding crop, to ſupply that loſs I have always ſown buck-wheat on the firſt earth upon the land from which the turnips were thus fed off; allowing one buſhel of ſeed per acre, for which I commonly receive from 5 to 6 quarters per acre in return. Thus you ſee, that in providing a moſt incomparable vegetable food for cattle, in that ſeaſon of the year in which the farmer is generally moſt diſtreſſed, and his cattle almoſt ſtarved, a conſiderable profit may likewiſe be obtained, much beyond what is uſually derived from his former practice, by the great produce and price of a crop raiſed at ſo eaſy an expence as that of the buck-wheat, which with us ſells commonly at the ſame price as barley, oftentimes more, but very rarely for leſs. The land on which I have uſually ſown turnip-rooted cabbages is a dry mixed ſoil, worth 15s. per acre."

To the preceding account the Society have ſubjoined the following note: "Whether we regard the importance of the ſubject, or the clear and practical information which the foregoing letter conveys, it may be conſidered as truly intereſting as any we have ever been favoured with: and therefore it is recommended in the ſtrongeſt manner to farmers in general, that they adopt a mode of practice ſo deciſively aſcertained to be in a high degree judicious and profitable."

To raiſe the turnip-rooted cabbage for tranſplanting, the beſt method yet diſcovered is, to breaſt-plow and burn as much old paſture as may be judged neceſſary for the ſeed-bed; two perches well ſtocked with plants will be ſufficient to plant an acre. The land ſhould be dug as ſhallow as poſſible, turning the aſhes in; and the ſeed ſhould be ſown the beginning of April. The land to be cultivated and dunged as the common turnip. About Mid-ſummer will be a proper time for planting, which is beſt done as follows: the land to be thrown into *one-bout* ridges, upon the tops of which the plants are to be ſet, about 18 inches from each other. As ſoon as the weeds riſe, give a hand-hoeing, afterwards run the ploughs in the intervals, and fetch a furrow from each ridge, which, after lying 2 or 3 weeks, is again thrown back to the ridges; if the weeds riſe again, give them another hand-hoeing. If the young plants in the ſeed-bed be attacked by the fly, ſow wood-aſhes over them when the dew is on, which will prevent their ravages.

3. The *racine de diſette*, or ROOT OF SCARCITY, BETA CICLA (See BETA, § II N° 1.) delights in a rich loamy land well dunged. It is directed to be ſown in rows, or broad-caſt, and as ſoon as the plants are of the ſize of a gooſe-quill, to be tranſplanted in rows of 13 inches diſtance, and 18 inches apart, one plant from the other: care muſt be taken in the ſowing, to ſow very thin, and to cover the ſeed, which lies in the ground about a month, an inch only.—In tranſplanting, the root is not to be ſhortened, but the leaves cut at the top; the plant is then to be planted with a ſetting ſtick, ſo that the upper part of the root ſhall appear about half an inch out of the ground; this laſt precaution is neceſſary to be attended to. Theſe plants will ſtrike root in 24 hours, and a man will plant with eaſe 1800 or 2000 a day. In the ſeed-bed, the plants, like all others, muſt be kept clear of weeds: when planted out, after once hoeing, they will ſuffocate every kind of weed near them.

The beſt time to ſow the ſeed is from the beginning of March to the middle of April: but ſome continue ſowing every month until the beginning of July, to have a ſucceſſion of plants. Both leaves and roots have been extolled as excellent both for man and beaſt. This plant is ſaid not to be liable, like the turnip, to be deſtroyed by inſects, for no inſect touches it, nor is it affected by exceſſive drought, or the changes of ſeaſons. Horned cattle, horſes, pigs, and poultry are exceedingly fond of it when cut ſmall. The leaves may be gathered every 12 or 15 days, they are from 30 to 40 inches long, by 22 to 26 inches broad. This plant is excellent for milch cows, when given to them in proper proportion, as it adds much to the quality as well as quantity of their milk; but care muſt be taken to prevention the leaves with other green food, otherwiſe it would abate the milk, and fatten them too much, it being of ſo exceeding a fattening quality.

SECT. IV. *Of the* CULTURE *of* GRASS.

THE end of Auguſt, or the beginning of September, is the beſt ſeaſon for ſowing graſs-ſeeds, there is time for the roots of the young plants to fix themſelves before the ſharp froſts ſet in. Moiſt weather is beſt for ſowing; the earth being ſtill warm, the ſeeds vegetate immediately; but if the ſeaſon prove unfavourable, they will do very well in the middle of March.

Never ſow on foul land; plow it well, and clear it from the roots of couch-graſs, ſtarrow, fern, broom, and all other noxious weeds. If theſe are ſuffered to remain, they will entirely deſtroy the young graſs. Rake theſe up in heaps, burn them on the land, and ſpread the aſhes for manure. Repeat the plowings and harrowings in dry weather. If the ſoil be clayey and wet, make ſome drains to carry off the water. Before the ſowing, lay the land as level as poſſible. If the ſeeds are clean 3 buſhels will be ſufficient for an acre. When ſown, harrow it in gently, and roll it in with a wooden roller. When it comes up, fill up all the bare ſpots by freſh ſeed, which muſt be rolled to fix it, will ſoon come up and cover the reſt. In Norfolk they ſow clover with the graſſes, particularly with rye-graſs: but this ſhould not be done except when the land is deſigned for graſs only three or four years, becauſe neither of theſe kinds will laſt long in the ground. Where you intend it for a continuance, it is better to mix only ſmall white Dutch clover, or marle graſs with other graſs ſeed, and not above 8 lb to an acre. Theſe are abiding plants, ſpread cloſe on the ſurface, and make the ſweeteſt feeding for cattle. In ſpring, root up thiſtles, burdock, or any large weeds that appear. This doing while the ground is ſoft enough to pull

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nit drawing by the roots, and before they ſeed, ill ſave a vaſt deal of trouble afterwards.

The common method of laying down fields to aſs is extremely injudicious. Some ſow barley ith their graſſes, which they ſuppoſe to be uſe- l in ſhading them, without conſidering how uch the corn draws away the nouriſhment. thers take their ſeeds from a foul hay rick; by hich means, beſides filling the land with rubbiſh d weeds, what they intend for dry ſoils may e come from moiſt, where it grew naturally, d *vice verſa*. The conſequence is, that the und, inſtead of being covered with a good ft ſward, is filled with plants unnatural to it. e kinds of graſs moſt eligible for paſture lands the annual meadow, creeping, and fine bent, fox-tail, and creſted dog's-tail, the poas, the ues, the vernal, oat-graſs, and the rye-graſs. e do not, however, approve of ſowing all theſe ds together; for beſides their ripening at diſ- nt times, by which we can never cut them all perfection and full vigour, no cattle are fond of alike. Horſes will ſcarcely eat hay which oxen cows will thrive upon; ſheep are particular- ond of ſome kinds, and refuſe others. The ocl-graſs, if not cut before ſeveral of the other ds are ripe, becomes ſo hard and wiry in the w, that few cattle eat it. Such as wiſh for a rticular account of the above-mentioned graſſes, be amply gratified in conſulting Mr STIL- NGFLEET on this ſubject, who has treated it h great judgment and accuracy. The ſubſ- nce of his obſervations are given in our article ass, § III, N° 1, 6-8, 10.

The graſſes commonly ſown for paſture, for or to cut green for cattle, are red clover, ite clover, yellow clover, rye-graſs, narrow ved plantain called *ribwort*, ſainfoin, and lu- ne. Red clover is of all the moſt proper to be green for ſummer food. It is a biennial plant en ſuffered to perfect its ſeed; but when cut n, it will laſt 3 years, and in a dry ſoil longer. the ſame time the ſafeſt courſe is to let it ſtand a ſingle year: if the 2d year's crop happen to unty, it proves, like a bad crop of peaſe, a encourager of weeds by the ſhelter it affords m. Here, as in all other crops, the goodneſs ed is of importance. Chooſe plump ſeed of ple colour, becauſe it takes on that colour en ripe. It is red when hurt in the drying, of a faint colour when unripe.

Red clover is luxuriant upon a rich ſoil, whether y, loam, or gravel: it will grow even upon a or, when properly cultivated. A wet ſoil is its y bane. To have red clover in perfection, eds muſt be extirpated, and ſtones taken off. e mould ought to be made as fine as harrow- can make it; and the ſurface ſmoothed with ght roller. This gives opportunity for diſtri- ing the ſeed evenly: which muſt be covered a ſmall harrow with teeth no larger than that a garden rake, 3 inches long, and 6 inches a- der. (See *Plate* CCCI. *fig.* 46.) In harrowing, man ſhould walk behind with a rope in his nd fixed to the back part of the harrow, ready diſentangle it from ſtones, clods, turnip or cab- ge roots, which would trail the ſeed, and diſ- ce it.

No preciſe depth is neceſſary for the ſeed of red clover. It will grow vigorouſly from 2 inches deep, and it will grow when barely covered. Half an inch may be reckoned the moſt advantageous poſition in clay ſoil, a whole inch in what is light or looſe. It is a vulgar error, that ſmall ſeed ought to be ſparingly covered. Miſled by it, farmers cover their clover ſeed with a buſhy branch of thorn; which not only covers it unequally, but leaves part on the ſurface to wither in the air. The proper ſeaſon for ſowing red clover, is from the middle of April to the middle of May. It will ſpring from the firſt of March to the end of Auguſt; but ſuch liberty ought not to be taken.

There cannot be a greater blunder in huſbandry than to be ſparing of ſeed. Some writers talk of ſowing an acre with 4 lb. That quantity of ſeed, ſay they, will fill an acre with plants as thick as they ought to ſtand. This rule may be admitted as to grain, but will not anſwer with reſpect to graſs. Graſs ſeed cannot be ſown too thick: the plants ſhelter one another; they retain all the dew; and they muſt puſh upward, having no room laterally. Obſerve the place where a ſack of peaſe, or of other grain, has been ſet down for ſowing: the ſeed dropt there accidently grows more quickly than in the reſt of the field ſown thin out of hand. A young plant of clover, or of ſainfoin, according to Tull, may be raiſed to a great ſize where it has room; but the field will not produce half the quantity. When red clover is ſown for cutting green, there ought not to be leſs than 24 lb. to an acre. A field of clover is ſeldom too thick: the ſmaller a ſtem be, the more acceptable it is to cattle. It is often too thin; and when ſo, the ſtems tend to wood.

Red clover is commonly ſown with grain; and the moſt proper grain is FLAX. The ſoil muſt be highly cultivated for flax as well as for red clover. The proper ſeaſon of ſowing is the ſame for both; the leaves of flax being very ſmall, admit of free circulation of air; and flax being an early crop, is removed ſo early as to give the clover time for growing. In a rich ſoil it has grown ſo faſt, as to afford a good cutting that very year. Next to flax, barley is the beſt companion to clover. The ſoil muſt be looſe and free for barley; as well as for clover: the ſeaſon for ſowing is the ſame; and the clover is well eſtabliſhed in the ground before it is overtopped by the barley. At the ſame time, barley commonly is ſooner cut than either oats or wheat. When clover is ſown in ſpring upon wheat, the ſoil, which has lain five or ſix months without being ſtirred, is an improper bed for it; and the wheat being in the vigour of growth, overtops it from the beginning. It cannot be ſown along with oats, becauſe of the hazard of froſt; and when ſown as uſual among the oats 3 inches high, it is over topped, and never enjoys free air till the oats be cut. Where oats are ſown upon the winter furrow, the ſoil is rendered as hard as when under wheat. Red clover is ſometimes ſown by itſelf without other grain: but this method, beſide loſing a crop, is not ſalutary; becauſe clover in its infant ſtate requires ſhelter.

As to the quantity of grain proper to be ſown with clover; in a rich ſoil well pulverized, a peck of barley on an Engliſh acre is all that ought to be

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be ventured; but there is not much foil in Scotland so rich. Two Linlithgow firlots make the proper quantity for an acre that produces six bolls of barley; half a firlot for what produces 9 bolls. To some, so small a quantity may appear ridiculous. But a rich foil in good order, will, from a single seed of barley, produce 20 or 30 vigorous stems.

The culture of white clover, yellow clover, ribwort, and rye-grass, is the same in general with that of red clover. Yellow clover, ribwort, and rye grass, are all early plants, blooming in the end of April or beginning of May. The two latter are evergreens, and therefore excellent for winter pasture. Rye-grass is less hurt by frost than any of the clovers, and will thrive in a moister foil: nor is it much affected by drought. In a rich foil, it grows 4 feet high. These grasses are generally sown with red clover for producing a plentiful crop. The proportion of seed is arbitrary; and there is little danger of too much. When ry-grass is sown for procuring seed, 5 firlots wheat measure may be sown on an acre; and for procuring seed of rib-wort, 40 lb. may be sown. The roots of rye-grass spread horizontally: they bind the soil by their number; and though small, are yet so vigorous as to thrive in hard soil. Red clover has a large tap-root, which cannot penetrate any soil but what is open and free; and the largeness of the root makes the soil still more open and free. Rye grass, once a great favourite, appears to be discarded in most parts of Britain. The common practice has been, to sow it with red clover, and to cut them promiscuously in the beginning of June for green food, and a little later for hay. This indeed is the proper season for cutting red clover, because it then begins to flower; but as the seed of the rye-grass is then approaching to maturity, its growth is stopped for that year, as much as of oats or barley cut after the seed is ripe. Oats or barley cut green before the seed forms, will afford two other cuttings; which is the case of rye-grass, or yellow clover, and of ribwort. By such management, all the profit will be drawn that these plants can afford.

When red clover is intended for seed, the ground ought to be cleared of weeds, as the seed cannot otherwise be preserved pure; what seeds escape the plough ought to be taken out by the hand. In England, when a crop of seed is intended, the clover is always first cut for hay. This practice will not answer in Scotland, as the seed would often be too late for ripening. It would do better to eat the clover by sheep till the middle of May, which would allow the seed to ripen. The seed is ripe when, upon rubbing it between the hands, it parts readily from the husk. Then apply the scythe, spread the crop thin, and turn it carefully. When perfectly dry, take the first hot day for threshing it on boards covered with a coarse sheet. Another way less subject to risk, is to stack the dry hay, and to thresh it in the end of April. After the first threshing, expose the husks to the sun, and thresh them till no seed remain. Nothing is more efficacious than a hot day to make the husk part with its seed; in which view it may be exposed to the sun by parcels, in an hour or two before the flail is applied.

White clover, intended for seed, is managed in the same manner. No plant ought to be mixed with rye-grass that is intended for seed. In Scotland, much rye-grass seed is hurt by transgressing that rule. The seed is ripe when it parts easily with the husk. The yellowness of the stem is another indication of its ripeness; in which particular it resembles oats, barley, and other coniferous plants. The best manner to manage a crop of rye-grass for seed, is to bind it loosely in small sheaves, widening them at the bottom to make them stand erect; as is done with oats in moist weather. In that state they may stand till sufficiently dry for threshing. They thus dry more quickly, and are less hurt by rain, than by confining and putting the sheaves in shocks like corn. The worst way of all is to spread the rye-grass on the moist ground, for it makes the seed malten. The sheaves, when sufficiently dry, are carried into close carts to where they are to be threshed on a board, as mentioned above for clover. Put the straw in a rick when 100 sheaves are threshed. Carry the threshing board to the place where another rick is intended; and so on till the whole seed be thrashed, and the straw ricked. There is necessity for close carts to save the seed, which is apt to drop out in a hot day; but a hot day ought always to be chosen for winnowing. Carry the seed in sacks to the granary or barn, to be separated from the husks by a fan. Spread the seed thin upon a timber floor, and turn it once or twice a-day till perfectly dry. If suffered to take a heat, it is useless for seed.

The writers on agriculture reckon sainfoin preferable to clover in many respects: They say that it produces a larger crop; that it does not hurt cattle when eaten green; that it makes better hay; that it continues four times longer in the ground; and that it will grow on land that will bear no other crop. Sainfoin has a very large tap-root, which is able to pierce very hard earth. The roots grow very large; and the larger they are, they penetrate to the greater depth; and hence this grass, when it thrives well, receives a great part of its nourishment from below the bottom of the soil: of course, a deep dry soil is best for sainfoin. When plants draw their nourishment from that part of the soil that is near the surface, it is not of much consequence whether their number be great or small. But the case is very different when the plants receive their food, not only near, but also deep below, the surface. Besides, plants that shoot their roots deep are often supplied with moisture, when those near the surface are parched with drought.

To render the plants of sainfoin vigorous, they must be sown thin. The best method of doing this is by a drill; because, when sown in this manner, not only the weeds, but also the supernumerary plants, can easily be removed. It is several years before sainfoin comes to its full strength; and the number of plants sufficient to stock a field, while in this imperfect state, will make but a poor crop for the first year or two. It is therefore necessary that it be sown in such a manner as to make it easy to take up plants in such number, and in such order, as always to leave in the field the proper number in their proper places. This can

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n only be done, with propriety, by ſowing the
ants in rows by a drill. Suppoſing a field to be
ſed in rows at ten inches diſtance, the parti-
ns may be hand-hoed, and the rows dreſſed in
ch a manner as to leave a proper number of
nts. In this ſituation the field may remain two
ars; then one 4th of the rows may be taken out
pairs, in ſuch a manner as to make the beds of
inches, with ſix rows in each, and intervals of
inches, which may be plowed. Next year, a-
ther 4th of the rows may be taken out in the
e manner, ſo as to leave double rows with
tervals of ten inches, and intervals of 30: All
hich may be hoed at once or alternately, as
be moſt convenient.

The great quantity of this graſs which the
ers on this ſubject aſſure us may be raiſed u-
n acre, and the excellency and great value
the hay made of it, ſhould induce farmers to
e a complete trial of it. The plants taken up
a field of ſainfoin may be ſet in another
d; and if the tranſplanting of this graſs ſuc-
ds as well as the tranſplanting of lucerne has
e with Mr Lunin de Chateauvieux, the trouble
expence will be ſufficiently recompenſed by
largeneſs of the crops. In tranſplanting, it is
ſſary to cut off great part of the long tap
t: this will prevent it from ſtriking very deep
the ſoil, and make it puſh out large roots in a
y direction from the cut end of the tap-root.
n managed in this manner, will thrive even
allow land that has a wet bottom, provided
not overſtocked with plants. Whoever in-
s to try the culture of this graſs in Scotland,
ld take great pains in preparing the land, and
ng it as free from weeds as poſſible. In Eng-
as the roots ſtrike deep in that chalky ſoil,
plant is not liable to be ſo much injured by
ght as other graſſes are, whoſe fibres lie hori-
ally, and lie near the ſurface. The quantity
hy produced is greater and better in quality
n any other. But there is one advantage at-
ng this graſs, which renders it ſuperior to
ther; viz. that it affords excellent feeding
ch cows. The prodigious increaſe of milk
ch it makes is aſtoniſhing, being nearly double
duced by any other green food. The milk
better, and yields more cream than any
; and the butter procured from it much bet-
loured and flavoured.

he following remarks by an Engliſh farmer
ade from much experience and obſervation.
oin is much cultivated in thoſe parts where
oil is of a chalky kind. It will always ſuc-
well where the roots run deep; the worſt
of all for it is where there is a bed of cold
lay, which the tender fibres cannot penetrate.
ll make a greater increaſe of produce, by at
30 times, than common graſs or turf on poor
Where it meets with chalk or ſtone, it will
d its roots through the cracks and chinks to
y great depth in ſearch of nouriſhment. The
ſs is of more conſequence than the richneſs
nd for ſainfoin; although land that is both
nd rich will always produce the largeſt crops.
very commonly ſowed broadcaſt; but it an-
beſt in drills, eſpecially if the land be made
by repeated plowing, rolling, and harrowing.
Much depends on the depth which this ſeed is
ſown. If it be buried more than an inch deep, it
will ſeldom grow; and if left uncovered, it will
puſh out its roots above ground, and theſe will
be killed by the air. March and the beginning of
April are the beſt ſeaſons for ſowing it, as the ſe-
verity of winter and the drought of ſummer are
equally unfavourable to the young plants. A bu-
ſhel of ſeed ſown broadcaſt, or half that quantity
in drills, if good, is ſufficient for an acre. The
drill ſhould be 30 inches apart, to admit of horſe-
hoeing between them. Much, however, depends
on the goodneſs of the ſeed, which may be beſt
judged of by the following marks:

The huſk being of a bright colour, the kernel
plump, of a grey or bluiſh colour without, and,
if cut acroſs, greeniſh and freſh withinſide; if it
be thin and furrowed, and of a yelloviſh caſt, it
will ſeldom grow. When the plants ſtand ſingle,
and have room to ſpread, they produce the great-
eſt quantity of herbage, and the ſeed ripens beſt.
But farmers in general plant them ſo cloſe, that
they choke and impoveriſh each other, and often
die in a few years. Single plants run deepeſt and
draw moſt nouriſhment; they are alſo eaſieſt kept
free from weeds. A ſingle plant will often pro-
duce half a pound of hay, when dry. On rich
land this plant will yield two good crops in a
year, with a moderate ſhare of culture. A good
crop muſt not be expected the firſt year; but, if
the plants ſtand not too thick, they will increaſe
in ſize the 2d year prodigiouſly. No cattle ſhould
be turned on the field the firſt winter after the
corn is off with which it was ſown, as their feet
would injure the young plants. Sheep ſhould not
come on the following ſummer, becauſe they
would bite off the crown of the plants, and pre-
vent their ſhooting again. A ſmall quantity of
ſoapers aſhes as a top-dreſſing will be of great ſer-
vice, if laid on the firſt winter.

If the ſainfoin be cut juſt before it comes into
bloom, it is admirable food for horned cattle; and
if cut thus early, it will yield a 2d crop the ſame
ſeaſon. But if it proves a wet ſeaſon, it is better
to let it ſtand till its bloom be perfected; for great
care muſt be taken, in making it into hay, that
the flowers do not drop off, as cows are very
fond of them; and it requires more time than o-
ther hay in drying. Sainfoin is ſo excellent a fod-
der for horſes, that they require no oats while
they eat it, although they be worked hard all the
time. Sheep will alſo be fattened with it faſter
than with any other food. If the whole ſeaſon
for cutting proves very rainy, it is better to let
the crop ſtand for ſeed, as that will amply repay
the loſs of the hay; becauſe it will not only fetch
a good price, but a peck of it will go as far as a
peck and a half of oats for horſes. The beſt time
of cutting the ſeeded ſainfoin is, when the great-
eſt part of the ſeed is well filled, the firſt blown
ripe, and the laſt blowing beginning to open. For
want of this care ſome people have loſt moſt of
their ſeed by letting it ſtand too ripe. Seeded
ſainfoin ſhould always be cut in a morning or even-
ing, when the dews render the ſtalks tender. If
cut when the ſun ſhines hot; much of the ſeed
will fall out and be loſt.

An acre of very ordinary land, when improved

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by

by this grafs, will maintain 4 cows very well from the firft of April to the end of November; and afford, befides, a fufficient ftore of hay to make the greater part of their food the 4 months following. If the foil be tolerably good, a field of fainfoin will laft from 15 to 20 years in prime; but at the end of 7 or 8 years, it will be neceffary to lay on a moderate coat of well-rotted dung; or, if the foil be very light and fandy, of marle. The future crops, and the duration of the plants in health and vigour, will thus be greatly increafed and prolonged. Hence it will appear, that for poor land there is nothing equal to this grafs in point of advantage to the farmer. Clover will laft only two years in perfection; and often, if the foil be cold and moift, near half the plants will rot, and bald patches be found in every part of the field the 2d year. Befides, from our frequent rains during Sept. many crops left for feeding are loft. But from the quantity and excellent quality of fainfoin, and its ripening earlier, and continuing in vigour fo much longer much rifk and expence is avoided, and a large annual profit accrues to the farmer.

The writers on agriculture, ancient as well as modern, beftow the higheft encomiums upon lucerne as affording excellent hay, and producing very large crops. Lucerne remains at leaft 10 or 12 years in the ground, and produces about 8 tons of hay upon the Scots acre. There is but little of it cultivated in Scotland. However, it has been tried in feveral parts of that country; and it is found, that, when the feed is good, it comes up very well, and ftands the winter froft. But the chief thing which prevents this grafs from being more ufed in Scotland, is the difficulty of keeping the foil open and free from weeds. In a few years the furface becomes fo hard, and the turf fo ftrong, that it deftroys the lucerne before the plants have arrived at their greateft perfection: fo that lucerne can fcarce be cultivated with fuccefs there, unlefs fome method be fallen upon of deftroying the natural grafs, and prevent the furface from becoming hard and impenetrable. This cannot be done effectually by any other means than horfe-hoeing. This method was firft propofed by Mr TULL, and afterwards practifed fuccefsfully by M. de CHATEAUVIEUX near Geneva. That gentleman tried the fowing of lucerne both in rows upon the beds where it was intended to ftand, and likewife the fowing it in a nurfery, and afterwards tranfplanting it into the beds prepared for it. He prefers tranfplanting; becaufe, thus part of the tap-root is cut off, and the plant fhoots out a number of lateral branches from the cut part of the root, which makes it fpread its roots nearer the furface, and confequently renders it more eafily cultivated: befides, this circumftance adapts it to a fhallow foil, in which, if left in its natural ftate, it would not grow. This tranfplanting is attended with many advantages. The land may be prepared in fummer for receiving the plants from the nurfery in autumn; by which means the field muft be in a much better fituation than if the feed had been fown upon it in the fpring. By tranfplanting, the rows can be made more regular, and the intended diftances more exactly obferved; and confequently the hoeing can be performed more perfectly, and with lefs expence. Mr Chateauvieux likewife tried the lucerne in fingle beds 3 feet wide, with fingle rows in beds 3 feet 9 inches wide, with double rows and in beds 4 feet 3 inches wide, with triple rows. The plants in the fingle rows were fix inches afunder, and thofe in the double and triple rows were about 8 or 9 inches. In a courfe of 3 years he found, that a fingle row produced more than a triple row of the fame length. The plants of lucerne, when cultivated by tranfplantation, fhould be at leaft fix inches afunder, to allow them room for extending their crowns.

He further obferves, that the beds or ridges ought to be raifed in the middle; that a fmall trench, 2 or 3 inches deep, fhould be drawn in the middle; and that the plants ought to be placed in this trench, covered with earth up to the crown. He fays, that if the lucerne be fown in fpring, and in a warm, foil, it will be ready for tranfplanting in September; that, if the weather be hot and dry, the tranfplanting fhould be delayed till October; and that, if the weather be favourable during both thefe months, this operation muft be delayed till fpring. He further obferves, that the plants fhould be carefully taken up in the nurfery, fo as not to damage the roots; that the roots be left only about 6 or 7 inches long; that the green crops be cut off within about 2 inches of the crown; that they be put into water as foon as taken up, and remain till they are tranfplanted; and that they fhould be planted with a dibbing-ftick, in the fame manner as cabbages. He does not give particular directions as to the method of horfe-hoeing; but only fays in general, that the intervals fhould be ftirred once in the month during the whole time that the lucerne is in a growing ftate. He likewife obferves, that great care ought to be taken not to fuffer any weeds to grow among the plants, at leaft for the firft 2 or 3 years; and for this purpofe, that the intervals as well as the edges of the intervals where the hoe cannot go, fhould be weeded by the hand.

BURNET is peculiarly adapted to poor land. It proves an excellent winter paſture when almoſt any thing elſe vegetates. It makes good hay; it never ſwells cattle; it is fine paſture for ſheep, and will flourish well on poor, light, ſandy, ſtony ſoils, or even on dry chalk hills. The cultivation of it is neither hazardous nor expenſive. If the land is prepared as is generally done for turnips, there is no danger of its failing. Even the firſt year, it will be attended with very little expence, as the flat circular ſpread of its leaves will keep down, or prevent the growth of, moſt weeds. On the failure of turnips, either from the fly or the black worm, ſome of our farmers have ſown the land with burnet, and in March following had a fine paſture for their ſheep and lambs. It will perfect its ſeed twice in a ſummer; and the hay is ſaid to be as good as oats for horſes; but it is too valuable to be applied to that uſe. It is ſometimes ſown late in the ſpring with oats and barley, and ſucceeds very well; but it is beſt to ſow it ſingly in the beginning of July, when there is a proſpect of rain, on a ſmall piece of land,

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October following transplant it in rows two feet ut, and about a foot distant in the rows. This a proper distance, and gives opportunity for ing the intervals in the succeeding spring and mer. After it is eaten down by cattle, it uld be harrowed clean. Some horses will not t it freely at first, but in 2 or 3 days they are erally very fond of it. It affords rich pleat milk, and in great plenty. The severest frost er injures it, and the oftener it is fed upon, the ker are its leaves, which spring constantly from root.

SECT. V. *Of the* ROTATION *of* CROPS.

o branch of husbandry requires more skill sagacity than a proper rotation of crops, so as keep the ground always in heart, and yet to out of it the greatest profit possible. Some nts rob the soil, others are gentle to it: some d, others loosen. The nice point is, to intercrops, so as to make the greatest profit conntly with keeping the ground in trim. In that , the nature of the plants employed in husdry must be accurately examined.

he difference between culmiferous and leguous plants, is mentioned in *Sect.* III. With ct to the present subject, a closer inspection cessary. Culmiferous plants, having small nd few in number, depend mostly on the r nourishment, and little on the air. During pening of the seed, they draw their nourishnt from the soil; as the leaves by this time, bedry and withered, must have lost their power wing nourishment from the air. Culmifer plants are chiefly cultivated for their seed, are not cut down till the seed be fully ripe. such plants, while young, are all leaves; and hat state draw most of their nourishment from air. And the foggage, excluding the frost by ering the ground, keeps the roots warm. A minous plant, by its broad leaves, draws h of its nourishment from the air. A cab, which has very broad leaves, and a multi of them, owes its growth more to the air to the soil. A cabbage cut and hung up in a place, preserves its verdure longer than oplants. A seed is that part of a plant which ers the most nourishment; and for that nourment a culmiferous plant must be indebted enly to the soil. A leguminous crop, on the trary, when cut green for food, must be very tle to the ground. Pease and beans are leguous plants; but being cultivated for seed, they n to occupy a middle station: their seed makes m more severe than other leguminous crops cut en; their leaves, which grow till reaping, make n less severe than a culmiferous plant left to en.

hese plants are distinguished no less remarkby the following circumstance. All the seeds of lmiferous plant ripen at the same time. When y begin to form, the plant becomes stationary, leaves wither, the roots cease to push, and plant when cut down is blanched and sap-less. e seeds of a leguminous plant are formed successly: flowers and fruit appear at the same time different parts of the plant. This plant accordly is continually growing, and pushing its roots. Hence the value of bean or pease straw above that of wheat or oats: the latter is withered and dry when the crop is cut; the former, green and succulent. The difference therefore, with respect to the soil, between a culmiferous and leguminous crop, is great. The latter, growing till cut down, keeps the ground in constant motion, and leaves it to the plough loose and mellow. The former gives over growing long before reaping; and the ground, by want of motion, turns compact and hard. Nor is this all. Dew falling on a culmiferous crop after the ground begins to harden, rests on the surface, and is sucked up by the next sun. Dew that falls on a leguminous crop, is shaded from the sun by the broad leaves, and sinks at leisure into the ground. The ground accordingly, after a culmiferous crop, is not only hard, but dry: after a leguminous crop, it is not only loose, but soft and unctuous.

Of all culmiferous plants, wheat is the most severe, by the long time it occupies the ground without admitting a plough. And as the grain is heavier than that of barley or oats, it probably requires more nourishment. Culmiferous crops are not *robbers* when cut green: the soil, far from hardening, is kept in constant motion by the pushing of the roots, and is left more tender than it if had been left at rest without any bearing crop. Bulbous-rooted plants are peculiarly useful in dividing and pulverizing the soil. Potatoe roots grow 6, 8, or 10 inches under the surface; and, by their size and number, they divide and pulverize the soil better than the plough; consequently, whatever be the natural colour of the soil, it is black when a potato-crop is taken up. The potato, however, with respect to its quality of dividing the soil, must yield to a carrot or parsnip; which are large roots, and pierce often to the depth of 18 inches. The turnip, by its tap-root, divides the soil more than can be done by a fibrous-rooted plant; but as its bulbous root grows mostly above ground, it divides the soil less than the potato, the carrot, or the parsnip. Red clover, in that respect, may be put in the same class with turnips.

Whether potatoes or turnips be the more gentle crop, is a puzzling question. The former bears seeds, and probably draws more nourishment from the soil; potatoes divide the soil more than turnips, and leave it more loose and friable. It appears no less puzzling, to determine between cabbage and turnip: the former draws more of its nourishment from the air, the latter leaves the soil more free and open. The result of the whole is that Culmiferous plants are *robbers*; some more, some less: they at the same time bind the soil; some more, some less. Leguminous plants in both respects are opposite: if any of them rob the soil, it is in a very slight degree; and all of them without exception loosen the soil. A culmiferous crop, however, is generally the more profitable: but few soils can long bear the burden of such crops, unless relieved by interjected leguminous crops. These, on the other hand, without a mixture of culmiferous crops, would soon render the soil too loose.

These preliminaries will carry the farmer some length in directing a proper rotation of crops. Where dung, lime, or other manure, can be pro-

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cured in plenty to recruit after ſevere cropping, no rotation is more proper or profitable in a ſtrong ſoil than wheat, peaſe or beans, barley, oats, fallow. The whole farm may be brought under this rotation, except ſo far as hay is wanted. But as ſuch command of manure is rare, it is of more importance to determine what ſhould be the rotation when no manure can be procured but the dung collected in the farm. Conſidering that culmiferous crops are the more profitable in rich land, it would be proper to make them more frequent than the other kind. But as there are few ſoils in Scotland that will admit ſuch frequent culmiferous crops without ſuffering, it may be laid down as a general rule, that alternate crops, culmiferous and leguminous ought to form the rotation. Nor are there many ſoils that will ſtand good, even with this favourable rotation, unleſs relieved from time to time by paſturing a few years. If ſuch extended rotation be artfully carried on, crops without end may be obtained in a tolerable good ſoil, without any manure but what is produced in the farm. Clay anſwers beſt for wheat, moiſt clay for beans, loam for barley and peaſe, light ſoil for turnip, ſandy ſoil for rye and buck-wheat; and oats thrive better in coarſe ſoil than any other grain. Now, in directing a rotation, it is not ſufficient that a culmiferous crop be always ſucceeded by a leguminous: attention muſt alſo be given, that no crop be introduced that is unfit for the ſoil. Wheat, being a great binder, requires more than any other crop a leguminous crop to follow. But every ſuch crop is not proper: potatoes are the greateſt openers of ſoil; but they are improper in a wheat ſoil. Neither will turnips anſwer, becauſe they require a light ſoil. A very looſe ſoil, after a crop of rye, requires rye-graſs to bind it, or the treading of cattle in paſturing: but to bind the ſoil, wheat muſt not be ventured; for it ſucceeds ill in looſe ſoil.

Another conſideration of moment in directing the rotation, is to avoid crops that encourage weeds. Peaſe is the fitteſt of all crops for ſucceeding to wheat, becauſe it renders the ground looſe and mellow, and the ſame ſoil agrees with both. But peaſe are improper, unleſs the ſoil be left by the wheat perfectly free of weeds; becauſe peaſe, if not an extraordinary crop, foſter weeds. Barley may be ventured after wheat, if the farmer be unwilling to loſe a crop. It is indeed a robber; better, however, any crop, than run the hazard of poiſoning the ſoil with weeds. But to prevent the neceſſity of barley after wheat, the land ought to be fallowed before the wheat: it cleans the ground thoroughly, and makes peaſe a ſecure crop after wheat. And after a good crop of peaſe, barley never fails. A horſe-hoed crop of turnips is equal to fallow for rooting out weeds; but turnips do not ſuit land that is proper for wheat. Cabbage does well in wheat ſoil; and a horſe hoed crop of cabbage, which eradicates weeds, is a good preparation for wheat to be ſucceeded by peaſe; and a crop of beans diligently hoed-hoed, is in that view little inferior. As red clover requires the ground to be perfectly clean, a good crop of it enſures wheat and next peaſe. In loam, a drilled crop of turnips or potatoes prepares the ground, equal to a fallow, in the ſame ſucceſſion.

Another rule is, to avoid a frequent repetition of the ſame ſpecies; for to produce good crops, change of ſpecies is no leſs neceſſary than change of feed. The ſame ſpecies returning every 2d or 3d year, will infallibly degenerate, and be a ſickly crop. This is remarkably the caſe of red clover. Nor will our fields bear pleaſantly perpetual crops of wheat after fallow, which is the practice of ſome Engliſh farmers. Hitherto we have treated of rotation in the ſame field; which is to avoid crowding crops one after another in point of time; but to chooſe ſuch as admit interſufficient for leiſurely dreſſing, which gives opportunity to manage all with the ſame hands with the ſame cattle; e. g. beans in January, February, peaſe and oats in March, barley potatoes in April, turnips in June or July, wheat and rye in October.

For illuſtrating the foregoing rules, a few inſtances of *exceptionable rotations* may be uſeful. The following is an uſual rotation in Norfolk. Firſt, wheat after red clover; 2. barley; 3. turnips; 4. barley with red clover; 5. clover for hay; 6. a 2d year's crop of clover cropped. Dung is given to the wheat and turnips.—Againſt this rotation ſeveral objections. Barley after wheat is improper. The two crops of barley are too near together. The 2d crop of clover muſt be very bad, if paſturing be the only way of conſuming it. But the ſtrongeſt objection is, that red clover repeated ſo frequently in the ſame field cannot fail to degenerate; and of this the Norfolk farmers begin to be ſenſible. Similar inſtances of exceptionable rotations might be given from many places in Scotland; and in the Tours of Young, the itinerant farmer, are found in the beſt counties of England, examples without end, of rotations no leſs exceptionable than the above.

Where a field is laid down for paſture to be recruited, it is commonly left in that ſtate many years; for it is the univerſal opinion, the longer it lies, the richer it becomes for the corn. This may be true; but to determine the mode of cropping, the important point is, upon the whole is the moſt profitable rotation not what may produce luxuriant crops at a diſtant period. It is clear, that the farmer who keeps a field of paſture beyond a certain time loſes every year conſiderably; and that a few luxuriant crops of corn, after 20 years of paſture, or more after 30, will not make up the loſs.

Paſture graſs, while young, maintains many animals; and the field is greatly recruited by what they drop; it is even recruited by hay crops, provided the graſs be cut before ſeeding. But when graſs yields little profit, the field ought to be taken up for corn when the paſture begins to fail; and after a few crops, it ought to be laid down again with graſs ſeeds. Seduced by a chimerical notion that a field, by frequent corn-crops, is fatigued and requires reſt like a labouring man or animal, careful farmers give long reſt to their fields by paſture, never adverting that it affords little profit. It ought to be their ſtudy, to improve their ſoil, by making it free, and alſo [illegible] tenture

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ative of moisture. If they accomplish these ds, they need not be afraid of exhausting the soil cropping.

Where a farmer has access to no manure but at is his own production, the sale under con- ration, there are various rotations of crops, of them good though perhaps not equally so. shall begin with two examples, one in clay one in free soil, each of the farms 90 acres. acres are to be inclosed for a kitchen garden, hich there must be annually a crop of red , for summer food to the working cattle. ere are annually 12 acres in hay, and 12 in e, a single plough with good cattle will be ent to command the remaining 60 acres.

ROTATION *in a* CLAY SOIL

ds	1806	1807	1808	1809	1810
allow	Wheat	Peafe	Barley	Hay	Oats
Wheat	Peafe	Barley	Hay	Oats	Fallow
afe	Barley	Hay	Oats	Fallow	Wheat
rley	Hay	Oats	Fallow	Wheat	Peafe
ay	Oats	Fallow	Wheat	Peafe	Barley
ats	Fallow	Wheat	Peafe	Barley	Hay
ture	Pafture	Pafture	Pafture	Pafture	Pafture

en the rotation is completed, the 7th inclo- ng been fix years in pafture, is ready to up for a rotation of crops which begins in year 1811, and proceeds as in the ofure. In the fame year 1811, the fifth e is made pafture, for which it is prepared e pafture-grafs feeds with the barley of 1810. And in this manner may the ro- be carried on without end. Here the la- is equally diftributed; and there is no hurry fufion. But the chief property of this ro- is, that two culmiferous or white corn are never found together; by a due mixture ps, the foil is preferved in good heart with- adventitious manure. At the fame time, d is always producing plentiful crops; nei- nor pafture get time to degenerate. The ung is laid upon the fallow.

farm that takes a grafs crop into the ro- ft be inclofed, which is peculiarly necef- clay foil, as nothing is more hurtful to poaching.

ROTATION *in a* FREE SOIL.

ds	1806	1807	1808	1809	1810
rnip	Barley	Hay	Oats	Fallow	Wheat
ley	Hay	Oats	Fallow	Wheat	Turnip
y	Oats	Fallow	Wheat	Turnip	Barley
is	Fallow	Wheat	Turnip	Barley	Hay
low	Wheat	Turnip	Barley	Hay	Oats
eat	Turnip	Barley	Hay	Oats	Fallow
ture	Pafture	Pafture	Pafture	Pafture	Pafture

the next rotation, the 7th inclofure is taken r corn, beginning with an oat-crop, and ding in the order of the fourth inclofure; in of which, the third inclofure is laid down ture by fowing pafture-graffes with the laft n that inclofure, being barley. This rota- as all the advantages of the former. Here ng is employed on the turnip-crop.

proceed to conſider what rotation is proper ſe clay. The farm we propoſe conſiſts of es. Nine are to be incloſed for a kitchen garden, affording plenty of red clover to be cut green for the farm cattle. The remaining 64 acres are divided into 4 incloſures, 16 acres each, to be cropped as in the following table.

Incl.	1805.	1806.	1807.	1808.
1.	Beans.	Barley.	Hay.	Oats.
2.	Barley.	Hay.	Oats.	Beans.
3.	Hay.	Oats.	Beans.	Barley.
4.	Oats.	Beans.	Barley.	Hay.

Here the dung ought to be applied to the barley. Many other rotations may be contrived, keeping to the rules above laid down. Fallow, for example, wheat, peaſe and beans, barley, cabbage, oats, for clay. Here dung muſt be given both to the wheat and cabbage. For free ſoil, drilled turnip, barley, read clover, wheat upon a ſingle furrow, drilled potatoes, oats. Both the turnips and potatoes muſt have dung. The following rotation has proved ſucceſsful in a ſoil proper for wheat. 1. Oats with red clover, after fallow without dung. 2. Hay. The clover ſtubble dunged, and wheat ſown the end of October with a ſingle furrow. 3. Wheat. 4. Peaſe. 5. Barley. Fallow again. Oats are taken the firſt crop, to ſave the dung for the wheat. Oats always thrive on a fallow, though without dung, which is not the caſe of barley. But barley ſeldom fails after peaſe. In ſtrong clay ſoil, the following rotation anſwers. 1. Wheat after fallow and dung. 2. Beans ſown under furrow as early as poſſible. Above the beans, ſow peaſe in the end of March, half a boll per acre, and harrow them in. The two grains will ripen at the ſame time. 3. Oats or barley on a winter furrow with graſs ſeeds. 4. Hay for one year or two; the ad growth paſtured. Lay what dung can be ſpared on the hay ſtubble, and ſow wheat with a ſingle furrow. 5. Wheat. 6. Beans or peaſe. 7. Oats. Fallow again.

SECT. VI. *Of* REAPING CROPS *of* CORN *and* HAY, *and* STORING *them up for* USE.

CULMIFEROUS plants are ripe when the ſtem is totally white: they are not fully ripe if any green ſtreaks remain. Some are of opinion, that wheat ought to be cut before it is fully ripe; becauſe ripe wheat is apt to ſhake; and the flour is not ſo good. With reſpect to the laſt, it is contrary to nature, that any ſeed can be better in an unripe ſtate than when in perfection; nor will it be found ſo upon trial. With reſpect to the firſt, wheat, at the point of perfection, is not more apt to ſhake than for ſome days before: the huſk begins not to open till after the ſeed is fully ripe; and then the ſuffering the crop to ſtand becomes tickliſh: after the minute of ripening, it ſhould be cut down inſtantly.

As to the hands that are commonly engaged to cut down corn, in Scotland, the univerſal practice was, to provide a number of hands, in proportion to the extent of the crop, without regard to the time of ripening. By this method, the reapers were often idle for want of work; or what was worſe, they had often more work than they could overtake, and ripe fields were laid open to ſhaking winds. The Lothians have long

enjoyed weekly markets for reapers, where a farmer can provide himself with the number he wants; and this practice is gaining ground in the neighbouring counties. Where there is no opportunity of such markets, neighbouring farmers ought to agree in borrowing and lending their reapers.

One should imagine, that a caution against cutting corn when wet is unnecessary; yet from the impatience of farmers to prevent shaking, no caveat is more so. Corn standing, dries in half a day; whereas, in a close sheaf, the weather must be favourable if it dry in a month; in moist weather it will never dry. As to the manner of cutting, barley is the most difficult grain to be dried for keeping. Having no husk, rain has an easy access; and it has a tendency to malten when wet. Where the ground is properly smoothed by rolling, it seems best to cut it down with the scythe. This being more expeditious than the sickle, removes it sooner from danger of wind; and gives a third more straw, which is a capital article for dung, where a farm is at a distance from other manure. We except only corn that has lodged; for there the sickle is more convenient than the scythe. As it ought to be dry when cut, bind it up directly: if allowed to lie any time in the swath, it is apt to be discoloured.—Barley sown with grass seeds, red clover especially, requires a different management. Where the grass is cut along with it, the difficulty is great of getting it so dry as to be ventured in a stack. The best way is, to cut the barley with a sickle above the clover, so as that nothing but clean barley is bound up. Cut with a scythe the stubble and grass; they make excellent winter food. The same method is applicable to oats; with this only difference; that when the field is exposed to the SW. wind, it is less necessary to bind immediately after mowing. As wheat commonly grows higher than any other grain, it is difficult to manage it with the scythe; for which reason the sickle is preferred in England.

Pease and beans grow so irregularly, as to make the sickle necessary. The best way for drying pease, is to keep separate the handfuls that are cut; though in this way they wet easily, they dry as soon. In the common way of heaping pease together for composing a sheaf, they wet as easily, and dry not near so soon. With respect to beans, the top of the handful last cut ought to be laid on the bottom of the former; which gives ready access to the wind. By this method pease and beans are ready for the stack in half the ordinary time.

A SHEAF is commonly made as large as can be contained in two lengths of the corn made into a rope. To save frequent tying, the binder presses it down with his knee, and binds it so hard as totally to exclude the air. If there be any moisture in the crop, which seldom fails, a process of fermentation and putrefaction commences in the sheaf; which is perfected in the stack, to the destruction of both corn and straw. How stupid is it, to make the size of a sheaf depend on the height of the plants! By what rule, a wheat sheaf is commonly so weighty, as to be unmanageable by ordinary arms: it requires an effort to make it, that frequently bursts the knot, and occasions loss of grain, beside the trouble of a second binding. Sheaves ought never to be larger than can be contained in one length of the plant, cut close to the ground; without admitting any exception if the plants be above 18 inches high. The binder's arm can then compress the sheaf sufficiently without need of his knee. The additional hand that this way of binding may require, are not to be regarded compared with the advantage of drying soon. Corn thus managed may be ready for the stack in a week; it seldom in the ordinary way requires less than a fortnight, and frequently longer. Of a small sheaf compressed by the hand only, the air pervades every part; nor is it easy to be unlooſed as a large sheaf, however firmly bound. As to the gathering of sheaves into shocks, the common method is good, which is to place the shocks directed to the SW. to resist the force of the wind. Five sheaves on each side make a sufficient stay; and a greater number cannot be covered with two head sheaves.

Every article is of importance that hasten the operation in a country, like Scotland, subject to unequal harveſt weather; for which reason the most expeditious method should be studied for carrying corn from the field to the stack. Our carriages are generally too small or too low. A sledge is a very awkward machine: many journies are required, and little progress made. Wheels and large carts are little less dilatory, as they must stand in the yard till unloaded sheaf by sheaf. The best way is, to use long carts moveable upon the axle, so as at once to throw the whole load on the ground; which is forked up to the stack by a hand appointed for that purpose. By this method, two carts will do the work of 4 or 5.

Building round stacks in the yard is undoubtedly preferable to housing corn. There the air from the air; and it must be exceeded if it contract not a mustiness, which is a step to putrefaction. In the yard, a stack is preserved from rats and mice by being set on a pedestal; whereas no method has hitherto been invented for preserving corn in a house from vermin. The proper manner of building, is to make every sheaf incline downward from the top to its bottom. Where the sheaves are laid horizontally, the stack will take in rain both above and below. The best form of a stack is that of a cone placed on a cylinder; and the top of the cone should be formed with three sheaves meeting to a point. If the upper part of the cylinder be a little wider than the under, so much the better.

The delaying to cover a stack for 2 or 3 weeks, though common, is exceedingly absurd; for how much rain fall in the interim, it is beyond the power of wind to dry the stack. Vegetation begun in the external parts, shuts out the air from the internal; and to prevent a total putrefaction the stack must be thrown down and exposed to the air every sheaf. To have a stack covered the moment it is finished, straw and ropes ought to be ready; and the covering ought to be so made as to be proof against rain.

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Scotland is ſubject not only to floods of rain, t to high winds. Good covering guards againſt former, and ropes, artfully applied, againſt latter. The following is a good mode. Take ay rope well twiſted, and ſurround the ſtack h it, two feet or ſo below the top. Surround ſtack with another ſuch rope immediately be- the eaſing. Connect theſe two with ropes in up-and-down poſition, diſtant from each other the eaſing about 5 or 6 feet. Then ſurround ſtack with other circular ropes parallel to the firſt mentioned, giving them a twiſt round e- one of thoſe that lie up and down, by which whole will be connected together in a ſort of work. What remains is, to finiſh the two feet the top of the ſtack. Let it be covered with ches of ſtraw laid regularly up and down; under part to be put under the circular rope mentioned, which will keep it faſt, and the per part bound by a ſmall rope artfully twiſted, monly called *the crown of the ſtack*. This me- is preferable to the common way of laying ropes over the top of the ſtack, and tying to the belting rope; which flattens the top, makes it take in rain. A ſtack covered in the here deſcribed, will ſtand two years ſecure againſt wind and rain; a notable advantage variable climate.

great aim in making hay is, to preſerve as of the ſap as poſſible. All agree in this; yet differ widely in the means of making that effectual. To deſcribe all the different means would be equally tedious and unprofitable. We ll mention two, which appear preferable to all ers. A crop of rye graſs and yellow clover ght to be ſpread as cut. A day or two after, the dew is evaporated, rake it into a num- of parallel rows along the field, termed *wind ws*, for the convenience of putting it up into all cocks. After turning the rows once and a- in, make ſmall cocks weighing a ſtone or two. the diſtance of two days or ſo, put two cocks in one, obſerving always to mix the tops and roots together, and to take a new place for the cock, that the leaſt damage poſſible may be done to the graſs. Proceed in putting two cocks together, till ſufficiently dry for tramp ricks of a ſtone each. The eaſieſt way of erecting tramp ks, is to ſound a rick in the middle of the row cocks that are to compoſe it. The cocks may carried to the rick by two perſons joining arms gether. When all the cocks are thus carried to e rick within the diſtance of 40 yards or ſo, the ft of the cocks will be more expeditiouſly carri- to the rick, by a rope wound about them and ged by a horſe. Two ropes are ſufficient to cure the ricks from wind the ſhort time they e to ſtand in the field. In 1775, 10,000 ſtone ere put into tramp ricks the fourth day after tting. In a country ſo wet as many parts of cotland are, expedition is of great conſequence the drying both of hay and corn.

The making hay conſiſting chiefly of red clo- er, requires more care. The ſeaſon of cutting the laſt week of June, when it is in full bloom: arlier it may be cut, but never later. To cut it ter would indeed produce a weightier crop; t a late firſt cutting makes the 2d alſo late, per- haps too late for drying. The want of weight in an early firſt cutting, is amply compenſated by the weight of the 2d. When the ſeaſon is too variable for making hay of the 2d growth, mix ſtraw with that growth, which will be a ſubſtantial food for cattle during winter. This is commonly done by laying ſtrata of the ſtraw and clover alternately in the ſtack. But by this method, the ſtrata of clover, if they do not heat, turn mouldy at leaſt, and unpalatable. The better way is, to mix them carefully with the hand before they be put into the ſtack. The dry ſtraw imbibes moiſture from the clover, and prevents heating.

But the beſt method of hay making ſeems to be that recommended by Dr Anderſon in his *Eſſays on Agriculture*, Vol. I. p. 186. "Inſtead," ſays he, "of allowing the hay to lie, as uſual in moſt places, for ſome days in the ſwathe after it is cut, and afterwards alternately putting it up into cocks, and ſpreading it out, and tedding it in the ſun, which tends greatly to bleach the hay, exhales its natural juices, and ſubjects it very much to the danger of getting rain, and thus runs a great riſk of being good for little, I make it a general rule, if poſſible, never to cut hay but when the graſs is quite dry; and then make the gatherers follow cloſe upon the cutters,—putting it up immediately into ſmall cocks about 3 feet high each when new put up, and of as ſmall a diameter as they can be made to ſtand with; always giving each of them a ſlight kind of thatching, by drawing a few handfuls of the hay from the bottom of the cock all around, and laying it lightly upon the top with one of the ends hanging downwards. This is done with the utmoſt eaſe and expedition; and when it is once in that ſtate, I conſider my hay as in a great meaſure out of danger: for unleſs a violent wind ſhould ariſe immediately after the cocks are put up, ſo as to overturn them, nothing elſe can hurt the hay; as I have often experienced, that no rain, however violent, ever penetrates into theſe cocks but for a very little way. And, if they are dry put up, they never ſit together ſo cloſely as to heat; although they acquire, in a day or two, ſuch a degree of firmneſs, as to be in no danger of being overturned by wind after that time, unleſs it blows a hurricane. In theſe cocks I allow the hay to remain, until, upon inſpection, I judge that it will keep in pretty large tramp cocks, which is uſually in one or two weeks, according as the weather is more or leſs favourable, when two men, each with a long pronged pitchfork, lift up one of theſe ſmall cocks between them with the greateſt eaſe, and carry them one after another to the place where the tramp cock is to be built; and in this manner they proceed over the field till the whole is finiſhed.

"The advantages that attend this method of making hay, are, That it greatly abridges the labour; as it does not require above the one half of the work that is neceſſary in the old method of turning and tedding it: That it allows the hay to continue almoſt as green as when it is cut, and preſerves its natural juices in the greateſt perfection; for, unleſs it be the little that is expoſed to the ſun and air upon the ſurface of the cocks, which

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which is no more bleached than every ſtraw of hay ſaved in the ordinary way, the whole is dried in the moſt ſlow and equal manner that could be deſired; and, laſtly, That it is thus in a great meaſure ſecured from almoſt the poſſibility of being damaged by rain. This laſt circumſtance deſerves to be much more attended to by the farmer than it uſually is at preſent; as I have ſeen few who are ſufficiently aware of the loſs that the quality of their hay ſuſtains by receiving a ſlight ſhower after it is cut, and before it is gathered; the generality of farmers ſeeming to be very well ſatisfied if they get in their hay without being abſolutely rotted; never paying the leaſt attention to its having been ſeveral times wetted while the hay was making. But, if theſe gentlemen will take the trouble at any time to compare any parcel of hay that has been made perfectly dry, with another parcel from the ſame field that has received a ſhower while in the ſwathe, or even a copious dew, they will ſoon be ſenſible of a very manifeſt difference between them; nor will their horſes or cattle ever commit a miſtake in chooſing between the two.

"Let it be particularly remarked, that in this manner of making hay, great care muſt be taken that it be dry when firſt put into the cocks; for, if it is in the leaſt degree wet at that time, it will turn inſtantly mouldy, and ſit together ſo as to become totally impervious to the air, and will never afterwards become dry till it is ſpread out to the ſun. For this reaſon, if at any time during a courſe of good ſettled weather you ſhould begin to cut in the morning before the dew is off the graſs, keep back the gatherers till the dew is evaporated; allowing that which was firſt cut to lie till it is dry before it is cocked. In this caſe, you will almoſt always find that the uncut graſs will dry ſooner than that which has been cut when wet; and, therefore, the gatherers may always begin to put up that which is freſh cut before the other; which will uſually require two or three hours to dry after the new cut hay may be cocked. And if, at any time, in caſe of neceſſity, you ſhould be obliged to cut your hay before it is dry, the ſame rule muſt be obſerved, always to allow it to remain in the ſwathe till it is quite dry: but, as there is always a great riſk of being long in getting it up, and as it never in this caſe *wins* (or dries) ſo kindly as if it had been dry cut, the farmer ought to endeavour, if poſſible, in all caſes, to cut his hay only when dry, even if it ſhould coſt him ſome additional expence to the cutters, by keeping them employed at any other work, or even allowing them to remain idle, if the weather ſhould be variable or rainy.

"But if there is a great proportion of clover, and the weather ſhould be cloſe and calm at the time, it may, on ſome occaſions, be neceſſary to open up theſe cocks a little, to admit ſome freſh air into them; in which caſe, after they have ſtood a day or two, it may be of great uſe to turn theſe cocks and open them up a little, which ought to be done in the drieſt time of the day; the operator taking that part of each cock which was the top, and with it forming the baſe of a new one; ſo that the part which was moſt expoſed to the air becomes excluded from it, and that which was undermoſt comes to be placed upon the top, ſo as to make it all dry as equally as poſſible. If the hay has not been damp when it was firſt put up, the cock may be immediately firſted out at once; but if it is at all wet, it will be of great uſe to turn over only a little of the top of the cock at firſt, and leaving it in that ſtate to dry a little, proceed to another, and a third, and fourth, &c. treating each in the ſame way; going on in that manner till you find that the inſide of the firſt opened cock is ſufficiently dried, when it will be proper to return to it, turning over a little more of it till you come to what is ſtill damp, when you leave it and proceed to another, and ſo on round the whole; always returning freſh till the cocks are entirely finiſhed. This is the beſt way of ſaving your hay, if you have been under the neceſſity of cutting it while damp; but it is always beſt to guard againſt this inconvenience, if poſſible."

In the yard, a ſtack of hay ought to be an oblong ſquare, if the quantity be greater than to be eaſily ſtowed in a round ſtack; becauſe a ſmaller ſurface is expoſed to the air, than in a number of round ſtacks. For the ſame reaſon, a ſtack of peaſe ought to have the ſame form, the ſtraw being more valuable than that of oats, wheat, or barley. The moment a ſtack is finiſhed, it ought to be covered; becauſe the ſurface hay is much damaged by withering in dry weather, and moiſtening in wet weather. Let it have a parallel roof; for more of it can be covered with ſtraw that ſhape, than when built perpendicular at the ends. Let it be roped as directed above for corn ſtacks; with this difference only, that in an oblong ſquare the ropes muſt be thrown over the top, and tied to the belt rope below. This belt rope ought to be fixed with pins to the ſtack; the reaſon is, that the ropes thrown over the ſtack will bag by the ſinking of the ſtack, and may be drawn tight by lowering the belt rope and fixing it in its new poſition with the pins. The ſtems of hops, being long and tough, make excellent ropes; and it will be a ſaving article, to propagate a few plants of that kind for that very end. A ſtack of rye graſs hay, a year old, and of a moderate ſize, will weigh, each cubic yard, 11 Dutch ſtone. A ſtack of clover hay in the ſame circumſtances weighs ſomewhat leſs.

SECT. VII. *Of* MANURES.

THE manures commonly uſed are dung, lime, ſhell marl, clay marl, and ſtone marl. Many other ſubſtances are uſed; ſhavings of horn, for example, refuſe of malt, and even old rags: but as the quantity that can be procured is inconſiderable, and as their application is ſimple, we ſhall not enlarge upon them.

Dung is the chief of all manures; becauſe a quantity of it may be collected in every farm, and becauſe it makes the quickeſt return. A field ſufficiently dunged will produce good crops 4 or 5 years. Dung of animals that chew the cud, being more thoroughly putrefied than that of others, is fit to be mixed with the ſoil without needing to be collected into a dunghill. A horſe does not chew the cud; and in horſe dung many

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e perceived ſtraw or rye graſs broken into ſmall
ars, but not diſſolved: it is proper therefore
at the putrefaction be completed in a dunghill.
ought to be mixed there with cool materials:
hot it is, that, in a dunghill by itſelf, it ſinges
d burns inſtead of putrefying. The difference
tween the dung of a horſe and of a horned ani-
al, is viſible in a paſture field; the graſs round
e former is withered; round the latter, it is
ker and more verdant than in the reſt of the
ld. A mixture of dry and moiſt ſtuff ought to
ſtudied: the former attracting moiſture from
latter, they become equally moiſt.
To prevent ſap from running out of a dunghill,
ituation ſhould be a little below the ſurface;
to prevent rain from running into it, it ſhould
ſurrounded with a ring of ſod. If the ſoil on
ich the dunghill ſtands be porous, let it be
ed, to prevent the ſap from ſinking into the
ound. If moiſture happen to ſuperabound, it
y be led off by a ſmall gutter to impregnate a
ntity of rich mould laid down to receive it,
ch will make it equal to good dung. Straw
uld be prepared for the dunghill, by being laid
er cattle, and ſufficiently moiſtened. When
dry into a dunghill, it keeps it open, admits
uch air, and prevents putrefaction. Dung
the ſtable ought to be carefully ſpread on
unghill, and mixed with the former dung.
left in heaps upon the dunghill, fermenta-
and putrefaction go on unequally. Com-
putrefaction is of importance with regard
e ſeed of weeds that are in the dunghill: if
remain ſound, they are carried out with the
, and infect the ground. Complete putre-
ion is of ſtill greater importance by pulveriz-
the dung; in which condition it mixes intir
ly with the ſoil, and operates moſt power-
. In land intended for barley, undigeſted
has a very bad effect: it keeps the ground
, admits drought, and prevents the ſeed
ſpringing. On the other hand, when tho-
ly rotted, it mixes with the ſoil, and ena-
it to retain moiſture. It follows, that the
reſt time for dunging a field, is in its higheſt
ization; at which time the earth mixes in-
y with the dung. Immediately before ſet-
cabbage, ſowing turnips, or wheat, is a good
. Dung divides and ſpreads the moſt accu-
y when moiſt. Its intimate mixture with the
is of ſuch importance, that hands ſhould be
loyed to divide and ſpread any lumps that
be in it. Dung ſhould be ſpread, and plow-
to the ground without delay. When a heap
2 or 3 weeks, ſome of the moiſture is imbib-
to the ground, which will produce tufts of
more vigorous than in the reſt of the field.
re cannot be a worſe practice than to lead
dung before winter, leaving it expoſed to
and ſnow. The whole ſpirit of the dung is
fted by rain, and carried off with it. The
t diveſted of its ſap becomes dry in ſpring,
incapable of being mixed with the mould. It
rned over whole by the plough, and buried
e furrow.
dung is of great importance in huſbandry,
ner cannot be too aſſiduous in collecting a-
l and vegetable ſubſtances that will rot. One article of that kind there is, to collect which there is a double motive, and yet is neglected almoſt every where. A farm full of weeds is a nuiſance to the neighbourhood: it poiſons the fields around; and the poſſeſſor ought to be diſgraced. The cutting down every weed before the ſeed is formed, anſwers two excellent purpoſes: it encourages good crops, by keeping the ground clean; and theſe weeds, mixed with other materials in a dunghill, add conſiderably to the quantity of dung.

LIME is a profitable manure, and greatly ſo when it can be got in plenty within a moderate diſtance. The benefit of lime is ſo viſible, that the uſe of it has become general where the price and carriage are in any degree moderate. All agree, that the operation of lime depends on its intimate mixture with the ſoil; and therefore that the proper time for applying it, is when it is perfectly powdered, and the ſoil in the higheſt degree of pulverization. Lime of itſelf is abſolutely barren; and yet it enriches a barren ſoil. Neither of the two produces any good effect without the other; and conſequently, the more intimately they are mixed, the effect muſt be the greater. Hence lime ought always to be ſlaked with a proper quantity of water, becauſe it is thereby reduced the moſt effectually into powder. Lime left to be ſlaked by a moiſt air, or accidental rain, is ſeldom or never thoroughly reduced into powder and therefore can never be intimately mixed with the ſoil. Sometimes ſhell lime is brought home before the ground is ready for it, and thrown into a heap without cover, truſting to rain for ſlaking. The proper way is, to lay the ſhell lime in different heaps on the ground where it is to be ſpread, to reduce theſe heaps into powder by ſlaking with water, and to cover the ſlaked lime with ſod, to defend it from the rain. But we ſhould avoid as much as poſſible the bringing home lime before the ground be ready for it. Where allowed to lie long in a heap, there are two bad conſequences: firſt, lime attracts moiſture, even though well covered, and runs into clots, which prevents an intimate mixture; and, next, burnt limeſtone, whether in ſhells or in powder, returns gradually into its original ſtate of limeſtone; and is thereby leſs capable of being mixed with the ſoil. This is verified by the fact, that, after lying long, it is ſo hard bound together as to require a pick-axe to ſeparate the parts. It is alſo a bad practice, though common, to let ſpread lime lie on the ſurface all winter. Not only the bad effects above mentioned take place, but the rain waſhes the lime down to the furrows, and in a hanging field carries the whole away.

As the particles of powdered lime are both ſmall and heavy, they quickly ſink to the bottom of the furrow, if care be not taken to prevent it. Lime ſhould therefore be ſpread and mixed with the ſoil immediately before ſowing, or along with the ſeed. Thus it has time to incorporate with the ſoil, and does not readily ſeparate from it. If turnip ſeed is to be ſown broadcaſt, the lime ought to be laid on immediately before ſowing, and harrowed in with the ſeed. If a crop of drilled turnip or cabbage be intended, the lime ought to

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to be ſpread immediately before forming in drills. With reſpect to wheat, the lime ought to be ſpread immediately before ſeed furrowing. If ſpread more early, it ſinks to the bottom. If a light ſoil be prepared for barley, the lime ought to be ſpread after ſeed furrowing, and harrowed in with the ſeed. In a ſtrong ſoil, it ſinks not ſo readily to the bottom; and therefore before ſowing the barley, the lime ought to be mixed with the ſoil by a brake. Where moor is ſummer fallowed for a crop of oats next year, the lime ought to be laid on immediately before the laſt plowing, and braked in. It has ſufficient time to incorporate with the ſoil before the land be ſtirred again.

The quantity to be laid on depends on the nature of the ſoil. Upon a ſtrong ſoil, 70 or 80 bolls of ſhells are not more than ſufficient, reckoning 4 ſmall firlots to the boll, termed *wheat-meaſure*; nor will it be an overdoſe to lay on 100 bolls. Between 50 and 60 may ſuffice upon medium ſoils; and upon the thin or gravelly, between 30 and 40. It is not ſafe to lay a much greater quantity on ſuch ſoils. It is common to lime a paſture field immediately before plowing. This is a bad practice; it is thrown to the bottom of the furrow, from which it is never fully gathered up. The proper time for liming a paſture field, intended to be taken up for corn, is a year at leaſt, or two before plowing. It is waſhed in by rain among the roots of plants, and has time to incorporate with the ſoil.

Limestone beat ſmall makes an excellent manure; and ſupplies the want of powdered lime where there is no fuel to burn the limeſtone. It has not hitherto been much uſed as a manure; and the proportion between it and powdered lime has not been aſcertained: 3 lb. of raw lime is by burning reduced to 2 lb. of ſhell lime. Yet nothing is expelled by the fire but the air that was in the limeſtone: the calcareous earth remains entire. Therefore 2 lb. of ſhell lime contain as much calcareous earth as 3 lb. of raw limeſtone. Shell lime of the beſt quality, when ſlaked with water, will meaſure out to thrice the quantity. But as limeſtone loſes none of its bulk by being burnt, 3 buſhels of raw limeſtone contain as much calcareous earth as 6 of powdered lime; and conſequently, if powdered lime poſſeſs not ſome virtue above raw limeſtone, 3 buſhels of the latter beat ſmall ſhould equal as a manure 6 buſhels of the former.

Shell marl, as a manure, is managed in every reſpect like powdered lime: with this only difference, that a 4th or 5th part more in meaſure ought to be given; as ſhell marl is leſs weighty than lime; and a boll of it contains leſs calcareous earth, which is the fructifying part of both. Clay and ſtone marls, with reſpect to huſbandry, are the ſame, though in appearance different. The goodneſs of marl depends on the quantity of calcareous earth in it: which has been known to amount to a half or more. It is too expenſive if the quantity be leſs than a third or a 4th part. Good marl is the moſt ſubſtantial of all manures; becauſe it improves the weakeſt ground to equal the beſt. The low part of Berwickſhire, called the Merse, abounds every where with this marl; and is the only county in Scotland where it is plentiful.

Land ought to be cleared of weeds before marling; and ſmoothed with the brake and harrow, that the marl may be equally ſpread. Marl is a foſſil on which no vegetable will grow; its efficacy depends, like that of lime, on its pulverization, and intimate mixture with the ſoil. Toward the former, alternate drought and moiſture contribute greatly, as alſo froſt. Therefore, after being evenly ſpread, it ought to lie on the ſurface all winter. In October it may be roughed with a brake; which will bring to the ſurface and expoſe to the air and froſt, all the hard parts and mix with the ſoil all that is powdered. In that reſpect it differs widely from the dung and lime, which ought to be plowed into the ground without delay. Oats is a hardy grain, which will anſwer for being the firſt crop after marling better than any other; and it will ſucceed though the marl be not thoroughly mixed with the ſoil. In that caſe the marl ſhould be plowed in with an ebb furrow immediately before ſowing, and braked thoroughly. It is dangerous to make wheat the firſt crop: if ſown before winter, froſt heaves the marl, and is apt to throw the ſeed out of the ground; if ſown in ſpring, it will ſuffer more than oats by want of due mixture.

Summer is the proper ſeaſon for marling, becauſe in that ſeaſon the marl, being dry, is not only lighter but is eaſily reduced to powder. Froſt, however, is not improper for marling, eſpecially as in froſt there is little opportunity for any other work. Marl is a heavy body, and falls to the bottom of the furrow, if indiſcreetly plowed. Therefore the firſt crop ſhould always be in an ebb furrow. During the growing of that crop the marl has time to incorporate with the ſoil, and to become a part of it; after which it does not readily ſeparate.

Gypsum, or Plaster of Paris, has been lately introduced as a new manure in ſome countries, with ſucceſs; particularly in Switzerland (ſee *Annals of Agriculture*, Vol. X.) and in the United States of America: (See *Bath Papers*, Vol. V.) See alſo our article Plaster, § 7.

Sect. VIII. *Of the* Principles *and* Operations *of the* New *or* Horse-hoeing Husbandry.

The general properties attributed to this new huſbandry may be reduced to two, viz. the promoting the growth of plants by hoeing, and the ſowing of ſeed; both of which are equally profitable to the farmer. The advantages of tillage by ſowing having been already pointed out, we have only to conſider here the utility of tillage by ſowing. This kind of tillage is moſt generally known by the name of horse-hoeing.

Land ſowed with wheat, however well it may be cultivated in autumn, ſinks in winter; the particles get nearer together, and the weeds riſe; ſo that in ſpring, the land is nearly in the ſame ſituation as if it never had been plowed. The time, however, is the ſeaſon when it ſhould branch and grow with moſt vigour; and conſequently ſtand moſt in need of plowing or hoeing, to deſtroy the weeds

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rede, to supply the roote with fresh earth, and, renewing new the particles of the soil, to allow the roots to extend and collect nourishment. gardens, plants grow with double vigour after ing hoed or transplanted. If plants growing in ure and could be managed with equal ease and ty, their growth would be promoted accordly. Experience shows, that this is not only ticable, but attended with many advantages. e operation of hoeing wheat, though some of roots be moved or broken, the plants receive jury; for this very circumstance makes them forth a greater number of roots than formerwhich enlarge their pasture, and consequently ent their growth. Sickly wheat has often ered its vigour after a good hoeing, especially when performed in weather not very hot dry. Wheat, and such grain as is sown before ter, requires hoeing more than oats, barley, ther grain sown in spring; for, if the land has well plowed before the sowing of spring s, it neither has time to harden, nor to proe many weeds, not having been exposed to winter's snow and rain.

Of Sowing. As, in the practice of New husbandry, plants grow with greater vigour than the old method, the land should be sowed ner. It is this principle of new husbandry has been chiefly objected to; for, upon obving the land occupied by a small number of s, people are apt to look upon all the vaspace as lost. But this prejudice will soon removed, when it is considered, that in the noon method, and sown very thick, each seed aces but one or two ears; that, in the same sown thinner, every seed produces 2 or 3 s; and that a single seed sometimes produces 20 ears. In the common method, as there many more plants than find sufficient nouent, and as it is impossible to assist them by by, numbers die before they attain maturity, greatest part remain sickly and drooping; thus part of the seed is lost. But in the new od, all the plants have as much food as they re; and as they are, from time to time, assisted by hoeing, they become so vigorous as to in their production the numerous but sickly ts cultivated in the common method.

Of Hoeing. The new husbandry is also ly impracticable in lands that are not easily ed. Attempting to cultivate land according his husbandry, without attending to this circumstance, has tended to make it contemptible many places. When a field is in good tilth, it ld be sown so thin as to leave sufficient room the plants to extend their roots. After being plowed and harrowed, it must be divided rows, at the distance of 30 inches from one ther. On the sides of each of these rows, 2 s of wheat must be sowed 6 inches distant 1 each other. There will thus be an interval feet betwixt the rows, and every plant will room enough to extend its roots, and to supit with food. The intervals will likewise be cient for allowing the earth to be hoed or tilwithout injuring the plants in the rows.

The first hoeing, which should be given before winter, is intended to drain away the wet, and to dispose the earth to be mellowed by the frosts. These 2 ends will be answered by drawing a small furrows at a little distance from the rows, and throwing the earth taken from the furrows into the middle of the intervals. The first hoeing should be given when the wheat is in leaf.

The 2d hoeing, which is intended to make the plants branch, should be given after the hard frosts are over. To do this with advantage, after stirring the earth a little near the rows, the earth which was thrown in the middle of the intervals should be turned back into the furrows. This earth, having been mellowed by the winter, supplies the plants with excellent food, and makes the roots extend.

The 3d hoeing, which is intended to invigorate the stalk, should be given when the ears of the corn begin to show themselves. This hoeing may, however, be very slight.

But the 4th and last hoeing is of the greatest importance, as it enlarges the grain, and makes the ears fill at their extremities. This hoeing should be given when the wheat is in bloom; a furrow must be drawn in the middle of the interval, and the earth thrown to the right and left on the foot of the plants. This supports the plants, prevents them from being laid, and prepares the ground for the next sowing, as the seed is then to be put in the middle of the ground that formed the intervals.

The best season for hoeing is 2 or 3 days after rain, or as soon after rain as the soil will quit the instrument in hoeing. Light dry soils may be hoed almost any time, but this is not the case with strong clay soils; the season for hoeing such is frequently short and precarious; every opportunity therefore should be carefully watched, and eagerly embraced. The two extremes of wet and dry, are great enemies to vegetation in strong clay soils. There is a period between the time of clay soils running together, so as to puddle by superfluous wet, and the time of their caking by drought, that they are as tractable as need be. This is the juncture for hoeing; and land thus seasonably hoed, will not cake upon the surface, as it otherwise would have done, till it has been soaked or drenched again with rain; in which case the hoeing is to be repeated as soon as the soil will quit the instrument, and as often as necessary; by which time the growing crop will begin to cover the ground, so as to act as a screen to the surface of the land against the intense heat of the sun, and thereby prevent, in great measure, the bad effects of the soil's caking in dry weather. By this successive tillage, or hoeing, good crops will be obtained. But as strong vigorous plants are longer before they arrive at maturity, corn raised in the new way is later in ripening than any other, and must therefore be sown earlier.

To prepare the intervals for sowing again, some well-rotted dung may be laid in the deep furrows in the middle of the intervals; and this dung must be covered with the earth that was before thrown towards the rows of wheat. But, if the land does not require mending, the deep furrow is filled without dung. This operation should be performed

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formed immediately after harveſt, that there may be time to give the land a ſlight ſtirring before the rows are ſowed; which ſhould occupy the middle of the ſpace which formed the intervals during the laſt crop. The intervals of the 2d year take up the ſpace occupied by the ſtubble of the firſt. Suppoſing dung to be neceſſary, which is denied by many, a very ſmall quantity is ſufficient; a ſingle layer, put in the bottom of each furrow, will be enough.

III. *Of the* INSTRUMENTS commonly USED in the NEW HUSBANDRY. *Fig.* 47. *Plate* CCCI. is a HARKING PLOUGH. The principal uſe of this plough is to ſtraight and regulate the ridges. The firſt line is traced by the eye, by three poles, placed in a ſtraight line. The plough draws the firſt furrow in the direction of this line, and, with the tooth A, fixed in the block of wood near the end of the croſs pole or ſlider B B, marks the breadth of the ridge at the diſtance intended. The plowman next traces the 2d line or rutt made by the tooth, and draws a ſmall furrow along it; and continues in this manner till the whole field is laid out in ſtraight and equidiſtant ridges.

Fig. 48. *Pl.* 301. is a plough for breaking up lea, or turning up the bottom of land when greatly exhauſted. By it the width and depth of the furrows can be regulated to a greater certainty than by any other hitherto known in this country. Its appearance is heavy; but two horſes are ſufficient to plow with it in ordinary free land; and only four are neceſſary in the ſtiffeſt clay ſoils. This plough is likewiſe eaſily held and temſpered. *a*, *b*, the ſword fixed in the fixers F, which runs thro' a mortoiſe F, at the end of the beam C, and regulates the depth of the furrow by raiſing or depreſſing the beam; it is fixed by putting the pin D thro' the beam and ſword, and is moveable at F.

Fig. 49. is a JOINTED BRAKE HARROW with 24 teeth, ſhaped like coulters, and ſtanding at about an angle of 80 degrees. By this inſtrument the land is finely puiverized, and prepared for receiving the ſeed from the drill. It requires four horſes in ſtiff, and two in open, land. This harrow is likewiſe uſed for levelling the ridges; which is done by preſſing it down by the handles where the ridge is high, and raiſing it up when low.

Fig. 50. is an ANGULAR WEEDING HARROW, which may follow the brake when neceſſary. The 7 hindmoſt teeth mould ſtand at a more acute angle than the reſt, in order to collect the weeds, which the holder can drop at pleaſure, by raiſing the hinder part, which is fixed to the body of the harrow by two joints.

Fig. 51. is a pair of HARROWS WITH SHAFTS. This harow is uſed for covering the ſeed in the drills, the horſe going in the furrow.

Fig. 52. is a DRILL PLOUGH, conſtructed in ſuch a manner as to ſow at once two rows of beans, peaſe, or wheat. This machine is eaſily wrought by two horſes. A, is the happer for containing the ſeed; B, circular boxes for receiving the ſeed from the happer; CC, two ſquare boxes which receive the ſeed from ſmall holes in the circular boxes, as they turn round; and laſt of all, the ſeed is dropped into the drills through holes in the ſquare boxes, behind the coulters D. The cylinder E follows, which, together with the wheel F, regulates the depth of the coulter, and covers the ſeed: the harrow G comes laſt of all, and covers the ſeed more compleatly. H H two ſliders, which, when drawn out, prevent the ſeed from falling into the boxes: and I, is a lever which holds the rungs, and prevents the horſe from turning, and ſowing ſeed at the ends of the ridges.

Fig. 53. is a SINGLE HOE PLOUGH of a very ſimple conſtruction, by which the earth in the intervals is ſtirred and laid up on both ſides to the roots of the plants, and at the ſame time the weeds are deſtroyed. A A the *mould boards* which may be raiſed or depreſſed at pleaſure, according as the farmer wants to throw the earth higher or lower upon the roots.

Fig. 54. *Pl.* 298. is a DRILL-RAKE for peaſe. This inſtrument, which is chiefly calculated for ſmall incloſures of light grounds, is a ſort of three plough rake, with four large teeth at *a*, *a*, *b*, *b*, a little incurvated. The diſtance from *a* to *a*, and from *b* to *b*, is nine inches. The interval between the two inner teeth, *a*, and *b*, is three feet ſix inches, which allows ſufficient room for the horſe to plough to move in. To the piece of timber forming the head of the rake, are fixed the handles *d*, and the beam *e* to which the horſe is faſtened. When this inſtrument is drawn over a piece of land made thoroughly fine, and the man who holds it bears upon the handles, four furrows *f*, *g*, *h*, *i*, will be formed, at the diſtances determined by the conſtruction of the inſtrument. Theſe diſtances may be accurately preſerved, provided that the teeth *a a* return when the plowman comes back, after having plowed one turn, in two of the channels formed before, marked *f b*: thus all the furrows in the field will be traced with the ſame regularity. When the ground is thus formed into drills, the peaſe may be eaſily ſcattered by a ſingle motion of the hand at a certain diſtance from one another into the channels, and then covered with the flat part of the handles, and preſſed down gently. This inſtrument is ſo ſimple, that any workman may eaſily make or repair it.

Fig. 55, *Plate* CCCI. is a PATENT DRILL MACHINE invented by the Rev. JAMES COOKE, Heaton-Norris near Mancheſter. A the upper part of the ſeed box. B, the lower part of the ſame box. C, a moveable partition, with a lever, by which the grain or ſeed is let fall at pleaſure from the upper to the lower part of the ſeed box, from whence it is taken up by cups or ladles applied to the cylinder D, and dropped into the funnel E, and conveyed thereby into the furrow or drill made in the land by the coulter F, and covered by the rake or harrow G. H, a lever, by which the wheel I is lifted out of generation with the wheel K, to prevent the grain or ſeed being ſcattered upon the ground, while the machine is turning round at the end of the land, by which the harrow G is alſo lifted from the ground at the ſame time, and by the ſame motion, by means of the crank, and the horizontal lever *b b*. L, a ſliding lever, with a weight upon it, by means of which, the depth of the furrows or drills, and conſequently the depth that the grain or ſeed will

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46. Graf's seed Harrow.

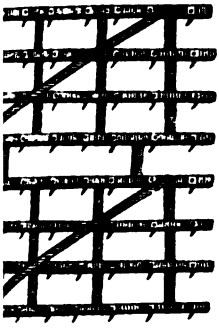


Fig. 47. Marking Plough

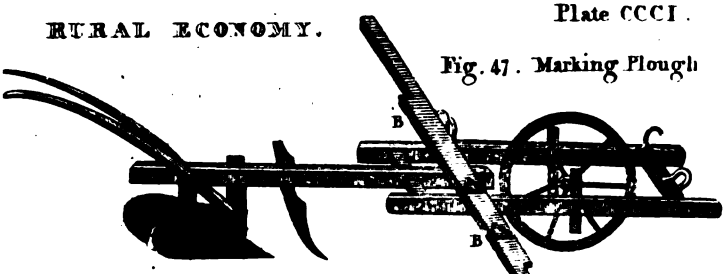


Fig. 53. Single Hoe Plough.

Jointed Brake Harrow.

Fig. 48. Ley Plough

Angular Weeding Harrow.

Fig. 51. Harrows with Shafts.

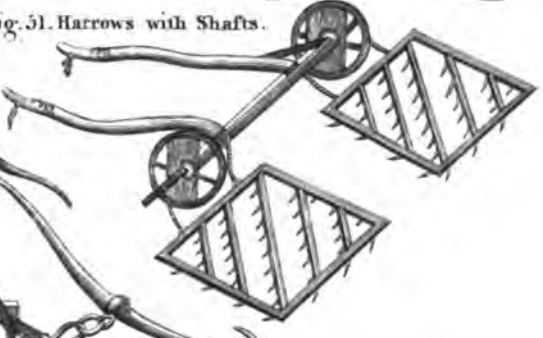


Fig. 52.

Drill Plough

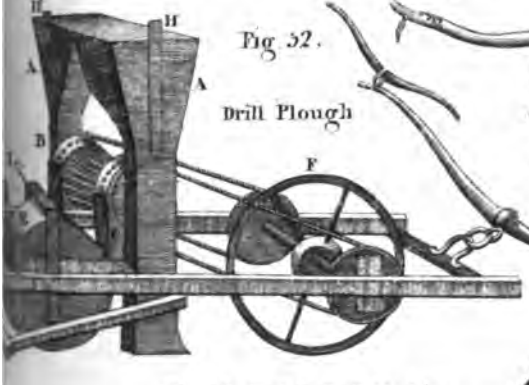
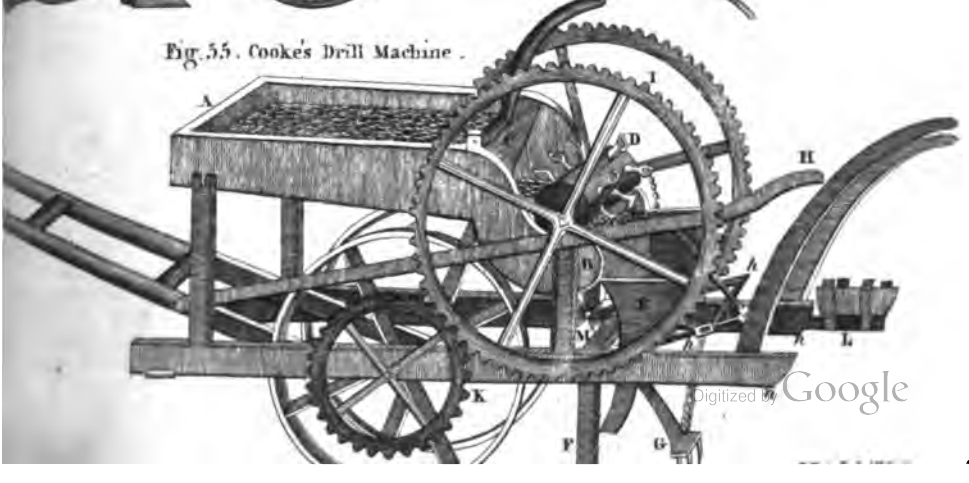


Fig. 55. Cooke's Drill Machine.



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e depoſited in the land, may be eaſily aſcertain-
d. M, a ſcrew in the coulter beam, by turning
f which, the ſeed box B is elevated or depreſſed,
n order to prevent the grain or ſeed being cruſh-
d or bruiſed by the revolution of the cups or
adles.

Fig. 56, *Pl.* 299. a rake with iron teeth, to be
pplied to the under ſide of the rails of the ma-
hine, with ſtaples and ſcrew nuts at *n n*, by
hich many uſeful purpoſes are anſwered, viz.
accumulating cutch or hay into rows, and as
ſcarificator for young crops of wheat in the
pring, or to be uſed upon a fallow; in which
ſe, the ſeed box, the ladle cylinder, the coul-
ers, the funnels, and harrows, are all taken a-
ay.

This ſide view of the machine is repreſented,
r the ſake of perſpicuity, with one ſeed box on-
y, one coulter, one funnel, one harrow, &c.
hereas a complete machine is furniſhed with 5
oulters, 5 harrows, 7 funnels, a ſeed box in 8
ivitions, &c. with ladles of different ſizes, for
fferent ſorts of grain and ſeeds. Theſe ma-
hines (with 5 coulters 26 guineas, with 4 coul-
rs 15 guineas), equally excel in ſetting all ſorts
f grain and ſeeds, even carrot ſeed, to exactneſs,
der the rate of from 8 to 10 chain acres per day,
ith one man, a boy and two horſes. They de-
oſite the grain in any given quantity from one
eck to 3 buſhels per acre, regularly and uniform-
, and that without grinding or bruiſing the ſeed.
od at any given depth, from half an inch to half
dozen inches, in rows at the diſtance of 12, 16
nd 24 inches, or any other diſtance. They are
qually uſeful on all lands, are durable, eaſy to
anage, and by no means ſubject to be put out
repair.

The LADLE CYLINDER D, *fig.* 55. *Pl.* 301. is
miſhed with cups or ladles of 4 different ſizes for
fferent ſorts of grain or ſeeds, diſtinguiſhed by the
mbers 1, 2, 3, 4.—N° 1. (the ſmalleſt ſize) is cal-
lated for turnip-ſeed, clover-ſeed, cole-ſeed, rape,
c. and will ſow ſomething more than 1 lb. per ſta-
te acre. N° 2. for wheat, rye, hemp, flax, &c.
ill ſow ſomething more than one buſhel per acre.
° 3. for barley, will ſow one buſhel and a half
er acre. N° 4. for beans oats, peaſe, vetches,
c. will ſow two buſhels per acre. But a greater
leſs quantity of each may be ſown at pleaſure,
ſtopping up with a little clay, or by adding a
w ladles to each reſpective box. The ſeeds in-
ded to be ſown, muſt be put in thoſe boxes, to
hich the cups or ladles reſpectively belong, an
ual quantity into each box, and all the other
es empty. The ladle cylinder may be reverſed,
turned end for end at pleaſure, for different
rts of grain, &c. For ſowing beans, oats, peaſe,
c. with a five-coulter machine, 4 ladles muſt oc-
ſionally be applied at equal diſtances round thoſe
rts of the cylinder which ſubtend the two end
es. And for ſowing barley, 8 large ones muſt
applied as above; or 4 ladles, N° 2. to each
the wheat boxes. Theſe additional ladles are
ed on the cylinder with nails, or taken off in a
w minutes; but for ſowing with a four coulter
chine, the above alterations are not neceſſary.
ee funnels are applied to their reſpective places
correſponding numbers. Care ſhould be taken,
that the points of the funnel ſtand directly behind
the backs of the coulters, which is done by wed-
ges being applied to one ſide or other of the coul-
ters, at the time they are fixed in their reſpective
places.

The machine being thus put together, which is
readily and expeditiouſly done, as no ſeparate part
will coincide with any other but that to which it
belongs, and an equal quantity of ſeed in each of
the reſpective boxes, the land alſo being previouſly
plowed or harrowed once or ſo in a place to level
the ſurface; but if the land be very rough, a rol-
ler will beſt anſwer that purpoſe, whenever the
land is dry enough to admit of it; and upon ſtrong
clays, a SPIKED ROLLER (*Fig.* 33. *Plate* 300.) is
ſometimes neceſſary to reduce the ſize of the large
dry clods; which being done, the driver ſhould
walk down the furrow or edge of the land, and
having hold of the laſt horſe's head with his hand,
he will readily keep him in ſuch a direction, as will
bring the outſide coulter of the machine within 3
or 4 inches of the edges of the land or ridge, at
which uniform extent, he ſhould keep his arm till
he come to the end of the land; where having
turned round he muſt come to the other ſide of
his horſes, and walking upon the laſt outſide drill,
having hold of the horſe's head with his hand as
before, he will readily keep the machine in ſuch a
direction as will ſtrike the ſucceeding drill at ſuch
a diſtance from the laſt outſide one, or that he
walks upon, as the coulters are diſtant from each
other.

The perſon who attends the machine ſhould put
down the lever H ſoon enough at the end of the
land, that the cups or ladles may have time to fill,
before he begins to ſow; and at the end of the land,
he muſt apply his right hand to the middle of the
rail between the handles, by which he will keep
the coulters in the ground, while he is lifting up
the lever with his left hand, to prevent the grain
being ſcattered upon the headland, while the ma-
chine is turning round; this he will do with great
eaſe, by continuing his right hand upon the rail
between the handles, and applying his left arm un-
der the left handle, to lift the coulters out of the
ground while the machine is turning round. If
there be any difficulty in uſing the machine, it
conſiſts in driving it ſtraight. The perſon who at-
tends the machine cannot commit any errors, ex-
cept ſuch as are wilful, as he ſees at one view the
whole proceſs of the buſineſs, viz. that the coul-
ters make the drills of a proper depth; that the
funnels continue open to convey the grain or ſeed
into the drills; that the rakes or harrows cover
the grain ſufficiently; and when ſeed is wanting in
the lower boxes B, which he cannot avoid ſeeing,
he readily ſupplies them from the upper boxes A,
by applying his hand, as the machine goes along,
to the lever C. The lower boxes, B, ſhould not
be ſuffered to become empty before they are ſup-
plied with ſeed, but ſhould be kept nearly full, or
within an inch or ſo of the edge of the box.

If chalk lines are made acroſs the backs of the
coulters, at ſuch a diſtance from the ends as the
ſeed ſhould be depoſited in the ground (viz. about
2 inches for wheat, and from 2 to 3 for ſpring
corn), the perſon who attends the machine will
be better able to aſcertain the depth the ſeed

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ſhould be depoſited in the drills. by obſerving, as the machine goes along, whether the chalk lines are above or below the ſurface of the land; if above, a proper weight muſt be applied to the lever L, which will force the coulters into the ground; if below, the lever L and the weight muſt be reverſed, which will prevent their ſinking too deep. In different parts of the kingdom, lands or ridges are of different ſizes; where the machine is too wide for the land, one or more funnels may occaſionally be ſtopped with a little looſe paper, and the ſeed received into ſuch funnel returned at the end of the land, or ſooner if required, into the upper ſeed-box. But for regularity and expedition, lands conſiſting of ſo many feet wide from outſide to outſide, as the machine contains coulters, when fixed at 12 inches diſtance, or twice or three times the number, &c. are beſt calculated for the machine. In wet ſoils or ſtrong clays, lands or ridges of the width of the machine, and in dry ſoils, of twice the width are recommended. For ſowing of narrow high-ridged lands, the outſide coulters ſhould be let down, and the middle ones raiſed, ſo that the points of the coulters may form the ſame curve that the land or ridge forms. And the looſe ſoil harrowed down into the furrows ſhould be returned to the edges of the land or ridges from whence it came, by a double mould-board or other plough, whether the land be wet or dry.

CLOVER or other ſeys, intended to be ſown by the machine, ſhould be plowed a deep ſtrong furrow and well harrowed, to level the ſurface, and to get as much looſe ſoil as poſſible for the coulters to work in; and when ſown, if any of the ſeed appears in the drills uncovered by reaſon of the ſtiff texture of the ſoil, or toughneſs of the roots, a light harrow may be taken over the land, once in a place, which will effectually cover the ſeed, without diſplacing it at all in the drills. For ſowing ſeys, a conſiderable weight muſt be applied to the lever L, to force the coulters into the ground; and a ſet of wrought iron coulters, well ſteeled, and made ſharp at the front edge and bottom, are recommended; they will pervade the ſoil more readily, require leſs draught, and expedite buſineſs more than adequate to the additional expence.

For every half acre of land intended to be ſown by the machine with the ſeed of that very valuable root, *carrot*, one buſhel of ſaw duſt, and one lb. of carrot ſeed, ſhould be provided; the ſaw-duſt ſhould be made dry, and ſifted to take out all the lumps and chips, and divided into eight equal parts or heaps; the carrot-ſeed ſhould likewiſe be dried, and well rubbed between the hands, to take off the beards, ſo that it will ſeparate readily, and being divided into 8 equal parts or heaps, one part of the carrot-ſeed muſt be well mixed with one part of the ſaw-duſt, and ſo on, till all the parts of carrot-ſeed and ſaw-duſt are well mixed and incorporated together; in which ſtate it may be ſown very regularly in drills at 12 inches diſtance, by the cups or ladles, N° 2. Carrot-ſeed reſembling graſs-ſeeds very much in its ſize, roughneſs, weight, bottom, &c. will remain mixed as above during the ſowing; a ladle-full of ſaw duſt will, upon an average, contain three or four carrot-ſeeds, by which means the carrot ſeed cannot be otherwiſe than regular in the drills. In attempting to compoſite ſmall ſeeds near the ſurface, ſome of the ſeeds may not be covered with the ſoil; in ſuch caſe, a light roller may be drawn over the land after the ſeed is ſown, which will not only cover the ſeeds, but will alſo, by leveling the ſurface, prepare the land for an earlier hoeing than could otherwiſe have taken place.

It has always been found troubleſome, ſometimes impracticable, to ſow any kind of grain or ſeeds, (even broad-caſt) in a high wind. This inconvenience is entirely obviated, by placing a ſcreen of any kind of cloth, or a ſack, ſupported by two uprights nailed to the ſides of the machine behind the funnel, which will prevent the grain or ſeed being blown out of its direction in paſſing from the ladles into the funnels. Small pipes of tin may alſo be put to the ends of the funnels, to convey the grain or ſeed ſo near the ſurface of the land, that the higheſt wind ſhall not be able to interrupt its deſcent into the drills.

It was often remarked by people not converſant with the properties of matter and motion, that the ſoil would cloſe after the coulters, before the ſeed were admitted into the drills. But the very contrary is the caſe; for the velocity of the coulters in paſſing through the ſoil, is ſo much greater than the velocity with which the ſoil cloſes into the drills by its own gravity, that the inciſion will be open for 3 or 4 inches behind the coulters, by which means, it is morally impoſſible (if the points of the funnels ſtand directly behind the coulters) that the ſeed with the velocity it acquires in falling through the funnels, ſhall not be admitted into the drills.

Fig. 57. *Plate* 298. is a new conſtructed ſingle hand-hoe, by which one man will effectually hoe two chain acres per day, earthing up the two rows at the ſame time to the rows of corn or pulſe. This is to cauſe roots to iſſue from the firſt joint of the ſtem, above the ſurface of the land, which otherwiſe would never have exiſted. This hoe is uſed much in the ſame manner as a common Dutch hoe, or ſcuffle, is worked in gardens. The middle is elevated or depreſſed, to ſuit the ſize of the perſon who works it, by an iron wedge applied to the upper or under ſide of the handle that goes into the ſocket of the hoe. The wings or mould-ing plates of the hoe, which are intended to earth up the ſoil to the rows of corn, ſo as to cauſe roots to iſſue from the firſt joint of the ſtem above the ſurface, which otherwiſe would not have exiſted, ſhould never be uſed for the firſt hoeing, but always for the laſt.

Fig. 58. and 59. *Pl.* CCCII. exhibits COOKE's IMPROVED DRILL MACHINE *and* HORSE-HOE. The advantages of this improved drill over the former chiefly conſiſt, 1ſt, In the wheels BB, being ſo large that the machine can travel on any road without trouble or danger of breaking; alſo from the farm to the field, &c. without taking to pieces; requiring only half the draught which the old machine requires. 2d, In the coulter-beam CC, with all the coulters moving with great eaſe on the principle of the pentagraph, to the right or left, ſo as to counteract the irregularity of the horſe's draught, by which means the drills may be made ſtraight, and where lands or ridges are made

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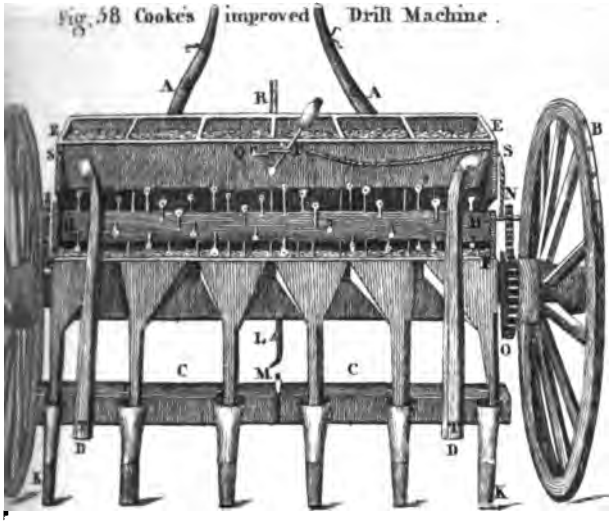
Fig. 58 Cooke's improved Drill Machine.



Substitute for a Rudder

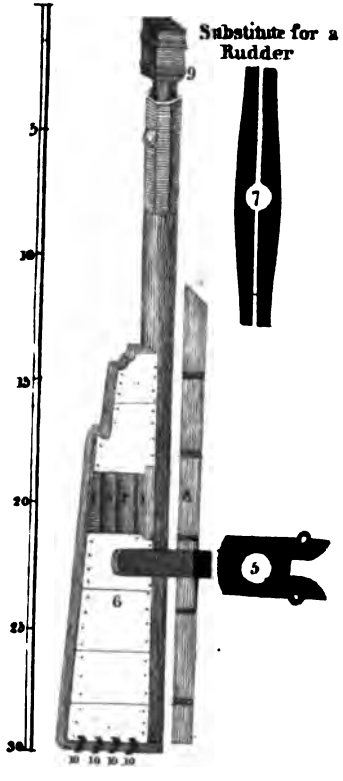


Fig. 59. Cooke's Horse Hoe.

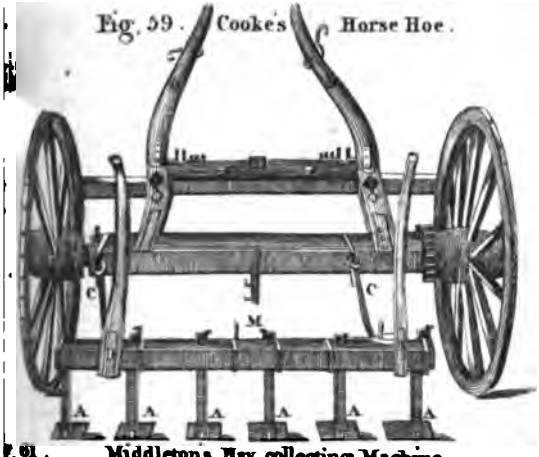


Fig. 61. Middleton's Hay collecting Machine.

Fig. 62.

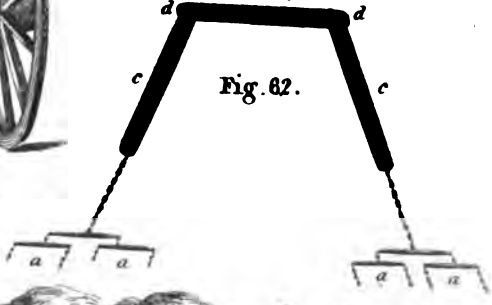


Fig. 60. Mc Dougals Hoe.

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ide 4½ or 9½ feet wide, the horſe may always
in the furrow, without ſetting a foot on the
d, either in drilling or horſe-hoeing. 3d, In
ſeed ſupplying itſelf regularly, without any
ution, from the upper to the lower boxes as
diſtributed. 4th, In lifting the pin M on the
ulter-beam to a hook L on the axis of the wheels;
which means the coulters are kept out of the
und at the end of the land, without the leaſt
our or fatigue to the perſon who attends the
chine. 5th, In going up or down ſteep hills,
ſeed-box is elevated or depreſſed accordingly,
s to render the diſtribution of the ſeed regular;
the ſeed, being covered by a lid, is ſcreened
n wind or rain.

Theſe are the principal advantages appertaining
his machine, which, though conſiderable in
proceſs of drilling, are as nothing compared
h thoſe which ariſe from the uſe of the horſe-
, by which from 8 to 10 acres of land can be
l in one day, by one man, a boy, and one
e, at the expence of 6d. or 8d. per acre, in a
far ſuperior to, and more effectual than any
l-hoeing whatever, and alſo at ſeaſons when
impoſſible for the hand-hoe to be uſed at all.
A, *fig.* 58. are the ſhafts of the machine, ap-
d to the axis of the wheels, ſo that the horſe
go on the land, or in the furrow, without
ing a foot upon the land, either for drilling or
e-hoeing. BB, the wheels. CC, coulter-
n, with holes or mortiſes for the coulters at
rent diſtances. DD, handles of the machine,
ed to the coulter-beam, alſo to the axis of
wheels, by hooks and eyes, or ſtaples. EE,
r ſeed-box in partitions, covered by a lid, to
rd the ſeed from wind or rain. FF, lower
box in partitions. GG, ſlides between the
r and lower ſeed-boxes, for regulating the
tity of ſeed ſown. HH, cylinder with cups
dles of different ſizes, for different ſorts of
or ſeeds; by which the grain or ſeeds are
up, and dropped into the funnels II, and
nded thereby into inciſions or drills made in
und by the coulters KK. L, a hook applied
e axis of the wheels. *l*, a chain applied to
coulter-beam, the laſt link of which, being
upon the loweſt hook, will prevent the tubes
the funnels from being diſplaced, when the
ine is croſſing deep furrows or gutters. M,
of iron projecting from the coulter-beam,
h, being lifted on the hook L, at the end of
und, will bear the coulters out of the ground,
the machine is turning round, or on any o-
occaſion, without any labour to the perſon
attends the machine, in ſupporting them. N,
e-wheel. O, a cog-wheel, turned by the
N. P, a lever and ſtring, paſſing over a
y to the axis of the cylinder H, by moving
ver P to the notch in the ſtaple Q, the wheel
l be lifted out of connection with the wheel
y which means the diſtribution of grain or
may be ſtopped at pleaſure, in an inſtant, at
nd of the land, or on any other occaſion. R,
on bar with holes in it, by means of which,
pin going through the holes, the ſeed-box
be elevated or depreſſed, ſo as to keep the
the box horizontally level, whether going
up or down ſteep hills, or on level ground. SS,
two ſtaples in the end of the ſeed-box, for the
reception of two ſlips of wood, with canvas to
prevent the wind from interrupting the grain or
ſeed; alſo to prevent dirt or ſoil falling from the
wheels into the funnels II.

Fig. 59. ſhows the HORSE HOE, and repreſents
the ſhafts, the axis and wheels, the coulter-beam,
with handles, &c. as in *fig.* 58. being part of the
ſaid machine, and convertible into a horſe-hoe
with ſix ſhares, by taking away the ſeed-box EE,
the cylinder HH, the funnels H, and the coulters
KK, as in *fig.* 58. and introducing the hoes
AAAAAA, *fig.* 59. in the places of the coulters.
B, a guide projecting from the hoe-beam, which
is uſeful in influencing the direction of the hoes,
ſo as to avoid cutting up the rows of corn.

MANNER *of* USING *the* MACHINE. The proceſs
of drilling ſhould never be attempted but when
the ſoil is tolerably dry, and when it has under-
gone proper plowing, harrowing, &c. The me-
thod of uſing this machine is in many reſpects the
ſame as that mentioned above.

Fig. 59. repreſents a back view of the machine,
when put together for working. When the horſe
is put in the ſhafts, care ſhould be taken that the
chains or tugs by which he draws are of equal
lengths; otherwiſe the machine will have a con-
ſtant tendency to deviate from the horſe's line of
traction. But when the horſe goes in the furrow,
the near ſide may be ſomewhat ſhorter; and a
chain may be extended from the end of the croſs
bar to a part of the ſhaft near the horſe's ſhoulder.
In going from the farm to the field, or returning
from the field to the farm, the pin or guide M
muſt be lifted on to the hook L, which will bear
the coulters off the ground. And when going on
rough roads, if the coulter-beam CC and axis of
the wheels are laſhed together by a rope or chain,
it will prevent the coulters receiving any injury
by coming ſuddenly to the ground. The grain
or ſeed muſt be put in the upper boxes EE, an e-
qual quantity in each box. The cups or ladles
upon the cylinders are of 4 different ſizes, and are
diſtinguiſhed by the numbers 1. 2. 3. 4.

N° 1. the ſmalleſt ſize, is painted white for lu-
cerne, clover, cole, rape, &c. and will ſow two
pounds per acre. Alſo for turnip, and will ſow
one pound per acre; every other cup being ſtop-
ped up with a little ſoft clay. N° 2. is painted
red for wheat. N° 3. is painted green for barley.
N° 4. is painted yellow for beans, oats, peaſe,
tares, &c.

By raiſing or lowering the ſlides GG, *fig.* 58. a
greater or leſs quantity of grain or ſeed may be
ſown at pleaſure. When the ſlides GG are as
low as they can be, the wheat cups painted red,
will ſow ſomething more than 3 pecks of wheat
per acre; and more in proportion the higher they
are raiſed, not exceeding one buſhel and a half,
when raiſed as high as they can be, in rows nine
inches apart. The cups painted green, when the
ſides are as low as they can be, will ſow one bu-
ſhel of barley per acre; and more in proportion
as the ſlides are raiſed, not exceeding two buſhels,
in rows at 9 inches apart. The cups painted yel-
low, when the ſlides are as low as they can be,
will

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with few almoſt two buſhels of beans, oats, peaſe, &c. per acre; and more in proportion as they are raiſed.

The funnels II, *fig.* 58. are all numbered 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. and for drilling at 9 inches, muſt be applied to their reſpective places, ſo as to correſpond with the number 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. of the ſeed-box; ſix coulters being fixed in the coulter-beam, 9 inches from each other. For drilling at 12 inches apart, 5 coulters muſt be fixed in the beam, at 11½ inches from each other, when the order of the funnels will ſtand 1. 4. 5. 2. 3. 6. and no ſeed put in the box oppoſite the funnel N° 5. when placed as above; the waſte funnel may be ſtopped with paper to receive any ſeed that may accidentally fall therein.

For drilling at 18 inches apart, three coulters muſt be fixed in the left end of the beam at 18 inches from each other, when the order of the funnels will ſtand 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. and ſeed put in the boxes, oppoſite the funnels 1. 3. 5. only, the other boxes being empty.

For drilling at 22 inches, 3 coulters muſt be fixed in the beam, one at each end, and one in the middle, when the order of the funnel will ſtand 1. 4. 5. 2. 3. 6. Seed being put in the boxes, oppoſite the funnels 1. 5. 6. only, the other boxes being empty. Two rows of peaſe at 9 or 12 inches apart, and a ſpace of 22 inches alternately, has been tried and approved. In level lands, without ridge and furrow, if the attendant on the machine cannot find a ſtraight ſide to begin at, he ſhould mark out with ſticks or buſhes a ſtraight line, along one ſide of the field, for his direction; and when drilling at 9 inches, to make the ſpace between the two adjoining drills, as he returns, equal to the reſt, the wheel of the machine muſt be brought very near the laſt impreſſion of the coulter when drilling at 12 inches. And of other diſtances accordingly.

As the machine approaches the land intended to be drilled, the lever P, *fig.* 58. ſhould be lifted from the notch in the ſtaple Q, where the coulters are two feet on this ſide the exact place where ſeed ſhould be depoſited; and the pin M removed from the hook L, by lifting up the handles DD. When the machine arrives at the end of the land, the lever P muſt be moved to the notch Q, which will ſtop in an inſtant the diſtribution of the ſeed, and the pin M lifted on the hook L, which will ſupport the coulters out of the ground while the machine is turning round.

If the coulter ſhould not make the inciſions ſomething more than two inches deep in light ſands or loams, and one and a half in ſtrong clays or wet ſoils, they may be forced into the ground by the hand; or by weights, or a beam of wood 4 feet long and three or 4 inches thick, being ſuſpended by chains or cords at the hooks TT in the handles of the machine for that purpoſe. If, in attempting to make the drills ſtraight, the horſe ſhould deviate from his proper direction, the coulter-beam with all the coulters will be readily moved, this way or that way at pleaſure, ſo as to make the drills ſtraight by counteracting the irregularity of the horſe's line of traction. If the machine ſhould be too wide for any given ridge, or more funnels may be ſtopped with a little paper, and the ſeed received into ſuch funnels turned into the upper ſeed-box. In drilling narrow high-ridged lands, the outſide coulters muſt be lowered, and the middle ones raiſed, ſo that the points of the coulters may form the ſame curve which the ridge forms. The top of the ſeed-box when ſhut, ſhould be kept horizontally level, whether going up or down ſteep hills or on level ground. This will make the diſtribution of the ſeed uniform. The higher the front edge of the box is raiſed upon the bar R, the ſeed will deſcend more copiouſly into the lower boxes, conſequently a greater quantity will be diſtributed.

The lower funnels placed behind the coulters ſhould be laſhed faſt to the coulters with leather thongs, or cords: and if in lifting up the coulter-beam at the ends of lands, the upper funnels ſhould by chance, be diſplaced, a ſmall nail may be driven into the edge of the ſeed-box, cloſe above the neck of each funnel, which will prevent the funnels being diſplaced.

Method of using the Horſe-hoe. For hoeing a crop of any kind of corn drilled at 9 inches apart, the horſe muſt be conducted in the 3d row or drill, beginning to number the rows from the left-hand ſide of the ſix rows drilled at one operation of the machine. And the perſon who attends the hoes muſt keep the pin B, fig. 59. directly over the 3d row of corn; and ſo often as he does this, it will be impoſſible for him to injure it in the leaſt. But for horſe-hoeing corn drilled 12 inches apart, the horſe muſt be conducted along the 2d ſpace, between the rows, beginning to number the ſpaces from the left-hand ſide of the 5 rows drilled at one operation of the machine. The perſon who attends the hoes muſt keep the pin B, *fig.* 59. directly over the middle of the 2d ſpace, deſcribed as above: the ſame rule will be good for hoeing at different diſtances. When the ſpace between the two adjoining outſides ſhall happen to be irregular (i. e.) too narrow in ſome places for the hoe to paſs, take out the hoe which would otherwiſe hoe that place, and leave it to be hoed by the hand.

Soils of different textures will require to be hoed with ſhares of different ſizes; nothing but experience can point out the five which is beſt adapted to any particular ſoil. In all light ſandy ſoils and loams, or any other ſoils ſufficiently pulverized, ſhares from 5 to 6 inches broad, for nine drills, and 8 inches broad for twelve-inch drills, will work ſafely and effectually. In ſtrong ſoils intermixed with pebbles, the hoe-ſhares muſt not be ſo broad; and it may be poſſible to find ſhares for ſuch ſoils as will bid defiance to all the ſtones whatever. If, nevertheleſs, the texture of the ſoil in the ſpaces of the rows of corn is torn to pieces by long narrow plates of iron, reſembling ſpades or chiſſels, being intro[illegible] ſhanks, AAAA[illegible] plates, the [illegible] ceſs will [illegible]

The [illegible] for [illegible]

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o level on the surface, for practical, effectual, d expeditious horse-hoeing. But where lands, ridges, are so round, that all the hoe-plates cant be brought to work at equal depths in the soil the same time, so many as cannot be brought o use may be laid aside.

This horse-hoe may be applied to many useful rposes, besides hoeing crops of drilled corn, ticularly for cutting up the rows of stubble as n as the crop is carried, with such weeds as ght escape the hoe; and for stirring of fallows, , &c. after the rate of ten acres a-day, with man, a boy, and two horses, particularly in busy time of harvest, when it would be impble to spare so many men and horses as would quired to stir the land with common ploughs, to answer the intended purpose. And by same expeditious method of cutting up stub, immediately after the crop is carried, or ra before it is carried, as soon as it is cut and up, to gain time for the sowing of grass seeds time, where they may have missed, or cole, ape, or turnip, for food of sheep or cattle, in ter or spring, extraordinary advantages may ained.

DOUGAL'S IMPROVED HOE, as seen in *Plate* II. *fig.* 60. is extremely simple in its construc, and answers all the purposes of a hand-hoe ery superior manner, particularly the clear- weeds and loosening the soil in the in- ate spaces of pulse or grain which has sown in equidistant rows, and at the same for earthing up the plants. It consists of principal parts; the first a beam of wood, at its fore end a semicircle forming two es, between which one man walks, and the instrument forwards: this beam at the end is divided, and moves on two small ons, by which it is accommodated to the t of the hands of the person drawing, and allowed for a wheel to move in. The other is held at its further end by another man, guides the instrument and regulates its depth e ground, at the same time that he assists its by thrusting it forwards. This beam is al- ded at its fore end, so as to admit a wheel between the sides, which wheel serves to the depth and ease the draught in working. hoes are made of cast iron, and fixed in a ise, in the hinder beam, by a proper wedge, ay be made of different forms or dimensions, e work to be performed may require.

IDDLETON'S HAY-COLLECTING MACHINE. machine, which is seen in *Plate* 302, *fig.* 61. ented for the purpose of preventing the la- of dragging hay together by hand. It is n by 4 horses, in pairs, with a boy to ma- and drive each pair. But it will first be ne- y that the hay should be put into rows, as nversally done before the loading of carts, ons, or sledges; then, to sweep the hay to- r with greater facility, a man with a fork go and turn the end of a row up, 2 or 3 , so as to form a sort of heap, and then walk , 20, or 40 paces, and then break the row, rning the hay forward into another similar ; and let him go on and repeat this operation e end of the row, which he should do as fast as he can walk; then the boy who has the management of that pair of horses to which the empty machine is attached, must draw it across the end of the row; and, the moment the centre of the machine is at the middle of the row, let him turn his horses short round, to within a yard or two of the hay, so as to be in a proper position to set off: the other boy must instantly place his horses on the opposite side of the row, and hook the chain of his splinter-bar to the machine, pulling the gate or side of the machine round, so as it were to clasp the hay as at *a*, *fig.* 61. The boys being mounted, and all now ready to start, let them draw slowly on for the first 20 or 40 yards; they may then, if the business requires dispatch, increase their pace, urging the horses into their fastest walk, and from that into a slow trot, until as much hay is collected as the horses can draw: then, unhooking one end, let the horses at the other turn from the hay, and draw out the machine from behind it: then trot away to the end of the next row, and repeat the process, taking care to keep the horses on each side of the hay at equal distances from the row, and opposite to each other. When the machine is loaded, and the intention is to draw the load to a distant place, the 4 horses cannot be kept too near together. The elevation of the machine, as it appears when drawn by one end, and empty, is shewn separate in the plate, where the scantlings of the several parts of the machine are marked.

The plan of the machine, when in the action of drawing the hay, is shewn in the plate at *fig.* 62. and lettered as follows: *a. a. a. a.* The places occupied by the horses, when drawing (though in many cases one horse on each side would be sufficient). *b.* The back, or principal part of the machine. *c. c.* The sides, or gates of the machine, which swing on the iron rods fixed in the back at *d. d. e.* The row of hay.

SUMMARY *of the* OPERATIONS *necessary in executing the* NEW HUSBANDRY *with the* PLOUGH. 1. The farmer must be provided with a drill and hoe-plough. 2. The new husbandry may be begun either with the winter or spring corn. 3. The land must be prepared by good plowings, at different times, from the 1st of April to the 15th of September. 4. These plowings must be done in dry weather to prevent the earth from kneading. 5. The land must be harrowed in the same manner as if it were sowed in the common way. 6. The rows of wheat should be sowed very straight. 7. When the field is not very large, a line must be strained across it, by which a rul may be traced with a hoe for the horse that draws the drill to go in; and when the rows are sown, 50 inches must be left betwixt each rill. But, when the field is large, stakes at 5 feet distance from each other must be placed at the 2 ends. The workman must then trace a small furrow with a plough that has no mold-board, for the horse to go in that draws the drill, directing himself with his eye by the stakes. 8. The sowing should be finished at the end of September, or beginning of October. 9. The furrows must be traced the long way of the land, that as little ground as possible may be lost in the head lands. 10. The rows, if possible, should run down the slope of the land,

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land, that the water may get the eaſier off. 11. The ſeed wheat muſt be plunged into a tub of lime water, and ſtirred, that the light corn may come to the ſurface and be ſkimmed off. 12. The ſeed muſt be next ſpread on a floor, and frequently ſtirred, till it is dry enough to run through the happer of the drill. 13. To prevent ſmut, the ſeed may be put into a ley of aſhes and lime. 14. Good old ſeed wheat ſhould be choſen in preference to new, as it is found by experience not to be ſo ſubject to ſmut. 15. After the happers of the drill are filled, the horſe muſt go ſlowly along the furrow that was traced. That a proper quantity of ſeed may be ſown, the aperture of the happer muſt be ſuited to the ſize of the grain. 16. As the drill is ſeldom well managed at firſt, the field ſhould be examined after the corn has come up, and the deficiencies ſupplied. 17. Upon wet ſoils or ſtrong clays, wheat ſhould not be depoſited more than 2 inches deep, on any account whatever; nor leſs than 2 inches deep on dry ſoils. From 2 to 3 inches is a medium depth for all ſpring corn. But the exact depth at which grain ſhould be depoſited in different ſoils, from the lighteſt ſand to the ſtrongeſt clay, is readily aſcertained only by obſerving at what diſtance under the ſurface of the land, the ſecondary or coronal roots are formed in the ſpring. 18. Stiff lands, that retain the wet muſt be ſtirred or hoed in October. This ſhould be done by opening a furrow in the middle of the intervals, and afterwards filling it up by a furrow drawn on each ſide, which will raiſe the earth in the middle of the intervals, and leave two ſmall furrows next the rows for draining off the water, which is very hurtful to wheat in winter. 19. The next ſtirring muſt be given about the end of March, with a light plough. In this ſtirring the furrows made to drain the rows muſt be filled up by earth from the middle of the intervals. 20. Some time in May the rows muſt be evened; which, though troubleſome at firſt, ſoon becomes eaſy, as the weeds are ſoon kept under by tillage. 21. In June, juſt before the wheat is in bloom, another ſtirring muſt be given with the plough. A deep furrow muſt be made in the middle of the intervals, and the earth thrown upon the ſides of the rows. 22. When the wheat is ripe, particular care muſt be taken, in reaping it, to trample as little as poſſible on the plowed land. 23. Soon after the wheat is carried off the field, the intervals muſt be turned up with the plough, to prepare them for the ſeed. The great furrow in the middle muſt not only be filled, but the earth raiſed as much as poſſible in the middle of the intervals. 24. In September, the land muſt be again ſowed with a drill, as above directed. In October, the ſtubble muſt be turned in for forming the new intervals; and the ſame management muſt be obſerved as directed in the firſt year.

We cannot determine whether the old or new huſbandry be preferable in every country. The climate, the ſituation of particular land, ſkill, and dexterity in managing the machinery, and the comparative expence in raiſing crops, and many other circumſtances, muſt be accurately attended to before a determination can be given. But a comparative view of the old and new methods of culture, was furniſhed for the editors of Mr *Tull's Horſe-hoeing Huſbandry*, by a gentleman who for ſome years practiſed both in a country where the ſoil was light and chalky, like that from which he drew his obſervations. It is only neceſſary to quote the reſult, which, after deducting all expences, exhibits a clear profit on 10 acres, in 20 years, by the *old* way of 127l. 1s. 8d. But by the *New Huſbandry*, all expences paid, there is a clear profit, on 10 acres in 20 years, of 262l. 5s. 4d. "So that the profit on 10 acres of land in 20 years, in the new way, exceeds that in the old by 135l. 1s. 8d and conſequently is conſiderably more than double thereof; an ample encouragement to practiſe a ſcheme, whereby ſo great advantage will ariſe from ſo ſmall a quantity of land, in the compaſs of a 21 years leaſe; one year being allowed, both in the old and new way, for preparing the ground. It ought withal to be obſerved, that Mr Tull's huſbandry requires no manure at all, though we have here, to prevent objections, allowed the charge thereof for the firſt year; and moreover, that though the crop of wheat from the drill plough is here put at 20 quarters on an acre, yet Mr Tull himſelf, by actual experiment and meaſure, found the produce of his drilled wheat crop amounted to above 40 quarters on an acre."

It appears alſo from a comparative calculation of expence and profit between the drill and common huſbandry, taken from Mr BAKER's report to the Dublin Society of his experiments in agriculture for 1765, that there is a clear profit arising upon an Iriſh acre of land in 15 years in the drill huſbandry of 52l. 3s. 11d. and in the old ſyſtem on huſbandry of 27l. 19s. 2d.: and the firſt a greater profit in the drilled acre in this time of 24l. 4s. 9d. which amounts to 1l. 12s. 6d. per annum. Hence he infers, that in every 15 years the fee-ſimple of all the tillage lands in the kingdom is loſt to the community by the common courſe of tillage. In ſtating the accounts from which their reſult is obtained, no notice is taken of fences, water cutting the land, weeding or reaping, becauſe theſe articles depend on a variety of circumſtances, and will, in general, exceed in the common huſbandry thoſe incurred by the other.

Beſides, the certainty of a crop is greater in this new way than in the old way of ſowing; for moſt of the accidents attending wheat crops are owing to their being late ſown, which is neceſſary to the farmer in the old way; but in the horſe-hoeing method the farmer may plow 2 inches whereon the next crop is to ſtand immediately after the firſt crop is off. In this manner of huſbandry, the land may be plowed dry and ſow'd wet, without any inconvenience; and the ſeed never planted under the furrow, but placed at the depth which is moſt proper, that is, about 2 inches; in which caſe it is eaſy to preſſure it, and there is no danger of burying it. Thus the ſeed has all the advantage of early ſowing, and none of the diſadvantages that may attend it the other way, and the crop is much more certain than by any other means that can be uſed. The condition in which the land is left after the crop

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ageleſs in favour of the horſe-hoeing huſbandry in all the other articles. The number of plants the great principle of the exhauſting of land. the common huſbandry, the number is vaſtly eater than in the drilling way, and 3 plants in often come to nothing, after having exhauſted e ground as much as profitable plants; and the ts which live to the time of harveſt in the mmon way, exhauſt the land no leſs than ſo y plants of corn, often much more. The rſe-hoeing method deſtroys all the weeds in the greater part of the land, and leaves that part exhauſted and perfectly freſh for another crop. e wheat plants being alſo but a 3d part of the mber at the utmoſt of thoſe in the ſowing way, land is ſo much the leſs exhauſted by them; d it is very evident from the whole, that it uſt be, as experience proves that it is left in a uch better condition after this than after the mmon huſbandry.

The farmers who are againſt this method ob- t, that it makes the plants too ſtrong, and that y are more liable to the blacks or blights of ſt for that reaſon; but as this allows that hoeing can, without the uſe of dung, give much nouriſhment, it is very plain that it can enough; and it is the farmer's fault if he do t proportion his pains ſo as to have the advan- e of the nouriſhment without the diſadvan- e. It is alſo objected, that as hoeing can poor land rich enough to bear good crops heat, it may make good land too rich for it. t if this ſhould happen, the ſowing of wheat may be let alone a while, and in the place the farmer may have a crop of turnips, car- , cabbages, and the like, which are excellent for cattle, and cannot be over-nouriſhed: this is not choſen, the land, when thus e too rich, may ſoon be ſufficiently impo- ſhed by ſowing corn upon it in the common way.

The method of horſe-hoeing huſbandry, ſo gly recommended by Mr TULL, is objected y many on account of the largeneſs of the in- ls which are to be left behind the rows of . Theſe are required to be about 5 feet ; and it is thought that ſuch wide ſpaces are much loſt earth, and that the crop is to be ſo ch the leſs for it. But it is to be obſerved, the rows of corn ſeparated by theſe intervals not be ſingle; they may be double, triple, quadruple, at the pleaſure of the farmer; and rows thus ſtanding as one will have the five nterval but one-fourth of its bigneſs as to whole quantity, and it will be but as 15 inch rals to plants in ſingle rows. Corn that is o irregularly in the common way, ſeems in- d to cover the ground better than that in rows: this is a mere *deceptio viſus*; for the ſtalks of n are never ſo thick as when they come out of plant, or, as when they ſtand in a row; and -hoed plant of corn will have 20 or 30 ks in a piece of ground of the ſame quantity, re an unhoed plant will have only two or e ſtalks. If theſe ſtalks of the hoed plant e ſeparated and planted over the intervals, the le land would be better covered than it is in the common way; and the truth is, that though theſe hoed fields ſeem to contain a much leſs crop than the common ſown fields, yet they in reality do contain a much greater. It is only the different placing that makes the ſown crop ſeem the larger, and even this is only while both crops are young.

The intervals are not loſt ground, as is uſually ſuppoſed, but when well horſe hoed they are all employed in the nouriſhment of the crop; the roots of the plants in the adjoining rows ſpreading themſelves through the whole interval, and drawing ſuch nouriſhment from it, that they increaſe accordingly. When the plants ſtand in the ſcattered way, as in common ſowing, they are too cloſe to one another; each robs its neighbours of part of their nouriſhment, and conſequently the earth is ſoon exhauſted, and all the plants half ſtarved. The cloſe ſtanding of them alſo prevents the benefit of after tilling, as the hoe cannot be brought in, nor the ground by any means ſtirred between them to give it a new breaking, and conſequently afford them new food.

Experiments have proved, that in large fields of wheat where the different methods have been tried, thoſe parts where the intervals were largeſt have produced the greateſt crops, and thoſe where hoeing was uſed without dung have been much richer than thoſe where dung was uſed without hoeing. If it were poſſible that plants could ſtand as thick, and thrive as well over the whole ſurface of the ground, as they do in the rows ſeparated by theſe large intervals, the crops of corn ſo produced would be vaſtly greater than any that have been heard of; but the truth is, that plants receive their growth not according to the ground they ſtand on, but to the ground they can extend their roots into; and therefore a ſingle row may contain more plants than a large interval can nouriſh, and therefore the ſame number that ſtand in that row, and no more than theſe, could be nouriſhed, if ſcattered over the whole interval: and they would be much worſe nouriſhed in that way; becauſe while the interval is void, the earth may be ſtirred about them, and new roots will be formed in great numbers from every one broken by the inſtruments, and new nouriſhment laid before theſe roots by the breaking the particles of earth, by which the plants will have ſupplies that they cannot have when ſcattered over the whole ſurface, becauſe the ground is then all occupied, and cannot be moved between the plants.

All ſoils and all ſituations are not equally proper for this method of planting in rows, with large intervals and hoeing between. The lighteſt ſoils ſeem to be beſt for it, and the tough and wet clays the worſt. Such grounds as lie on the ſides of hills are alſo leſs proper than others for this work. This method is not ſo proper in common fields, but that not in reſpect of the ſoil, but of the huſbandry of the owners, who are uſually in the old way, and change the ſpecies of corn, and make it neceſſary to fallow every year. Nevertheleſs, it has been found by later experiments, that the intervals betwixt the rows of plants, as recommended by Mr Tull, were too

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great, perhaps double of what they should be in the most profitable method of culture; by which means much less crops are obtained than might be produced at nearly the same expence. This has rendered the profits of the drill method much less than they would have been in a more judicious practice, and, consequently, has proved a great discouragement to it in comparison with the broad cast. Mr Tull was led into this, partly from the want of more perfect instruments for hoeing, and of ploughs proper for drilling.

The following observations by Sir JOHN ANSTRUTHER, were published among the Select Papers of the *Bath Society*, on this subject: "The slow progress which the drill husbandry has made in many parts of Great Britain since Mr Tull's time, has been principally owing to the want of proper drill ploughs. Before drilling can become general, these ploughs must be simple, such as a common ploughman is accustomed to use: if any improvements can be without breaking, and such also as common workmen can easily make or repair. Mathematical accuracy he considers as not required for delivering the seed: for it matters very little whether there be a quarter of a peck more or less sown, if it be delivered with tolerable regularity. He therefore had a plough made, according to his own directions, by a common plough wright, of such cut strength for any land as to fit for turnips or wheat. It was tried on very rough ground unfit for sowing, to ascertain its strength; and it had been used for 8 years without needing any repair. It is a double drill plough, which sows two ridges at a time, the horse going in the furrow between them, and of course does not tread upon the ground intended to be sown; which with a single drill must be the case, and does much harm by the horse's feet sinking and making holes in the fine ground, which retain the water, and hurt the wheat when young."

Sir John adds, "That having read Mr FORBES upon the extensive practice of the new husbandry, and some other authors, who give a more clear and distinct account of the different operations in drilling than had heretofore been given, I wished to try them, and to adapt my plough to sow the quantities therein directed. It was, however, adjusted to sow a smaller quantity, and the seed was not steeped. Not having ground so proper as I wished, it was drilled on the side of a field, the soil of which was light and sandy, and in such bad order, that the preceding crop was a very indifferent one. It was therefore manured with a compost dunghill. After cross plowing and manuring, it was laid into 4½ feet ridges, then harrowed and drilled with one peck and a half of wheat on an acre and a quarter, which is nearly one peck and a fifth per English acre. It was drilled the 27th of Oct. and rolled after drilling. The crop was late in its appearance, and very backward in the spring.

"March 31st, it was horse hoed one furrow from the rows. April 8th, it was hand hoed and weeded in the rows. April 25th, horse hoed again, laying a furrow back to the rows. May 15th, hand hoed the 2d time. June 2d, horse hoed a furrow from the rows. June 12th, hand hoed the third time. July 14th, horse hoed to the rows. At this last hoeing, as many of the ears were beaten down into the intervals by wind and rain, a man went before the horse hoe, and turned the ears back into their proper place. The crop, when reaped and threshed, yielded me 36 bushels on one acre and a quarter, which is 28 bushels and three pecks per acre; and the produce was one peck and half 96 for one. As the produce appeared so great, from land in such bad order, it was carefully measured again, and found to be right. But this increase, though great, was not so large as Mr CRAIG of Gilsprow had without dung. Mr RANDAL says, 'It is an experimental fact, that on a fine loam exquisitely prepared 144 bushels have been produced from one acre. And, I believe, it is not known what the increase may be brought to in rich lands by high cultivation.'

"Some years since, I had beans dropped alternately with potatoes, at two feet distance in the rows, which were three feet apart, and planted in the intervals. The land adjoining was sown with beans and peafe, which were a good crop; but those sown among the potatoes a better one. I pulled one stem of the beans planted with potatoes, which had three branches rising from the bottom, and it produced 225 beans. In the trials of drilled beans, most of the stems had two branches, with many pods upon each. From these and other instances, I believe it is not yet known to what increase grain may be brought by drilling, good cultivation, and manure.

"Horse hoeing is certainly preferable to drilling or hand hoeing; but the latter is superior to broad cast. Horse hoeing the full depth increases the crop, by making it tiller or throw more than it otherwise would do; and the advantage is distinctly observable every harvest in the colour of the grain. It prepares the ground for the next crop, at the same time that it increases the crop growing, which hand hoeing does not, although it may destroy the weeds. Thus drilled ground is kept in a loose open state to receive the benefit of the influence of the air and weather, which broad cast has not; and it is evident, from certain experience, that crops may be drilled many years to good advantage without manure. Suppose the crops only 20 bushels per acre, what course of broadcast crops will give so much an acre for the course? But suppose they are dunged the same way as any ground in the most approved course, there is the greatest reason to expect as much as in the above experiment, which is 28 and ¾, and at 5s. per bushel, amounts to £7 3s. 9d. Calculations may be of service to those who wish to try drilling, and have few books to direct them.

"One acre is 10 chains long, of 660 feet, or 220 yards long, and one yard broad, contains 4840 square yards. Then if the ridge is four feet six inches, this makes 14 ridges, and three feet to spare. This length of 220 yards, multiplied by 14 (the number of ridges) gives a length of 3080 yards, to which add 146 for the spare three feet, and it will be 3226 yards. And as two rows are drilled on a ridge, the number of rows will be in length 6452 yards; but as a deduction of

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72 yards muſt be made for the head ridges, ſuppoſe three yards each, &c. the whole length to be ſown will be 6280 yards clear. Now a gallon (Wincheſter) holds about 80,000 grains. The quantity recommended to be drilled by Mr Forbes and others, being ſix gallons, or two thirds of a buſhel per acre, is nearly 78 grains to a yard, 26 to a foot. But in my experiment, by this calculation, it was only about 11 grains to a foot: which is quite ſufficient, if the ſeed be good, and be not deſtroyed by vermin. Now, with reſpect to the quantity of land this drill plough may ſow; if a horſe walks at the rate of two miles an hour, he goes 16 miles in 8 hours, or 28,460 yards. As he ſows two ridges at once, this is 7 yards, and two thirds per acre, or 2686 yards ſow an acre, being nearly 10½ acres in a day. Four horſe hoeings are calculated equal to two plowings. In plain plowing they ſuppoſe the ground is plowed with four furrows, or eight for a complete plowing. The four horſe hoeings are eight hoe-rows, equal to two plowings.

Mr TULL directs 4 hoeings, and Mr FORBES only two. Firſt, in November, when the plant has four or five leaves. 2dly, In March, deep, and nearer the plants than the former; both theſe hoeings ſhould be from the rows. 3dly, Hand hoed when it begins to ſpindle, if the earth be crumbly, *to* the rows. 4thly, When it begins to bloſſom, *from* the rows, but as near to them as in the ſecond hoeing. 5thly, When done bloſſoming, to ripen and fill the grain, *to* the rows. The laſt hoeing Mr Tull does not direct, but Mr Forbes adviſes as being of eſſential ſervice in filling the grain, ſaving trouble in making the next ſeed furrows. They adviſe the patent or ſowing plough for horſe hoeing; and the expence is calculated by Mr Craick at one guinea per acre, reaping included. But let us ſuppoſe the following, which are the prices in the county I live in. (Fife.)

	L.	s.	d.
Plowing to form the ridges, -	0	4	0
Sowing, - - -	0	0	4
Four hoeings, equal to two plowings,	0	8	0
Harrowing, - - -	0	0	4
Second hoeing twice, - -	0	8	0
Seed, one peck and a half, at 5s. a buſhel,	0	1	10½
Whole expence per acre, -	L. 1	2	6

Drill huſbandry is, as a good writer has juſtly called it, "*the practice of a garden brought into the field.*" Every man of the leaſt reflection muſt be convinced, that the practice of the garden is much better than that of the field, only a little more expenſive; but if (as is the caſe) this extra expence generally much more than repaid by the ſuperior goodneſs and value of drilled crops, it ought to have no weight in comparing the two modes of huſbandry.

In the broadcaſt method the land is often ſown without tilth, and always ſcattered at random, ſometimes by very unſkilful hands. In drilling, the land muſt be in fine order; the ſeed is ſet in lines drawn regularly, all of nearly an equal depth, and that depth ſuited to the nature of the kind of ſeed. Theſe ſeeds are alſo diſtributed at proper diſtances, and by being equally and ſpeedily covered, are protected from vermin and other injuries; ſo that the practice of the garden is here exactly introduced into the field. In the broadcaſt method the ſeed falls in ſome places too thick, in others too thin; and being imperfectly covered, a part of it is devoured by vermin which follow the ſower; another part is left expoſed to rain or froſt, or to heats, which greatly injure it. When harrowed, a great part of it (ſmall ſeeds eſpecially) is buried ſo deep, that if the ſoil be wet, it periſhes before it can vegetate.

When thus ſown, there is no meddling with the crop afterwards, becauſe its growth is irregular. The ſoil cannot be broken to give it more nouriſhment, nor can even the weeds be deſtroyed without much inconvenience and injury. But in the drill huſbandry the intervals between the rows, whether double or ſingle, may be horſe hoed; and thereby nouriſhment may repeatedly be given to the plants, and the weeds almoſt totally deſtroyed.

The very ſame effects which digging has upon young ſhrubs and trees in a garden, will reſult from horſe hoeing in a field, whether the crop be corn or pulſe: For the reaſon of the thing is the ſame in both caſes, and being founded in nature and fact, can never fail. In drilling, no more plants are raiſed on the ſoil than it can well ſupport; and by dividing and breaking the ground, they have the full advantage of all its fertility.

The plough prepares the land for a crop, but goes no further; for in the broadcaſt huſbandry it cannot be uſed: but the crop receives greater benefit from the tillage of the land by the horſe hoe, while it is growing, than it could in the preparation. No care in tilling the land previous to ſowing can prevent weeds riſing with the crop; and if theſe weeds be not deſtroyed while the crop is growing, they will greatly injure it. In the broadcaſt huſbandry this cannot be done; but in drilling, the horſe hoe will effect it eaſily. And what adds to the farmer's misfortune is, that the moſt pernicious weeds have ſeeds winged with down, which are carried by the wind to great diſtances; ſuch as thiſtles, ſow thiſtles, colts foot, and ſome others.

If the expence of horſe hoeing be objected, there are two anſwers; the firſt is, that this expence is much leſs than that of hand hoeing were it practicable, or of hand weeding. The 2d is, that it is more than repaid by the quantity of ſeed ſaved by drilling; to ſay nothing of the extra quantity and goodneſs of the crops, which are generally ſelf-evident.

KNIGHT'S HARROW. Many inconveniences having been found to attend the uſe of harrows, even when conſtructed on the moſt improved plans, Mr Knight has been induced to form one upon a very different principle. It is made with wheels and an axle tree, by which means it performs its work with much greater eaſe to the horſes, and the too great ſtreſs on its fore part as well as its liability to be choked up is prevented. It is conſtructed with two joints AA in the axle tree, *Pl.* 294. *fig.* 63. one of which is covered, as when the harrows are at work, the other uncovered, to ſhew the conſtruction of the joint; and

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two joints, *aa*, in the front of the bar; by means of which the pliability of the tree, and that of the bar, humours the wheels, and keeps them in their proper directions in the furrow; and, requiring very little scope of ground, the turnings are rendered very convenient and easy. If, in the course of working the land, a farmer varies in the breadth of his furrows, it is contrived, in order to make the harrow narrower, that part of the bar B, which is fastened by two pins *bb*, may be taken off when requisite; part of the axle tree, and part of the hind bar C, both which are fastened by the iron bolt D, are also to be removed; and the remaining outward parts to be joined and fastened by one of the two pins in the bar, and by a shorter bolt *d*, *Fig.* 64. and intended for the axle tree and hind bar. If the farmer should work two horses which are unequal in height, the horizontal direction, or evenness of the joints, may be destroyed in some degree: to remedy and supply the deficiency in the horses, the whipple tree F, is made to be heightened or lowered by means of notches *e*, *Fig.* 64. to which it is connected by a ring. In light barley lands, when you accommodate your harrow for one horse, by narrowing it as before directed, there are two pins, connected by two rings from the axle tree, through two loops *ff*, under the front bar. The wheel E, under the hind bar, which is shewn enlarged in *Fig.* 65. will support the bar; and, by this assistance, the harrow is conveyed to the field on the axle tree bar, as a substitute for a sledge: there are also two wooden pegs *gg*, by which the harrow, when turned upon the carriage, are secured. Should it be objected, that the harrow will prove expensive on account of the iron, an axle tree and joints may be readily constructed in wood, upon the same principles as shewn in *Fig.* 66. at G; though preference should be given to iron. If the wheel under the hind bars should not be adopted, there is a slider, *Fig.* 67. H, which works with a pin, and, when not wanted, is turned and fastened under the axle tree. As it is found by experience to be very useful to heighten or lower the harrows occasionally, particularly on broad lands rising in the middle; where of course the middle harrow takes most hold, and generally requires the least; this may be easily effected, by fixing irons, with notches, like these on the fore bar, by which the whipple trees are supported, on the hind bar, instead of the hooks, and putting the hooks on those irons.

PART III.

CULTIVATION OF PLANTS, PROPERLY ARTICLES OF COMMERCE.

THESE in general are such as cannot be used for food; and are principally flax, hemp, rape, hops, and timber of various kinds. These are by some treated of under HUSBANDRY, as distinct from AGRICULTURE; but why they should be so, they do not tell us.

SECT. I. *Of* FLAX *and* HEMP.

FLAX is cultivated not only with a view to the common purposes of making linen, but for the sake of its seed also; and thus forms a most extensive article of commerce, all the oil used by painters, at least for common purposes, being extracted from this seed. (See FLAX, § I. 1.—11; FLAX-DRESSING; LINUM, N° 5; and PHARMACY, *Index*, under LINSEED.) The cake which remains after the extraction of the oil is in some places used as a manure, and in others for the fattening of cattle. In the Vale of Gloucester, Mr Marshall informs us that it is, next to hay, the main article of stall fatting; though the trade is now become so great, that it perhaps leaves little or no profit to the consumer. Here some individuals have been induced to try the seed of linseed itself boiled to a jelly, and mixed with flour, bran, or chaff, with good effect. Mr Marshall has been informed; and even the seed itself has been tried for the same purpose in Herefordshire. Though this plant is in universal culture over the whole kingdom, yet it appears by the vast quantity imported, that by far too little ground is employed in that way. As Mr Marshall takes notice of its culture only in Yorkshire, it probably does not make any great part of the husbandry of the other counties of which he treats; and even in Yorkshire he tells us that its cultivation is confined to a few districts. The kind cultivated there is that called "bird seed," or the blue or seed coloured flax, and this requires a rich dry soil for its cultivation. A deep fat, fandy loam is perhaps the only soil on which it can be cultivated with advantage. If sown on old corn land, it ought to be well cleared from weeds, and rendered perfectly fine by a summer fallow. Manure is seldom or ever given for a flax crop; and the soil process consists generally of a single plowing. The seed time is May, but much depends on the state of the soil at the time of sowing. "It should neither be wet nor dry; and the surface ought to be as mellow as fine as that of a garden bed. Not a clod of the size of an egg should remain unbroken." Two bushels of seed are usually sown upon an acre. The surface, after being harrowed, is generally raked with garden or hay rakes; and the operation would be still more complete if the clods and other obstructions, which cannot be easily removed, were drawn into the interfurrows. A light hand roller used between the final raking and harrowing would much assist this operation. It is also requisite during the time of vegetation to have weeding, which ought to be performed with the utmost care; and for this reason it is particularly requisite that the ground should be previously cleaned as well as possible, otherwise the expence of weeding becomes too great to be borne, or the crop must be considerably injured. It is also a comparable injury, if, through a dry season, the plants come up in two crops; or if by accident or bad management they be too thin. The goodness of the crop depends on its running up with a straight stalk without branches; for wherever it runs to branch there the length of the line terminates; and the ramification is the consequence of its having too much room at the root, or getting above the plants which surround it. The branches are never of any use, being unmanageably worked off in dressing, and the flax itself, unless it bear a due proportion to the length of the crop, is likewise worked off

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among the refuse. This ramification of the flax will readily be occasioned by clods on the ground after sown. A 2d crop is very seldom attended with any profit; for being overgrown with the weeding plants of the first crop, it remains weak and short, and at pulling time is left to rot upon the land.

FLAX is injured not only by drought, but by wet, and is sometimes attacked, even when got five or six inches high, by a small white slug, which strips off the leaves to the top, and the flax bending with their weight are thus sometimes drawn into the ground. Hence, if the crop does not promise fair at weeding time, our author advises not to bestow further labour and expence upon it. A crop of turnips or rape will certainly pay much better than such a crop of flax. The time of flax harvest in Yorkshire is generally in the latter end of July, or beginning of August.

On the whole, our author remarks, that "the goodness of the crop depends in some measure upon its length; and this upon its evenness and thickness upon the ground. Three feet high is a good length, and the thickness of a crow's quill a good thickness. A fine stalk affords more line and fewer shivers than a thick one. A tall thick crop is therefore desirable. But unless the land be good, a thick crop cannot attain a sufficient length of stem. Hence the folly of sowing flax on land which is unfit for it. Nevertheless, on a suitable soil, a sufficiency of seed evenly disposited, and a favourable season, flax may turn out a very profitable crop. The flax crop, however, has its disadvantages: it interferes with wheat, and is generally believed to be a great exhauster of the soil, especially when its seed is suffered to ripen. Its cultivation ought therefore to be confined to rich grass land districts, where wheat is a secondary object, and where its exhaustion may be rather favourable than hurtful to succeeding arable crops, by checking the too great luxuriancy of rich fresh broken ground.

In the 5th volume of *Bath Papers*, Mr BARTLEY, of Bristol gives an account of the expences and produce of five acres of flax cultivated on a rich loamy soil. The total expence was 42l. 13s. and the produce was ten packs of flax at 5l. 5s. 52l. 10s. 35 bushels of linseed at 5s. value 8l. 15s. the net profit therefore was 18l. 11s. 8d. or 3l. 13s. 4d. per acre. This gentleman is of opinion that flax growers ought to make it their staple article, and consider the other parts of their farm as subserviency to it.

In vol. 2d of *Bath papers*, a Dorsetshire gentleman, who writes on the culture of HEMP and FLAX, gives an account somewhat different from that of Mr Marshall. That instead of *exhausting* crops, he maintains that they are both *ameliorating* crops if cut without seeding; and as the best crops of both are raised from foreign seed, he is of opinion that there is little occasion for raising it in this country. A crop of hemp, he informs us, prepares the land for flax, and is therefore clear gain to the farmer. "That these plants impoverish the soil," he repeats, "is a mere vulgar notion, devoid of all truth.—The best historical relations, and the verbal accounts of honest ingenious planters, concur in declaring it to be a vain prejudice, unsupported by any authority; and that these crops really meliorate and improve the soil." He is likewise of opinion, that the growth of hemp and flax is not necessarily confined to rich soils, but that they may be cultivated with profit also upon poor sandy ground, if a little expence be laid out in manuring it. "Spalding moor in Lincolnshire is a barren sand; and yet with proper care and culture it produces the best hemp in England, and in large quantities. In the isle of Axholme, in the same county, equal quantities are produced; for the culture and management of it is the principal employ of the inhabitants; and according to Leland, it was so in the reign of Henry VIII. In Marshland the soil is a clay or strong warp, thrown up by the river Ouze, and of such a quality, that it cracks with the heat of the sun, till a hand may be put into chinks; yet if it be once covered with the hemp or flax before the heats come on, the ground will not crack that summer. When the land is sandy, they first sow it with barley, and the following spring they manure the stubble with horse or cow dung, and plough it under. Then they sow their hemp or flax, and harrow it in with a light harrow, having short teeth. A good crop destroys all the weeds, and makes it a fine fallow for flax in the spring. As soon as the flax is pulled, they prepare the ground for wheat. Lime, marl, and the mud of ponds, is an excellent compost for hemp lands."

Our author takes notice of the vast quantity of flax and hemp, not less than 11,000 tons imported in the year 1763 into Britain; and complains that it is not raised in the island, which he thinks might be done, though it would require 60,000 acres for the purpose. He observes, that the greater part of those marshy lands lying to the west of Mendip hills are very proper for the cultivation of hemp and flax; and if laid out in this manner could not fail of turning out highly advantageous both to the landholders and the public at large. "The vast quantities of hemp and flax (says he) which have been raised on lands of the same kind in Lincolnshire marshes, and the fens of the Isle of Ely and Huntingdonshire, are a full proof of the truth of my assertion. Many hundreds of acres in the above mentioned places, which, for pasturage or grasing, were not worth more than 20 or 25 s. per acre, have been readily let at from 2l. to 4l. The following particulars with regard to the manner of raising flax have been for some years past warmly recommended by the trustees for fisheries manufactures, and improvements in Scotland.

I. CHOICE *of the* SOIL, *and* PREPARING *the* GROUND. A skilful flax-raiser always prefers a free open deep loam, and all grounds that produced the preceding year a good crop of turnips, cabbages, potatoes, barley, or broad clover; or have been formerly laid down rich, and kept for some years in pasture. A clay soil, the 2d or 3d crop after being limed, will answer well for flax; provided, if the ground be still stiff, that it be brought to a proper mould, by tilling after harvest, to expose it to winter frosts. All new grounds produce a strong crop of flax, and pretty free of weeds. When many mole-hills appear upon new ground, it answers the better for flax after one tilling. The

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feed ought never to be ſown on grounds that are either too wet or dry; but on ſuch as retain a natural moiſture: and ſuch grounds as are inclined to weeds ought to be avoided, unleſs prepared by a careful ſummer fallow. If the lintſeed be ſown early, and the flax not allowed to ſtand for ſeed, a crop of turnip may be got after the flax that very year; the 2d year a crop of rye or barley may be taken; and the third year graſs ſeeds are ſometimes ſown along with the lintſeed. This is the method moſtly practiſed in and about the counties of Lincoln and Somerſet, where great quantities of flax and hemp are every year raiſed, and where theſe crops have long been capital articles. There, old plowed grounds are never ſown with lintſeed, unleſs the ſoil be very rich and clean. A certain worm, called in Scotland the *corp worm*, abounds in new plowed grounds, which greatly hurts every crop but flax. In ſmall incloſures ſurrounded with trees or high hedges, the flax for want of free air, is ſubject to fail before it be ripe, and the droppings of rain and dew from the trees prevent the flax within the reach of the trees from growing to any perfection. Of preceding crops, potatoes and hemp are the beſt preparation for flax. In the fens of Lincoln, upon proper ground of old tillage, they ſow hemp, dunging well the firſt year; the ſecond year, hemp without dung; the third year, flax without dung; and that ſame year, a crop of turnip eat on the ground by ſheep; the fourth year, hemp with a large coat of dung; and ſo on ſucceſſively.

If the ground be free and open, it ſhould be but once plowed, and that as ſhallow as poſſible, not deeper than 2½ inches. It ſhould be laid flat, reduced to a fine garden mould by good harrowing, and all ſtones and ſods ſhould be carried off. Except a little pigeon's dung for cold or ſour ground, no other dung ſhould be uſed preparatory for flax; becauſe it produces too many weeds, and throws up the flax thin and poor upon the ſtalk. Before ſowing, the bulky clods ſhould be broken, or carried off the ground; and ſtones, quickenings, and every other thing that may hinder the growth of the flax, ſhould be carefully taken away.

II. CHOICE *of* SEED. The brighter in colour, and heavier the ſeed is, ſo much the better; that which when bruiſed appears of a light or yellowiſh green, and freſh in the heart, oily and not dry, and ſmells and taſtes ſweet, and not fuſty, may be depended upon. Dutch ſeed of the preceding year's growth, for the moſt part, anſwers beſt; but it ſeldom ſucceeds if kept another year. It ripens ſooner than any other foreign ſeed. Philadelphia ſeed produces fine lint and few bolls, becauſe ſown thick, and anſwers beſt in wet cold ſoils. Riga ſeed produces coarſer lint, and the greateſt quantity of ſeed. Scotch ſeed, when well winned and kept, and changed from one kind of ſoil to another, ſometimes anſwers pretty well; but ſhould be ſown thick, as many of it's grains are bad, and fail. It ſprings well, and its flax is ſooner ripe than any other; but its produce afterwards is generally inferior to that from foreign ſeed. A kind has been lately imported, called *Memel-ſeed*; which looks well, is ſhort and plump, but ſeldom grows above eight inches, and on that account ought not to be ſown.

III. METHOD *of* SOWING. The quantity of ſeed ſown ſhould be proportioned to the condition of the ſoil; for if the ground be in good heart, and the ſeed ſown thick, the crop will be in danger of falling before it is ready for pulling. In Scotland, from 11 to 12 pecks Linlithgow meaſure of Dutch or Riga ſeed is generally thought ſufficient for one acre; and about ten pecks of Philadelphia ſeed, which, being the ſmalleſt grained, goes fartheſt. Riga lintſeed, and the next year's produce of it, is preferred in Lincolnſhire. The time for ſowing lintſeed is from the middle of March to the end of April, as the ground and ſeaſon anſwer; but the earlier the ſeed is ſown, unleſs the crop interferes with the corn-harveſt. Late ſown lintſeed may grow long, but the flax upon the ſtalk will be thin and poor. After ſowing, the ground ought to be harrowed till the ſeed is well covered, and then (ſuppoſing the ſoil, as before mentioned, to be free and reduced to a fine mould) it ought to be rolled. When a farmer ſows a large quantity of lintſeed, he may find it proper to ſow a part earlier and part later, that in the future operations of weeding, pulling, watering and graſſing, the work may be the eaſier and more conveniently gone about. It ought always to be ſown on a dry bed.

IV. WEEDING. Flax ought to be weeded when the crop is about four inches long. If longer deferred, the weeders will ſo much break and bend the ſtalks, that they will never perhaps recover their ſtraightneſs again; and when the flax grows crooked, it is more liable to be hurt in the ripling and ſwingling. Quicken-graſs ſhould never be taken up; for, being ſtrongly rooted, the pulling of it always looſens a deal of the lint. If there is an appearance of a ſettled drought, it is better to defer the weeding, than by that operation to expoſe the tender roots of the flax to the drought. So ſoon as the weeds are got out, they ought to be carried off the field, inſtead of being laid in the furrow, where they often take root again, and at any rate obſtruct the growth of the flax in the next rows.

For the *pulling*, *rippling*, *ſtacking*, *watering* and *graſſing of flax*, ſee FLAX, § 8—13. For the *cultivation*, *natural hiſtory*, *dreſſing*, *importation*, *uſes*, &c. *of hemp*, ſee CANNABIS, and HEMP, § 1—11.

SECT. II. *Of* RAPE *or* COLE SEED.

RAPE ſeed, as well as lintſeed, is cultivated for the purpoſe of making oil, and will grow almoſt any where. Mr Hazard informs us, that in the north of England the farmers pare and burn their paſture lands, and then ſow them with rape after one plowing; the crop commonly ſtanding for ſeed, which will bring from 25 l. to 30 l. per laſt (80 buſhels.) Poor clay, or ſtone braſh land, will often produce from 12 to 16 or 18 buſhels per acre, and almoſt any freſh or virgin earth will yield one plentiful crop; ſo that many in the northern counties have been raiſed, by cultivating this ſeed, from poverty to affluence. The ſeed is ripe in July or the beginning of Auguſt; and the threſhing of it out is conducted with the greateſt mirth and jollity. The rape being fully ripe, is firſt cut with ſickles, and then laid thin upon the

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the ground to dry; and when in proper condition for threshing, the neighbours are invited, who gladly contribute their assistance. The threshing is performed on a large cloth in the middle of the field, and the seed put into sacks and carried home. The pod does not admit of being carried from the field like the pod to be threshed at home, and therefore the operation is always performed in the field; and by the number of assistants procured on this occasion, a field of 20 acres is frequently threshed out in one day. The straw is burnt for the sake of its alkali, the ashes being said to equal the best kind of those imported from abroad.

The proper time for sowing rape is June; and the land should, previous to the sowing, be twice well ploughed. About 2 lb. of seed are sufficient for an acre; and, according to our author, it should be cast upon the ground with only the thumb and two fore-fingers; for if it be cast with all the fingers, it will come up in patches. If the plants come up too thick, a pair of light harrows should be drawn along the field length-ways and cross-ways; by which means the plants will be easily thinned; and when the plants which the harrows have pulled up are withered, the ground should be rolled. A few days after the plants may be set out with a hoe, allowing 16 or 18 inches distance betwixt every two plants.

Mr HAZARD strongly recommends the transplanting of rape, having experienced the good effects of it himself. A rood of ground, sown in this way, will produce as many plants as are sufficient for 10 acres; which may be planted out upon ground that has previously born a crop of wheat, provided the wheat be harvested by the middle of August. One plowing will be sufficient for these plants; the best of which should be selected from the seed-plot, and planted in rows two feet asunder, and 16 inches apart in the rows. As rape is an excellent food for sheep, they may be allowed to feed upon it in the spring; or the leaves might be gathered, and given to oxen or young cattle: the leaves would sprout again from the same stalk, which in like manner might be fed off by sheep and lambs in time enough to plough the land for a crop of barley and oats. Planting rape in the beginning of July, however, would be most advantageous for the crop itself, as the leaves might then be fed off in the autumn, and new leaves would appear in the spring. Our author disapproves the practice of sowing rape with turnips, as the crops injure one another. "Those who look for an immediate profit (says he), will undoubtedly cultivate rape for seed; but perhaps it may answer better in the end to feed it with sheep: the fat ones might cull it over first, and afterwards the lean or store-sheep might follow them, and be folded thereon: if this is done in autumn or soon, the land will be in good heart to carry a crop of wheat; or where the rape is fed off in the spring, a crop of barley might follow. In either case rape is profitable to the cultivator; and when once planted, and well earthed round the stems, it will endure the severest winter; but the same can not be advanced in favour of that which is sown broad-cast."

In the Agricultural Survey of Kent it is remarked that this seed is much cultivated on the poor lands of the eastern part of that county, under the same management as turnips; but that it is seldom hoed, and consequently much over-run with charlock. Sometimes, although rarely, it is sown for seed; but most commonly fed off with lean flocks of sheep. Cattle and sheep, when poor, are however very subject to be destroyed by eating greedily of this plant.

SECT. III. *Of* CORIANDER, CANARY, *and some* OTHER SEEDS.

CORIANDER is used in large quantities by distillers, druggists, and confectioners, and might be a considerable object to such farmers as live in the neighbourhood of great towns; but the price is very variable, viz. from 16s. to 42s. per cwt. In the 4th volume of *Bath Papers*, Mr Bartley gives an account of an experiment made on this seed, which proved very successful. Ten perches of good sandy loam were sown with coriander on the 23d of March 1783. Three pounds of seed were sufficient for this spot; and the whole expence amounted only to 5s. 10d. The produce was 87 lb. of seed, which valued at 3d. yielded a profit of 15s. 11d. or 15l. 18s. 4d. per acre. He afterwards made several other experiments on a larger scale; but none of the crops turned out so well though all of them afforded a good profit.

Canary Seed is cultivated in large quantities in the Isle of Thanet, where it is said they have frequently 20 bushels to an acre. Mr Bartley in March 1783, sowed half an acre of ground, the soil a mixture of loam and clay, but had only eight bushels and an half, or 17 bushels per acre. With this produce, however, he had a profit of 4l. 2s. 3d. per acre.

In Kent, where this seed is much cultivated, Mr Boys says there are 3 kinds of tilths, for it, viz. summer fallow, bean stubble, and clover lay; the last he considers the best. If the land is not very rich, a coat of rotten dung is frequently spread for it. Whether manured or not, the tillage necessary is to plow the land the first opportunity that offers after wheat-sowing is done; and, as soon as the land is tolerably dry in the spring, furrows are made about 11 or 12 inches apart, and the seed is sown broad cast, about 4 or 5 gallons per acre, and well harrowed in. When the blade appears, and the rows are distinct, the intervals are immediately hoed with a Dutch hoe, and afterwards, in May or June, the hoeing is repeated with a common hoe; carefully cutting up every weed, and thinning the plants in the furrows, if they are too thick. It is cut in the harvest, which is always later than any corn crop, with a hook, called a *twibil* and a *bink*; by which it is laid in lumps, or wads, of about half a sheaf of each. The seed clings remarkably to the husk; and to detach it, the crop must be left a long time on the ground to receive moisture sufficient to destroy the texture of the envelopment, otherwise it would be hardly possible to thrash out the seed. The wads are turned from time to time, to have the full benefit of the rains and sun.

RADISH SEED. For this crop the land should be clean, full of manure, and plowed a good depth in the early part of the winter. In Kent, they

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they cultivate the early *Short Top*, the *Salmon*, and the *Turnip rooted*. The feed is fown on furrows, about ten inches apart, in a dry time in the month of March, about two or three gallons per acre. As foon as the plants appear, every other row is cut up with a horfe hoe, leaving the rows twenty inches apart. When the plants get 2 or 3 rough leaves, they are hoed out in rows, and are then kept clean by repeated horfe and hand-hoeing, when neceffary, leaving the plants at about eighteen inches diftance. The crop is feldom fit to reap till October, and fometimes is out in the fields till Chriftmas, without receiving injury from wet weather; it being neceffary that it fhould have much rain to rot the pods, that it may thrafh well. The produce is from 8 to 24 buthels per acre.

SPINACH SEED. Two forts of this feed are cultivated, the prickly and the round: both are fown in furrows, about 12 or 14 inches apart; the prickly, fix gallons per acre, and the round 4. Early in March, when the plants have leaves about an inch or two in length, they are hoed out to the diftance of 4 or 5 inches. When the crop is in full bloom, the greater part of the male plants are drawn out by hand, and given profitably to young pigs; by which operation the female plants have more room to grow, and perfect their feed. The crop, when ripe, is pulled up, and thrafhed in the field on a cloth, or carried to the barn for that purpofe.

SECT. IV. *Of* WOAD.

THE ufe of Woad in dyeing is well known, (See ISATIS, and WOAD,) and the confumption is fo great, that the raifing of the plant might undoubtedly be an object to an hufbandman, provided he could get it properly manufactured for the dyers, and could overcome their prejudices. At prefent, the growing of this plant is in a manner monopolized by fome people in particular places, particularly at Keynham near Briftol in England. Mr HARTLEY informs us, that in a converfation he had with thefe growers, the latter aflerted, that the growth of woad was peculiar to their foil and fituation. The foil about this place is a blackifh heavy mould, with a conliderable proportion of clay; but works freely: that of Briftington, where Mr Bartley refides, an hazel, fandy loam: Nevertheleis, having fowed half an acre of this foil with woad feed, it throve fo well, that he never faw a better crop at Keynham.

WOAD grows to the greateft advantage on a light black rich foil, which has a fouthern fituation. Land intended for woad fhould be dunged a year before it is fown with this plant, and to be firft to bear a crop of wheat, &c. This being taken off, 3 deep ftirrings fhould be given with the plough, the firft in November, and the other two in fpring. It is often fown fo early as in the beginning of April; but when it is too cold at that period, the fowing muft be deferred till May. In this climate, however, it is often not fown until fome time later.

In fome parts of Kent this plant is much cultivated. It is frequently fown on poor, ftiff, and fome chalky lands, in the proportion of ten or twelve pounds of feed to the acre, and among beans before the laft hoeing in the beginning of July. It requires no culture while growing, unleis the land be full of weeds; in which cafe the weeds muft be drawn out by the hand, or cut up with a narrow hoe. When the plants have produced their bloom up to the top of the ftem, they are pulled up, then tied by a fingle ftalk in fmall handfuls, and fet up in a conical form to dry. When thoroughly dry, the feed is fhaken out on a cloth or into a tub, the plants being then bound with rope-yarn into bundles, each weighing 56 lb. 60 of thefe bundles, make a load or wain, the price of which is generally from 4l. to 10l. The Kentifh growers are faid to cultivate and prepare it in the beft manner.

SECT. V. *Of* MADDER.

THIS is a plant alfo ufed by the dyers. (See DYEING, *Part* III. *Sect.* IV. and RUBIA.) It has formerly much cultivated in the eaftern part of Kent: "I am firmly perfuaded, fays Mr Hartley, that good crops of excellent madder may be raifed in Kent, on foils properly adapted to the purpofe; and that it would be a profitable article of culture, if it were never under 3l. per cwt. nor would the buyers be injured by a rife to this price; but then the legiflature muft interpofe to prevent the importation of the root from abroad, where it can be cultivated cheaper. Perhaps, if that country fhould continue unfriendly to us, it might be good policy to encourage the growth of madder at home. I have many years, fays he, been in the habit of cultivating it, but from the low price at market, have been obliged to abandon it. There have been feveral methods of planting practifed; but that which appears beft left, is to plant it in fingle rows, about two feet apart. The land fhould be perfectly clean from weeds, and have been well manured the preceding year, fo that the dung may be well incorporated with the foil; which fhould be a fine deep rich fandy loam, without any redundancy of moifture. To prepare the land for planting, it fhould be plowed in the autumn, to have the benefit of the winter's froft, and harrowed in dry weather in the fpring, and then kept clean by horfe hoeing, until the plants are ready for drawing, which is ufually by the end of May, or beginning of June. The proper time is known by the plants having reached the height of ten or twelve inches from the ground, and having produced roots branching out from the bottom of the fuckers; which will be promoted by drawing up a few of them. When the fuckers are in this ftate, all hands neceffary to this work are to be provided, that the operation may proceed with every poffible difpatch. One acre requires about 20,000 plants. The plants fhould have about a 3d of their tops cut off, and then their roots fhould be dipped in earth and mould and water beaten together to the confiftence of batter; which prevents the neceffity of watering them. It requires one woman to dip the plants, two to carry and ftrew them in handfuls along the furrow, and about 7 to follow the plough. The land fhould be plowed, with a ftrong turnwreft plough with fix horfes, twelve or fourteen inches deep: women attend to lay the plants about eight or nine inches apart in every other furrow, leaning off from the plough; one

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which, every time the plough returns, the row of plants laid in by women who follow the plough, is covered with the earth of the furrow. The crop must be kept perfectly clean by the hoe and hand weeding during the summer months, and earthed up with the plough each autumn until the third after planting, when the roots are dug up by trenching the land two feet deep; two children attending each digger, in order to pick out the roots.

The most proper time to take up the roots is when they are about the size of a swan's quill; for then they yield most dye, and are of course most proper for use; but the time when they arrive at this proper state depends not only on the nature of the soil in which they have been planted, but also on the good husbandry that has been bestowed on the land.

Sect. VI. *Of* Hops.

The use of Hops, as an ingredient in malt liquor, is well known. Formerly, however, they were supposed to possess such deleterious qualities, that the use of them was forbid by act of parliament in the reign of James VI. But though this act was never repealed, it does not appear that much regard was ever paid to it, as the use of hops is still continued, and is found not to be attended with any bad effects on the human constitution. A full account of the cultivation, management, &c. of Hops, is given under the article, Hop, N° 1—9, the only question is, How far the raising a crop of them may be profitable to an husbandman; and this seems to be doubtful.

Mr Arthur Young, in a fortnight's tour through Kent and Essex, informs us, that at Castle Hedingham he was told by Mr Rogers, who had a considerable hop plantation, that 4 acres of hop ground cost him upwards of 120l. and that the usual expences of laying out an acre of ground in this way amounted to 34l. 6s. By a calculation of the expences of an acre in Kent, it appeared that the money sunk to plant an acre there amounted to 32l. 8s. 6d.; that the annual expence was 23l. and the profit no more than 1l. 8s. 1d. In another place, he was informed by a Mr Potter, who cultivated great quantities of hops, that if it were not for some extraordinary crops which occurred now and then, nobody would plant them. In Essex, the expences of an hop plantation are full greater than these; an acre many years ago requiring 75l. to lay it out on hops, and now not less than 100l. the annual expence being estimated at 31l. 18. while the produce commonly does not exceed 32l.

In vol. IId. of the Annals, Mr Young informs us, that "one profit of hop land is that of breaking it up. Mr Potter grubbed up one garden, which failing, he plowed and sowed barley, the crop great; then mazagan beans, two acres of which produced 16 quarters and five bushels. He then sowed it with wheat, which produced 13 quarters and four bushels and an half; but since that time the crops have not been greater than common. The same gentleman has had 10 quarters of oats after wheat." In the 9th vol. there is an account of an experiment by Mr Le Bland of Sittingbourn in Kent, of grubbing up 12 acres of hop ground. Part of the hops were grubbed up in 1781, and mazagan beans sown in their stead; but the seed being bad, and the summer dry, the crop turned out very indifferent. Next year the remainder of the hops were grubbed up, and the whole 12 acres sown with wheat; but still the crops turned out very bad, owing to the *wet* summer of that year. It was next planted with potatoes, which turned out well; and ever since that time the crops have been good. This gentleman informs us, that the person who had the hop ground above mentioned did not lose less by it than 150ol.

The culture of hops seems to be confined in a great measure to the southern counties of England; for Mr Marshall mentions it as a matter of surprise, that in Norfolk he saw a "tolerably large hop garden." The proprietor informed him, that 3 or 4 years before there had been 10 acres of hops in the parish (Blowfield) where he resided; which was more than could be collected in all the rest of the county; but at that time there were not above five; and the culture was daily declining, as the crops, owing to the low price of the commodity, did not defray the expence.

From all this it appears, that hops are perhaps the most uncertain and precarious crop on which the husbandman can bestow his labour. Mr Young is of opinion, that some improvement in the culture is necessary; but he does not mention any, excepting that of planting them in espaliers. This method was recommended both by Mr Rogers and Mr Potter. The former took the hint from observing, that a plant which had been blown down, and afterwards shot out horizontally, always produced a greater quantity than those which grew upright. He also remarks, that hops which are late picked carry more next year than such as are picked early; for which reason he recommends the late picking. The only reason for picking early is, that the hops appear much more beautiful than the others.

Sect. VII. *Of the* Cultivation *of* Apples *and* Pears.

In Herefordshire and Gloucestershire the cultivation of fruit for the purpose of making a liquor from the juice, forms a principal part of their husbandry. In Devonshire also considerable quantities of this kind of liquor are made, though much less than in these two counties. For the cultivation, curing, and management of fruit-trees in general, see Fruit-trees, § I—V.

The fruits cultivated in Herefordshire and Gloucestershire are, the apple, the pear, and the cherry. From the two first are made the liquors named *cyder* and *perry*. See Cyder, § 1—6; Cyderkin; and Perry, N° 4. Mr Marshall remarks, that nature has furnished only one species of pears and apples, *viz.* the common crab of the woods and hedges, and the wild pear, which is also pretty common. The varieties of these fruits are entirely artificial, being produced not from seed, but by a certain mode of culture; whence it is the business of those who wish to improve fruit, to catch at superior accidental varieties; and having raised them by

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cultivation to the higheſt perfection of which they are capable, to keep them in that ſtate by artificial propagation. Mr Marſhall, however, obſerves, that it is impoſſible to make varieties of fruit altogether permanent, though their duration depends much upon management. "A time arrives (ſays he) when they can no longer be propagated with ſucceſs. All the old fruits which raiſed the fame of the liquors of this country are now loſt, or ſo far on the decline as to be deemed irrecoverable. The *redſtreak* is given up; the celebrated *ſtir-apple* is going off; and the *ſquaſh-pear*, which has probably furniſhed this country with more *champaign* than was ever imported into it, can no longer be got to flouriſh: the ſtocks canker, and are unproductive. In Yorkſhire ſimilar circumſtances have taken place: ſeveral old fruits which were productive within my own recollection are loſt; the ſtocks cankered, and the trees would no longer come to bear."

Our author controverts the common notion among orchard-men, that the decline of the old fruits is owing to a want of freſh grafts from abroad, particularly from Normandy, whence it is ſuppoſed that apples were originally imported into this country. Mr Marſhall, however, thinks, that theſe original kinds have been long ſince loſt, and that the numerous varieties of which we are now poſſeſſed were raiſed from ſeed in this country. At Ledbury he was ſhown a Normandy apple-tree, which, with many others of the ſame kind, had been imported immediately from France. He found it, however, to be no other than the *bitter-ſweet*, which he had ſeen growing as a neglected wilding in an Engliſh hedge.

The proceſs of raiſing new varieties of apples, Mr Marſhall ſays, is ſimple and eaſy. "Select among the native ſpecies individuals of the higheſt flavour; ſow the ſeeds in a highly enriched ſeed-bed. When new varieties, or the improvement of old ones, are the objects, it may be eligible to uſe a frame or ſtove; but where the preſervation of the ordinary varieties only is wanted, an ordinary loamy ſoil will be ſufficient. At any rate, it ought to be perfectly clean at leaſt from root weeds, and ſhould be double dug from a foot to 18 inches deep.—The ſurface being levelled and raked fine, the ſeeds ought to be ſcattered on about an inch aſunder, and covered about half an inch deep with ſome of the fineſt mould previouſly raked off the bed for that purpoſe. During ſummer the young plants ſhould be kept perfectly free from weeds, and may be taken up for tranſplantation the enſuing winter; or if not very thick in the ſeed bed, they may remain in it till the ſecond winter.

"The nurſery ground ought alſo to be enriched, and double dug to the depth of 14 inches at leaſt; though 18 or 20 are preferable. The ſeedling plants ought to be ſorted agreeably to the ſtrength of their roots, that they may riſe evenly together. The top or downward roots ſhould be taken off, and the longer ſide rootlets ſhortened. The young trees ſhould then be planted in rows 3 feet aſunder, and from 15 to 18 inches diſtant in the rows; taking care not to cramp the roots, but to lead them evenly and horizontally among the mould. If they be intended merely for ſtocks to be grafted, they may remain in this ſituation until they be large enough to be planted out; though, in ſtrict management, they ought to be re-tranſplanted two years before their being tranſferred into the orchard, "in freſh but unmanured double-dug ground, a quincunx four feet apart every way. In this 2d tranſplantation, as well as in the firſt, the branches or the root ought not to be left too long, but to be ſhortened in ſuch a manner as to induce them to form a globular root, ſufficiently ſmall to be removed with the plant; yet ſufficiently large to give it firmneſs and vigour in the plantation.

Having thus proceeded with the ſeed bed, the author adds the following directions: "Single from among the ſeedlings the plants whoſe wood and leaves wear the moſt *apple-like* appearance. Tranſplant theſe into a rich deep ſoil in a good ſituation, letting them remain in this nurſery until they begin to bear. With the ſeeds of the trees richeſt, and beſt flavoured fruit repeat this proceſs; and at the ſame time, or in due ſeaſon, graft the wood which produced this fruit on ſtocks of the richeſt, ſweeteſt, beſt flavoured apples. By repeating this operation, and tranſferring the graft or bud under improvement from one tree and ſtock to another, as richneſs, flavour, or firmneſs may require; continuing this double mode of improvement until the deſired fruit be obtained. This has, no doubt, been a period when the improvement of the apple and pear was attended to in this country; and ſhould not the ſame ſpirit of improvement revive, it is probable that the country will, in a courſe of years, be left deſtitute of valuable kinds of theſe two ſpecies of fruit; which though they may in ſome degree be deemed objects of luxury, long cuſtom ſeems to have raiſed among the neceſſaries of life."

In the *Bath Papers*, vol. 4, Mr Grimwood ſuppoſes the degeneracy of apples to be rather imaginary than real. He ſays, that the evil complained of "is not a real decline in the quality of the fruit, but in the tree; owing either to want of health, the ſeaſon, ſoil, mode of planting, or the ſtock they are grafted on, being too often taken from the ſeed of apples in the ſame place or country.—I have not a doubt in my own mind, that the trees which are grafted on the ſtocks raiſed from the apple-pips are more tender than thoſe grafted on the real crab-ſtock; and the ſeaſons in this country have, for many years paſt, been unfavourable for fruits, which add much to the ſuppoſed degeneracy of the apple. It is my opinion, that if planters of orchards would procure the trees grafted on real crab-ſtocks from a diſtant country, they would find their account in ſo doing much overbalance the extra expence of charge and carriage."

In the ſame volume, Mr Edmund Gillingwater aſſigns as a reaſon for the degeneracy of apples the mixture of various farina, from the orchards being too near each other. In conſequence of this notion, he alſo thinks that the oldeſt and beſt kinds of apple-trees are not loſt, but only corrupted from being planted too near bad neighbours. "Remove them (ſays he) to a ſituation where they

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ey are not expoſed to this inconvenience, and ey will immediately recover their former excel-ency."

In this volume alſo Mr Richard Samuel expreſ- his concern at the "preſent neglect of orchards, re the old trees are decaying, without proper viſion being made for the ſucceeding age: for farmer plants freſh trees, there is ſeldom any e taken to propagate the better ſorts, as his ſts are uſually taken promiſcuouſly from any nary kind moſt eaſily procured in the neigh-urhood." His remedy is to collect grafts from beſt trees; by which means he ſuppoſes that ſuperior kinds of fruit would ſoon be recover-

To a care of this kind he attributes the ſupe-ity of the fruit in the neighbourhood of great n to that in other places.

With regard to the method of cultivating fruit-s, it is only neceſſary to add, that while they ain in the nurſery, the intervals betwixt them be occupied by ſuch kitchen-ſtuff as will not rd or overſhadow the plants; keeping the in the mean time perfectly free from weeds. pruning them, the leader ſhould be particular-ttended to. If it ſhoot double, the weaker of contending branches ſhould be taken off; but e leader be loſt, and not eaſily recoverable, plant ſhould be cut down to within a hand's of the ſoil, and a freſh ſtem trained. The moſt boughs ſhould be taken off by degrees, over the plants every winter; but taking to preſerve heads of ſufficient magnitude draw the ſtems up too tall, which would them feeble in the lower part. The ſtems Herefordſhire are trained to ſix feet high; but author prefers 7, or even half a rood in height. ll ſtemmed tree is much leſs injurious to what s below it than a low headed one, which is in danger of being hurt, at the ſame time it hurts the crop under it. The thickneſs of em ought to be in proportion to its height; hich reaſon a tall ſtock ought to remain long-the nurſery than a low one. The uſual ſize hich they are planted out in Herefordſhire is 4 to 6 inches girt at 3 feet high; which ſize, proper management, they will reach in 7 or . The price of theſe ſtocks in Hereford-is 18d. each.

Herefordſhire it is common to have the nd of the orchards in tillage, and in Glouceſ-hire in graſs; which Mr Marſhall ſuppoſes to owing to the difference betwixt the ſoil of the counties; that of Herefordſhire being gene-arable, and Glouceſter graſs land. Trees, ever, are very deſtructive, not only to a crop rn, but to clover and turnips; though tillage vourable to fruit trees in general, eſpecially n young. In graſs grounds their progreſs is paratively ſlow, for want of the earth being ed about them, and by being injured by the le, eſpecially when low-headed and drooping. r they begin to bear, cattle ought by all means be kept away from them, as they not only de-y all the fruit within their reach, but the fruit if is dangerous to the cattle, being apt to ſtick their throats and choak them. Theſe incon-uences may be avoided, by eating the fruit ands bare before the gathering ſeaſon, and keeping the boughs out of the way of the cattle: but Mr Marſhall is of opinion, that it is wrong to plant orchards in graſs land. "Let them (ſays he) lay their old orchards to graſs: and if they plant, break up their young orchards to arable. This will be changing the courſe of huſbandry, and be at once beneficial to the land and to the trees."

Our author complains very much of the indo-lent and careleſs method in which the Hereford-ſhire and Glouceſterſhire farmers manage their orchards. The natural enemies of fruit-trees (he ſays) are, 1. A redundancy of wood. 2. The miſſetoe. 3. Moſs. 4. Spring froſts. 5. Blights. 6. Inſects. 7. An exceſs of fruit. 8. Old age.

1. A redundancy of wood is prejudicial, by reaſon of the barren branches depriving thoſe which bear fruit of the nouriſhment which ought to belong to them. A multitude of branches alſo give the winds ſuch an additional power over the tree, that it is in perpetual danger of being over-thrown by them: trees are likewiſe thus injured by the damps and want of circulation of air, ſo that only the outer branches are capable of bring-ing fruit to maturity. "It is no uncommon ſight (ſays he) to ſee trees in this diſtrict, with two or three tires of boughs preſſing down hard upon one another, with their twigs ſo intimately interwoven, that even when the leaves are off, a ſmall bird can ſcarcely creep in among them.

2. The miſſetoe, in this country, is a great ene-my to the apple-tree. It is eaſily pulled out with hooks in froſty weather, when, being brittle, it readily breaks off from the branches. It likewiſe may be applied to a profitable purpoſe, ſheep be-ing as fond of it as of ivy.

3. Moſs can only be got the better of by induſ-try in clearing the trees of it; and in Kent there are people who make it their profeſſion to do ſo.

4. Spring froſts, eſpecially when they ſuddenly ſucceed rain, are great enemies to fruit-trees; dry froſts only keep back the bloſſoms for ſome time. Art can give no farther aſſiſtance in this caſe than to keep the trees in a healthy and vigorous ſtate, ſo as to enable them to throw out a ſtrength of bud and bloſſom; and by keeping them thin of wood, to give them an opportunity of drying quickly before the froſt ſet in.

5. Blight is a term, as applied to fruit trees, which Mr Marſhall thinks is not underſtood. Two bearing years, he remarks, ſeldom come together; and he is of opinion, that it is the mere exhauſting of the trees by the quantity of fruit which they have carried one year, that prevents them from bearing any the next. The only thing therefore that can be done in this caſe is, to keep the trees in as healthy and vigorous a ſtate as poſſible.

6. Inſects deſtroy not only the bloſſoms and leaves, but ſome of them alſo the fruit, eſpecially pears. In 1783 much fruit was deſtroyed by waſps. Mr Marſhall adviſes to ſet a price upon the female waſps in the ſpring; by which theſe miſchievous inſects would perhaps be exterminated, or at leaſt greatly leſſened.

7. An exceſs of fruit ſtints the growth of young trees, and renders all in general barren for two or three years; while in many caſes the branches are broken off by the weight of the fruit; and in one caſe Mr Marſhall mentions, that an entire tree

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had ſunk under its burthen. To prevent as much as poſſible the bad effects of an exceſs of fruit, Mr Marſhall recommends "to graft in the boughs," and when fully grown, to thin the bearing branches; thus endeavouring, like the gardener, to grow fruit every year."

8. Though it is impoſſible to prevent the effects of old age, yet by proper management the natural life of fruit-trees may be conſiderably protracted. The moſt eligible method is to graft ſtocks of the native crab in the boughs. The decline of the tree is preceded by a gradual decline of fruitfulneſs, which long takes place before the tree manifeſts any ſign of decay. During this decline of fruitfulneſs, there is a certain period when the produce of a tree will no longer pay for the ground it occupies, and beyond this period it ought by no means to be allowed to ſtand. In the Vale of Glouceſter, however, our author ſaw an inſtance of ſome healthy bearing apple trees, which then had the *ſecond* tops to the ſame ſtems. The former tops having been worn out, were cut off, and the ſtumps ſaw-grafted. Our author obſerves, that the pear tree is much longer lived than the apple, and ought never to be planted in the ſame ground. He concludes with the following general obſervation: "Thus conſidering fruit-trees as a crop in huſbandry, the general management appears to be this: Plant upon a recently broken up worn out ſward. Keep the ſoil under a ſtate of arable management, until the trees be well grown: then lay it down to graſs, and let it remain in ſward until the trees be removed, and their roots be decayed; when it will again require a courſe of arable management."

Sect. VIII. *Of* Making Cyder *and* Perry.

Cyder and Perry are great objects of Britiſh huſbandry; the manufacturing of which forms a capital branch in our fruit counties, and of which the improvement muſt be conſidered as of great importance to the public, but particularly ſo to the inhabitants of thoſe diſtricts where theſe liquors conſtitute their common beverage. Cyder and perry, when genuine and in high perfection, are excellent vinous liquors, and are certainly far more wholeſome than any others which at preſent are in much higher eſtimation.

Cyder is made from apples, and Perry from pears only. See Cyder, § 1—6. The general method of preparing both theſe liquors is very much the ſame; and under the article Cyder a deſcription is given of the way in which thoſe fruits are gathered, ground, and preſſed. The preſs or mill is not eſſentially different from that of a common tanner's mill for grinding bark. See Cyder, § 4; and Press, § 6.

Perry. The ſame method is followed in making this liquor as in that of cyder. The beſt pears for perry, or at leaſt the ſorts which have been hitherto deemed the fitteſt for making this liquor, are ſo exceſſively tart and harſh, that they cannot be eaten as fruit: Of theſe the *Boſtury pear*, the *Barekand pear*, and the *Horſe pear*, are the moſt eſteemed for perry in Worceſterſhire, and the *ſquaſh pear*, in Glouceſterſhire; in both which counties, they are planted in the hedge-rows and moſt common fields. Pear trees will thrive on land where apples will not even live, and ſome of them grow to ſuch a ſize, that a ſingle pear-tree, particularly of the *Boſtury* and the *Squaſh* kind, has frequently been known to yield, in one ſeaſon, from one to four hogſheads of perry. The *Boſtury* pear is ſaid to yield the moſt laſting and moſt vinous liquor. Pears, as well as apples, ſhould be fully ripe before they are ground.

Sect. IX. *Of* Cherries *and* Filberds.

In Kent, they generally prefer for this fruit a ſituation where there is a deep ſurface of loam upon the rock. But by ſome it is ſaid that there is not any neceſſity for a great depth of ſoil. In reſpect to diſtance apart, cherry-trees require to be planted according to their ſorts; a *heart* requiring double the diſtance of a *duke* or *morello*. But when planted by themſelves, they are generally placed from 20 to 30 feet diſtant, and are put ſomewhat deeper in the earth than apples; but in other reſpects the management is the ſame.

Cherry Wine. A cooling and pleaſant drink is made from the juice of cherries when properly fermented. For making this liquor the cherries ſhould hang upon the trees till they are thoroughly ripe, in order that their juice may be perfected and enriched by the ſun; and they ſhould be gathered in dry weather. The juice is then preſſed out, and a quantity of ſugar proportioned to the intended ſtrength of the wine muſt be added, and the whole regularly fermented. When the wine is become fine, it muſt be bottled for uſe.

Filberds are much cultivated about Maidſtone in Kent. The ſoil beſt adapted for them is a ſtone-ſhattery ſandy loam, of a quality ſomewhat inferior; as it is a diſadvantage for the trees to grow with great luxuriance, they bearing the nuts when but moderately ſtrong. If they are planted among hops, without apples or cherries, they are put about 12 feet apart: when the trees are dug up, the filberd plantation is kept clean by repeated digging and hoeing; and great care is neceſſary in pruning, to make them bear well. This is indeed entirely owing to ſkill and management in this operation that the trees are rendered ſo productive upon even a favourite ſoil. Theſe trees are generally trained in the ſhape of a punch bowl, and never ſuffered to grow above 4 or 5 feet high, with ſhort ſtems, like a gooſeberry buſh, and exceeding thin of wood. If ſuffered to ſtand the fruit this fruit will keep good for ſeveral years in a room or cloſet; but when gathered, they muſt be laid thin on the floor of a room where the air can get in to dry them properly.

Sect. X. *Of raiſing* Trees *for* Timber, *and other* Purposes.

The importance and value of theſe is ſo well known, that it is ſuperfluous to ſay any thing on that ſubject: notwithſtanding this acknowledged value, however, the growth of timber is ſo ſlow, and the returns for planting ſo diſtant, that it is generally ſuppoſed for a long time to be a poſitive loſs, or at leaſt to be attended with no profit. This matter, however, when properly conſidered will appear in another light. There are four diſtinct ſpecies of woodlands, viz. woods, trees grow-

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roves, coppices, and woody waſtes. The woods re a collection of timber trees and underwood; id the coppices are collections of underwood a- me. All theſe turn out to advantage ſooner or ter, according to the quick or ſlow growth of e trees, and the ſituation of the place with re- ect to certain local advantages. Thus in ſome laces underwood is of great conſequence, for s, hoops, ſtakes, fuel, &c. and by reaſon of s growth it may be accounted the moſt profit- le of all plantations. An oſier-bed will yield a turn of profit the 2d or 3d year, and a coppice 15 or 20 years; while a plantation of oaks will ot arrive at perfection in leſs than a century. his laſt period is ſo long, that it may be ſuppoſ- d likely to deter people from making ſuch plan- tions of this kind, as few are willing to take any uble for what they are never to ſee in perfec- on. It muſt be remembered, however, that tho' he trees themſelves do not come to perfection in ſhorter time, the value of the ground will al- ays increaſe in proportion to their age. Mr AYLER in the *Bath Papers*, vol. iv. computes the alue of 50 acres of oak timer in 100 years to be 2,100 l. which is nearly 50s. annually per acre; nd as this is continually accumulating without y of that expence or riſk to which annual crops e ſubject, planting of timber may be accounted ne of the moſt profitable articles in huſbandry. Evelyn calculates the profit of 1000 acres of oak nd in 150 years, at no leſs than 670,000 l. But would be improper to occupy with timber of uch ſlow growth, the grounds which either in rais or corn can repay the trouble of cultivation vith a good annual crop.

In the Bath Papers, vol. 4. Mr WAGSTAFFE ecommends planting as an auxiliary to cultiva- ion. He brings an inſtance of the ſucceſs of Sir William Jerringham, who made trial of "the moſt mpromiſing ground perhaps that any ſucceſsful maſter has hitherto attempted." His method was to plant beech trees at proper diſtances a- mong Scotch firs, upon otherwiſe barren heaths. "Theſe trees (ſays Mr Wagſtaffe,) in a ſoil per- haps without clay or loam, with the heathy ſod branched into its broken ſtrata of ſand or gravel, under the protection of the firs, have laid hold, though ſlowly, of the ſoil; and accelerated by the ſuperior growth of the firs, have proportionally riſen, until they wanted an enlargement of ſpace for growth when the firs were cut down." He adds, that when the firs are felled, their roots de- cay in the ground; and thus furniſh by that de- cay a new ſupport to the ſoil on which the beeches grow; whereby the latter receive an additional vigour, as well as an enlargement of ſpace and freer air; the firs themſelves, though cut down before they arrived at their full growth, being al- ſo applicable to many valuable purpoſes.

In the *Annals of Agriculture*, vol. 6. we find the culture of trees recommended by Mr HARRIES: and he informs us, that the larch is the quickeſt grower and the moſt valuable of all the reſinous timber trees: but unleſs there be pretty good room allowed for the branches to ſtretch out on the lower part of the trunk, it will not arrive at any conſiderable ſize; and this obſervation, he ſays, holds good of all pyramidal trees. Scotch firs may be planted between them, and pulled out after they begin to obſtruct the growth of the larch. Some of theſe larches he had ſeen plant- ed about 30 years before, which at 5 feet diſtance from the ground meaſured from 4 feet to 5 feet 6 inches in circumference. The moſt barren grounds, he ſays, would anſwer for theſe trees, but better ſoil is required for the oaks. In this paper he takes notice of the leaves of one of his plantations of oaks having been almoſt entirely deſtroyed by inſects; in conſequence of which they did not in- creaſe in bulk as uſual; but another which had nearly eſcaped theſe ravages, increaſed at an ave- rage one inch in circumference. "A tree 4 feet round (ſays he), that has timber 20 feet in length, gains by this growth a ſolid foot of timber annu- ally, worth one ſhilling at leaſt, and pays 5 per cent. for ſtanding. It increaſes more as the tree gets from five to ſix feet round. I have in my groves 3000 oaks that pay me one ſhilling each per annum, or 150 l. a year. My poplars have gained in circumference near two inches, and a Worceſter and witch elm as much. I have late- ly been informed that the ſmooth cut of a holly- tree, that meaſures 20 inches and upwards round, is worth to the cabinet-makers 2s. and 6d. per foot.

The following table ſhows the increaſe of trees in 21 years from their firſt planting. It was taken from the marquis of LANSDOWNE's plantation, begun in 1765, and the calculation made on the 15th of July 1768. It is about ſix acres in extent, the ſoil partly a ſwampy meadow upon a gravel- ly bottom. The meaſures were taken at 5 feet above the ground; the ſmall firs having been oc- caſionally drawn for poſts and rails, as well as rafters for cottages; and when peeled of the bark, will-ſtand well for 7 years.

	Height in Feet.	*Circumference in Feet. Inch.*
Lombardy poplar -	60 to 80	4 8
Arbeal - -	50 to 70	4 6
Plane - -	50 to 60	3 6
Acacia - -	50 to 60	2 4
Elm - -	40 to 60	3 6
Cheſnut - -	30 to 50	2 9
Weymouth pines -	30 to 50	2 5
Cluſter ditto -	30 to 50	2 5
Scotch fir -	30 to 50	2 10
Spruce ditto -	30 to 50	2 2
Larch - -	50 to 60	3 10

From this table it appears, that planting of timber trees, where the return can be waited for during the ſpace of 20 years, will undoubtedly re- pay the original profits of planting, as well as the intereſt of the money laid out; which is the bet- ter worth the attention of a proprietor of land, that the ground on which they grow may be ſup- poſed good for very little elſe. From a compa- rative table of the growth of oak, aſh, and elm timber, given in the *Annals of Agriculture*, vol. 11. it appears that the oak is by much the flow- eſt grower of the three.

With reſpect to the growth of under wood, which in ſome caſes is very valuable, it is to be remarked, that to have an annual fall of it, the whole quantity of ground, whatever its extent may be, ought to be divided into annual ſowings.

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The exact number of ſowings muſt be regulated by the uſes to which it is intended to be put. Thus if, as in Surrey, ſtakes, edders, and hoops are ſaleable, there ought to be 8 or 10 annual ſowings; or if, as in Kent, hop poles are demanded, 14 or 15 will be required; and if, as in Yorkſhire, rails be wanted, or, as in Glouceſterſhire, cordwood be moſt marketable, 18 or 20 ſowings will be neceſſary to produce a ſucceſſion of annual falls. Thus the buſineſs, by being divided, will be rendered leſs burdenſome: a certain proportion being every year to be done, a regular ſet of hands will, in proper ſeaſon, be employed; and by beginning upon a ſmall ſcale, the errors of the firſt year will be corrected in the practice of the 2d, and thoſe of the 2d in that of the 3d. The produce of the intervals will fall into regular courſe; and when the whole is completed, the falls will follow each other in regular ſucceſſion. The greateſt objection to this method of ſowing woodlands is the extraordinary trouble in fencing: but this objection does not hold if the ſowings lie at a diſtance from one another; on the contrary, if they lie together, or in plots, the entire plot may be incloſed at once: and if it contain a number of ſowings, ſome ſubdiviſions will be neceſſary, and the annual ſowing of theſe ſubdiviſions may be fenced off with hurdles, or ſome other temporary contrivance; but if the adjoining land be kept under the plough, little temporary fencing will be neceſſary. But in raiſing a woodland from ſeeds, it is not only neceſſary to defend the young plants againſt cattle and ſheep, but againſt hares and rabbits: ſo that a cloſe fence of ſome kind is abſolutely neceſſary. See FENCE and HEDGE.

With regard to the preparation of the ground for raiſing timber, if the ſoil be of a ſtiff clayey nature, it ſhould receive a whole year's fallow; if light, a crop of turnips may be taken; but at all events it muſt be made perfectly clean before the tree ſeeds be ſown, particularly from perennial root weeds; as, after the ſeeds are ſown, the opportunity of performing this neceſſary buſineſs is in a great meaſure loſt. If the ſituation be moiſt, the ſoil ſhould be gathered into wide lands, ſufficiently round to let the water run off from the ſurface, but not high. The time of ſowing is either October or March; and the method as follows: "The land being in fine order, and the ſeaſon favourable, the whole ſhould be ſown with corn or pulſe adapted to the ſeaſon of ſowing: if in autumn, wheat or rye may be the crop; but if in ſpring, beans or oats. Whichever of theſe ſpecies be adopted, the quantity of ſeed ought to be leſs than uſual, to give a free admiſſion of air, and prevent the crop from lodging. The ſowing of the grain being completed, that of the tree-ſeeds muſt be immediately ſet about. Theſe are to be put in drills acroſs the land: acorns and nuts ſhould be dibbled in, but keys and berries ſcattered in trenches or drills drawn with the corner of a hoe, as gardeners ſow their peaſe. The diſtance might be a quarter of a ſtatute rod, or 4 feet and 1½ inches. A land chain ſhould be uſed in ſetting out the drills, as not being liable to be lengthened or ſhortened by the weather. It is readily divided into roods; and the quarters may be eaſily marked.

The ſpecies of under-wood to be ſown muſt be determined by the conſumpt of it in the neighbourhood. Thus, if ſtakes, hoops, &c. be in requeſt, the oak, hazel and aſh, are eſteemed as under-wood. Where charcoal is wanted for iron forges, beech is the prevailing underwood. The oak, box, birch, &c. are all in requeſt in different countries, and the choice muſt be determined by the prevailing demand. As the keys of the aſh ſometimes lie two or even three years in the ground, it will be proper to have the places where they are ſown diſtinguiſhed by ſome particular marks, to prevent them from being diſturbed by the plough after harveſt; as a few beans ſcattered along with them, if the crop be oats; or oats, if the crop be beans. The crop ſhould be reaped, not *mown*, at harveſt time, and be carried off as faſt as poſſible. Between harveſt and winter a pair of furrows ſhould be laid back to back in the middle of each interval, for meliorating the next year's crop, and laying the ſeedling plants dry; while the ſtubble of the unplowed ground on each ſide of the drills will keep them warm during the winter. The next year's crop may be potatoes, cabbages, turnips, or if the firſt was corn, this may be beans; if the firſt was beans this may be wheat drilled. In the ſpring of the 3d year the drills which roſe the firſt year muſt be looked over, and the vacancies filled up from thoſe parts which are thickeſt; but the drills of the aſh ſhould be let alone till the 4th year. The whole ſhould afterwards be looked over from time to time; and this, with cultivating the intervals, and keeping the drills free from weeds, will be all that is neceſſary until the tops of the plants begin to appear. The crops may be continued for ſeveral years; and if they only pay the expences, they will ſtill be of conſiderable advantage by keeping the ground ſtirred, and preſerving the plants from hares and rabbits. Even after the crops are diſcontinued, the ground ought ſtill to be ſtirred, alternately throwing the mould to the roots of the plants, and gathering it into a ridge in the middle of the interval. The beſt method of doing this is to ſplit the ground at the approach of winter to throw it up to the trees on both ſides; this will preſerve the roots from froſt: gather it again in the ſpring, which will check the weeds, and give a freſh ſupply of air: ſplit again at mid-ſummer, to preſerve the plants from drought: gather, if neceſſary, in autumn, and ſplit as before at the approach of winter. The ſpring and mid-ſummer plowings ſhould be continued as long as a plough can paſs between the plants.

Whenever the oaks intended for timber are in danger of being drawn up too ſlender for their height, it will be neceſſary to cut off all the reſt at the height of about an handbreadth above the ground; and thoſe deſigned to ſtand muſt now be planted at about two rods diſtant from each other, and as nearly a quincunx as poſſible. The 2d cutting muſt be determined by the demand for the underwood; with this proviſo, that the timber ſtands be not too much crowded by it; for

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rather than this ſhould be the caſe, the cop-
e ſhould be cut, though the wood may not
e reached its moſt profitable ſtate. What is
e ſaid of the method of rearing oak trees in
ods, is in a great meaſure applicable to that of
ing other trees in timber groves. The ſpecies
t uſually raiſed in theſe are the aſh, elm,
ch, larch, ſpruce fir, Weymouth pine, poplar,
low, alder, cheſnut, walnut, and cherry. The
e laſt are uſed as ſubſtitutes for the oak and
ch, and theſe two for the mahogany.

PART IV.

THE MANAGEMENT OF LIVE STOCK.

CT. I. *Of the* CATTLE PROPER *to be* EMPLOYED.

S great part of the ſtock of an huſbandman
l always conſiſt of cattle, and one of his prin-
l expences is in the maintenance of them, this
of his buſineſs is certainly to be looked upon
ery important. The cattle belonging to a
may be divided in two claſſes, viz. ſuch as
ntended for work, and ſuch as are deſigned
le. The former are now principally horſes,
ten formerly employed being fallen into diſ-
though it does not yet certainly appear that
ſons for the exchange are ſatisfactory. In
ol. of *Bath Papers*, we have an account of a
rative experiment of the utility of horſes
en in huſbandry, by Mr KEDINGTON near
, in Suffolk, in which the preference is de-
ly given to oxen. He ſays that when he
the experiment in 1779, he was almoſt cer-
hat there was not an ox worked in the whole
ry; finding, however, the expence of horſes
great, he purchaſed a ſingle pair of oxen,
ound much difficulty in breaking them, as
workmen were ſo much prejudiced againſt
that they would not take the proper pains.
he met with a labourer who undertook
k; and the oxen "ſoon became as tract-
and as handy, both at plowing and carting,
horſes." On this he determined to part
his cart horſes; and when he wrote his
1781,) he had not a ſingle horſe, nor more
oxen; which inconſiderable number per-
d with eaſe all the work of his farm (conſiſt-
upwards of 100 acres of arable land and 60
ture and wood), beſides the ſtatute duty on
ghways, timber and corn, carting, harrow-
rolling, and every part of rural buſineſs.
are conſtantly ſhoed; their harneſs is the
as that of horſes (excepting the neceſſary al-
ns for difference of ſize and ſhape); they
ven with bridles and bits in their mouths,
ng to the ſame words of the ploughman
rter as horſes will do. A ſingle man holds
ough, and drives a pair of oxen with reins:
r author informs us, that they will plow
e of ground in leſs than 8 hours, or even in
he intervals of a ſmall plantation, in which
es are ſet in rows 10 feet aſunder, are plow-
a ſingle ox with a light plough, and he is
by the man who holds it. The oxen go
rt either ſingle, or one, two, or three, ac-
g to the load. Four oxen will draw 80
buſhels of barley or oats in a waggon with eaſe;
and if good of their kind, will travel as faſt as
horſes with the ſame load. One ox will draw 40
buſhels in a light cart, which our author thinks
is the beſt carriage of any. On the whole, he
prefers oxen to horſes for the following reaſons:

1. They are kept at much leſs expence, never
eating meal or corn of any kind. In winter they
are fed with ſtraw, turnips, carrots, or cabbages;
or inſtead of the three laſt, they have each a peck
of bran per day while kept conſtantly at work. In
ſpring they eat hay; and if working harder than
uſual in ſeed-time, they have alſo bran. When
the vetches are fit for mowing, they get them only
in the ſtable. After the day's work in ſummer
they have a ſmall bundle of hay, and ſtand in the
ſtable till they cool; after which they are turned
into the paſture. Our author is of opinion, that
an ox may be maintained in condition, for the
ſame conſtant work as an horſe, for at leaſt 4 l.
leſs annually. 2. After a horſe is 7 years old, his
value declines every year; and when lame, blind,
or very old he is ſcarce worth any thing; but an
ox, in any of theſe ſituations, may be fatted, and
ſold for even more than the firſt purchaſe; and
will always be fat ſooner after work than before.
3. Oxen are leſs liable to diſeaſes than horſes. 4.
Horſes are often liable to be ſpoiled by ſervants
riding them without their maſter's knowledge,
which is not the caſe with oxen. 5. A general uſe
of oxen would make beef plentiful, and conſe-
quently all other meat; which would be a nation-
al benefit.

Mr KEDINGTON concludes his paper with ac-
knowledging, that there is one inconvenience at-
tending the uſe of oxen, viz. that it is difficult to
ſhoe them; though even this, he thinks, is owing
rather to the unſkilfulneſs of the ſmiths who have
not been accuſtomed to ſhoe theſe animals, than
to any real difficulty. He confines them while
the operation is performing.

Mr MARSHALL, in his *Rural Economy of the
Midland counties*, ſhows the advantage of employ-
ing oxen in preference to horſes from the mere ar-
ticle of expence, which, according to his calcula-
tion, is enormous on the part of the horſes. He
begins with eſtimating the number of ſquare miles
in England; and this he ſuppoſes to be 30,000 of
cultivated ground. Suppoſing the work of huſ-
bandry to be done by horſes only, and each ſquare
mile to employ 20 horſes, which is about 3 to 100
acres, the whole number uſed throughout Britain
would be 600,000; from which deducting one ſixth
for the number of oxen now employed, the number
will be 500,000. Admitting that each horſe works
ten years, the number of farm-horſes which die
annually are 50,000; each of which requires full
four years keep before he is fit for work. Horſes
indeed are broke in at three, ſome at two, years
old, but they are, or ought to be, indulged in
keep and work till they are ſix; ſo that the coſt of
rearing and keeping may be laid at full four ordi-
nary years. For all this conſumption of vegetable
produce he returns the community not a ſingle ar-
ticle of food, clothing, or commerce; even his
ſkin for economical purpoſes being barely worth
the taking off. By working horſes in huſbandry,
therefore, "the community is loſing annually the
amount

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amount of 200,000 years keep of a growing horſe;" which at the low eſtimate of 5 l. a-year, amounts to a million annually. On the contrary, ſuppoſing the buſineſs of huſbandry to be done ſolely by cattle, and admitting that oxen may be fatted with the ſame expenditure of vegetable produce as that which old horſes require to fit them for full work, and that inſtead of 50,000 horſes dying, 50,000 oxen, of only 52 ſtone each, are annually ſlaughtered; it is evident, that a quantity of beef nearly equal to what the city of London conſumes would be annually brought into the market; or 100,000 additional inhabitants might be ſupplied with 1 lb. of animal food a-day each; without conſuming one additional blade of graſs. Oxen (adds Mr Marſhall,) appear "to be perfectly handy, and work, either at plough or cart, in a manner which ſhows, that although horſes may be in ſome caſes *convenient*, and in moſt caſes *pleaſurable to the driver*, they are by no means *neceſſary* to huſbandry. A convenience uſed in this country is a moveable *harneſs-houſe*, with a ſledge bottom, which is drawn from place to place as occaſion may require. Thus no labour is loſt either by the oxen or their drivers. In Yorkſhire oxen are ſtill uſed, though in much fewer numbers than formerly. The Yorkſhire plough was formerly of ſuch an unwieldy conſtruction, that 4 or 6 oxen, in yokes, led by two horſes, were abſolutely requiſite to draw it; but the improvements in the conſtruction of the plough have of late been ſo great, that two horſes are now ſufficient for the purpoſe; ſo that as Yorkſhire has always been famous for its breed of horſes, we are not to wonder at the preſent diffuſe of oxen. For theſe and other reaſons, the employment of oxen *at all* is to Mr Marſhall a convincing argument of their utility as beaſts of draught. The timber carriers ſtill continue to uſe them, even though their employment be ſolely upon the road. They find them not only able to travel working every day, but to bear long hours better than horſes going in the ſame pasture. An ox in a good paſture ſoon fills his belly, and lies down to reſt; but an horſe can ſcarce ſatisfy his hunger in a ſhort ſummer's night. Oxen are alſo much ſuperior at a difficult paſs to horſes. Horſes of draught coſt at 4 years old from 20 l. to 30 l.; they will, with extravagant keep, extraordinary care and attendance, and much good luck, continue to labour 8 or 10 years; and may then generally be ſold for 5 s. a-head. If we had no other ſpecies of animals adapted to the purpoſes of draught in the iſland, cart-horſes would be very valuable. But it is evident, that were only a ſmall ſhare of the attention paid to the breeding of draught oxen which is now beſtowed on the breeding of cart-horſes, animals equally powerful, more active, leſs coſtly, equally adapted to the purpoſes of huſbandry if harneſſed with equal judgment, leſs expenſive in keep and attendance, much more durable, and infinitely more valuable after they have finiſhed their labours, might be produced. A ſteer, like a colt, ought to be familiarized to harneſs at 2 or 3 years old, but ſhould never be ſubjected to hard labour until he be 5 years old; from which age, until he be 15 or 20, he may be conſidered as in his prime as a beaſt of draught. "An ox (ſays Mr Marſhall) which I worked ſeveral years in Surrey, might at 17 or 18 years of age have challenged for ſtrength, agility, and ſagacity the beſt bred cart-horſe in the kingdom."

SECT. II. *Of* HORSES, *and the* METHODS OF BREEDING, REARING, *and* FEEDING *them.*

THE midland counties of England have for ſome time been celebrated on account of their breed of the *black cart-horſe*; though Mr Marſhall is of opinion that this kind are unprofitable as beaſts of draught in huſbandry. The preſent improvement in the breed took its riſe from ſix Zealand mares ſent over by the late Lord Cheſterfield during his embaſſy at the Hague. Theſe mares being kept at his lordſhip's ſeat at Bretby in Derbyſhire, the breed of horſes thus became improved in the county, and for ſome time it took the lead for the ſpecies of theſe animals. As the improved breed paſſed into Leiceſterſhire, however, through ſome unknown circumſtances, it became ſtill more improved, and Leiceſter has for ſome time taken the lead. It is now found, however, that the very large horſes formerly bred in this diſtrict are much leſs uſeful than ſuch as are of a ſmaller ſize. Mr Marſhall deſcribes in lofty terms one of the large horſes, a ſtallion belonging to Mr BAKEWELL, which, he ſays, was the handſomeſt horſe he ever ſaw. "He was (ſays he) the fancied *horſe* of the German painters; who, in the exuberance of imagination, never perhaps exceeded the natural grandeur of this horſe. A man of middle ſize ſeemed to ſhrink behind his fore end, which roſe ſo perfectly upright, that his ears ſtood (Mr Bakewell ſays every horſe's ears ought to do) perpendicularly over his fore feet. It may be ſaid with little latitude, that in grandeur and ſymmetry of form, viewed as a picturable object, he exceeded as far the horſe which this ſuperior artiſt had the honour of ſhowing to his Majeſty, which was afterwards ſhown publicly at Lambeth, as that horſe does the meaneſt of the breed." The more *uſeful* horſe, bred alſo by Mr Bakewell, however, is deſcribed as having "a thick carcaſe, back ſhort and ſtraight, and his legs ſtout and clean: as ſtrong as an ox, yet active as a horſe, equally ſuitable for a cart or a lighter carriage."

The ſtallions in this county are bred either by farmers or by perſons whoſe buſineſs it is to breed them, and who therefore have the name of breeders. (See EQUUS, N° III. and HORSE, p. 1.) The laſt either cover with them, or let them to others for the ſeaſon, or ſell them. The prices given for them are from 50 to 200 guineas or more; from 40 to 80 or 100 by the leaſt; and from half a crown to two guineas by the day. "The price of foals (ſays Mr MARSHALL) for the laſt ten years, has been from 5 l. to 10 l. or 12 l. for yearlings, 10 to 15 or 20; for two-year-olds, 15 to 25 or 30; for ſix year-olds from 30 to 40 guineas."—He owns that this breed of horſes are a profitable ſpecies of live ſtock, and that there is a market for ſix-year-old horſes of this breed, it is profitable to agriculture. "But (ſays he) by viewing agriculture in general, not one perſon in ten can partake of the profit; and if kept in agriculture after they have reached the profitable age, they become ſubſtantially one of its heavieſt burdens. Even the beſt breed of

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ave paſſed that age, may, unleſs they be of a ve- ſuperior quality, be deemed unprofitable to ie farmer."

Mr MARSHAL, complains that the ancient breed Norfolk horſes is almoſt entirely worn out. hey were ſmall, brown-muzzled, and light boned; it they could endure very heavy work, with little od: two of them were quite equal to the plough the ſoil of that county, which is not deep. The ſent breed is produced by a croſs with the large e of Lincolnſhire and Leiceſterſhire already men- ned. He approves of the Suffolk breed, which ſays) are a "half-horſe half-hog race of ani- ls, but better adapted to the Norfolk huſband- than the Leiceſterſhire breed;" their principal lt, in his opinion, is a flatneſs of the rib.—In Vale of Glouceſter moſt farmers rear their own ugh horſes. They are of a very uſeful kind, colour moſtly black, inclinable to tan colour, rt and thick in the barrel, and low on their legs. e price of a ſix-year-old horſe from 25l. to 35l. e cart horſes are bred in Cotſwold hills; the res are worked till the time of foaling, but not le they ſuckle; and the foals are weaned ear- while there is plenty of grain upon the ground. kſhire, which has been long celebrated for its d of horſes, ſtill ſtands foremoſt in that reſ- among the Engliſh counties. It is chiefly re- ble for the breed of ſaddle horſes, which not be reared in Norfolk, though many at- pts have been made for that purpoſe. York- e ſtallions are often ſent into Norfolk; but ugh the foals may be handſome when young, y loſe their beauty when old. In Yorkſhire, on other hand, though the foal be ever ſo unpro ing, it acquires beauty, ſtrength, and activity as grows up. Mr Marſhall ſuppoſes that from 5000 10,000 horſes are annually bred up between the ern moorelands and the Humber.

In the breeding of horſes he complains greatly the negligence of the Yorkſhire people, the res being almoſt totally neglected; though in brute creation almoſt every thing depends up- the female. With regard to the general main- nance of horſes. Mr Marſhall recommends the ndſome management of horſes as the cheapeſt me- d of feeding them practiſed any where. In win- when little work is to be done, their only rack- ge is barley-ſtraw; a reſerve of clover-hay be- uſually made againſt the hurry of ſeed-time. buſhel of corn in the moſt buſy ſeaſon is com- ed to be an ample allowance for each horſe, d in more leiſure times a much leſs quantity ſuf- nt. Oats and ſometimes barley, when the latter cheap and unſaleable, are given; but in this caſe barley, is generally malted, *i. e.* ſteeped and erwards ſpread abroad for a few days, until it gin to vegetate, when it is given to the horſes, d is ſuppoſed to be leſs heating than in its natural te. Chaff is univerſally mixed with horſe corn: great quantities of corn grown in this country ord in general a ſufficiency of *natural* chaff; the aff, or rather the awns of barley, which in ſome ces are thrown as uſeleſs to the dunghill, are re in good eſteem as provender. This method keeping horſes which Mr Marſhall approves of the Norfolk farmers, is practiſed, and probably s been ſo from time immemorial, in many places

of the north of Scotland; and is found abundantly ſufficient to enable them to go through the labour required. In ſummer they are in Norfolk kept out all night, generally in clover leys and in ſummer their keep is generally clover only, a few tares excepted.

In the *Annals of Agriculture*, vol. 4. Mr YOUNG gives an account of the expences of keeping horſes; which, notwithſtanding the vaſt numbers kept in the iſland, ſeems ſtill to be very indeterminate, as the informations he received varied no leſs than on his own farm of the expence of horſes kept from L. 8 to L. 25 a year. From accounts kept for no other purpoſe than that of agriculture, he ſtated the average on the whole at L. 11: 12: 3. On the diſcordant accounts he received Mr Young obſerves, that many of the extra expences depend on the extravagance of the ſervants, while ſome of the apparent ſavings depend either on their careleſſneſs, or *ſtealing* provender to their beaſts privately. He concludes, however, "The more exactly the expence of horſes is examined into, the more advantageous will the uſe of oxen be found. Every day's experience convinces me more and more of this. If horſes kept for uſe alone, and not for ſhow, have proved thus expenſive to me, what muſt be the expence to thoſe farmers who make their fat ſleek teams an object of vanity? It is eaſier conceived than calculated."

Notwithſtanding all theſe ſtrong arguments urged by Mr Young, Mr HENRY HARPER, an eminent Lancaſhire farmer, in a comparative view of the expence of the purchaſe and keep, of 3 horſes and 3 oxen, for one year, makes a balance of 44l. os. 6d. in favour of horſes. But in the calculation he ſtates 49s. per week, or 127l. 8s. a year, for gain by his horſe team.

SECT. III. *Of the* BREEDING *and* REARING *of* BLACK CATTLE.

THESE are reared for the two different purpoſes, viz. for work, and for ſlaughter. For the former purpoſe, Mr Marſhall remarks, that it is neceſſary to procure a breed without horns. This he thinks would be no diſadvantage, as *horn*, though formerly an article of ſome requeſt, is now of very little value. The horns are uſeleſs to cattle in their domeſtic ſtate, though nature has beſtowed them upon them as weapons of defence in their wild ſtate; and our author is of opinion that it would be quite practicable to produce a hornleſs breed of black cattle as well as of ſheep, which laſt has been done by attention and perſeverance; and there are now many hornleſs breeds of ſheep in Britain. Nay, he inſiſts, that there are already 3 or 4 breeds of hornleſs cattle in the iſland; and that there are many kinds of which numbers of individuals are hornleſs, and from theſe by proper care and attention a breed might be formed. The firſt ſtep is to ſelect females; and having obſerved their imperfections, to endeavour to correct them by a well choſen male.

The other properties of a perfect breed of black cattle for the purpoſes of the dairy as well as others, according to Mr Marſhall, are as follows: 1. The head ſmall and clean, to leſſen the quantity of offal. 2. The neck thin and clean, to lighten the fore end, as well as to leſſen the collar, and

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make it fit close and easy to the animal in work. 3. The carcase large, the chest deep, and the bosom broad, with the ribs standing out full from the spine; to give strength of frame and constitution, and to admit of the intestines being lodged within the ribs. 4. The shoulders should be light of bone, and rounded off at the lower point, that the collar may be easy, but broad to give strength; and well covered with flesh for the greater ease of draught, as well as to furnish a desired point in fatting cattle. 5. The back ought to be wide and level throughout; the quarters long; the thighs thin, and standing narrow at the round bone; the udder large when full, but thin and loose when empty, to hold the greater quantity of milk; with large dug-veins to fill it, and long elastic teats for drawing it off with greater ease. 6. The legs (below the knee and hock) straight, and of a middle length; their bone, in general, light and clean from fleshiness, but with the joints and sinews of a moderate size, for the purposes of strength and activity. 7. The flesh ought to be mellow in the state of fleshiness, and firm in the state of fatness. 8. The hide mellow, and of a middle thickness.

As the milk of cows is an article of great importance, it is an object to the husbandman, if possible, to prevent the waste of that useful fluid, which in the common way of rearing calves is unavoidable. A method of bringing up these young animals at less expence, is proposed by the Duke of Northumberland. His plan is to make skimmed milk answer the purpose of that which is newly drawn from the teat; and which, he supposes, might answer the purpose at one 3d of the expence of new milk. The articles to be added to the skimmed milk are treacle and the common linseed oil cake ground very fine, and almost to an impalpable powder, the quantities being so small, that to make 32 gallons would cost only 6d. besides the skimmed milk very readily, and almost intimately with making it more rich and mucilaginous giving it any disagreeable taste. The making it is as follows: Take one gallon med milk, and to about a pint of ounce of treacle, stirring it until it then take one ounce of linseed oil cake verised, and with the hand let it fall very small quantities into the milk the mean time with a spoon or ladle throughly incorporated; then let put into the other part of the milk be made nearly as warm as new milk first taken from the cow, and in this for use. The quantity of the oil may be increased as occasion requires calf becomes inured to its flavour.

On this subject Mr YOUNG re rearing calves, there are two objects portance. 1. To bring them up milk at all; and, 2. To make skim swer the purpose of such as is n sucked from the cow. In consequ ums offered by the London So tempts have been made to accom sirable purposes; and Mr BUDG in Surrey was rewarded for an thod. This was to give the calves a gruel made of ground barley and oats. But Mr Young, who tried this method with two calves, assures us that both of them died. When in Ireland he had an opportunity of purchasing calves at three days old from 20d. to 3s. each; by which he was led to repeat the experiment many times over. This he did in different ways, having collected various receipts. In consequence of these he tried hay tea, bean meal mixed with wheat flour, barley and oats ground nearly, but not exactly, in Mr Buder's method; but the principal one was flax seed boiled into a jelly, and mixed with warm water; this being recommended more than all the rest. The result of all these trials was, that out of 30 calves, only 3 or 4 were reared; those few were brought up with barley and oatmeal and a very small quantity of flax seed jelly; one only excepted, which at the desire of his coachman was brought up on a mixture of two pints skimmed milk, and one third of water, with a small addition of flax jelly well dissolved. The 2d object, viz. that of improving skimmed milk according to the plan of the Duke of Northumberland, seems to be the more practicable of the two. Mr Young informs us, that it has answered well with him for two seasons; and two farmers to whom he communicated it gave likewise a favourable report.

In the 3d vol. of the same work, we are informed that the Cornwall farmers use the following method in rearing their calves. "They are taken from the cow from the 4th to the 8th day, after which they have raw [illegible] from six to ten or 14 days. After this they [illegible] with scalded skimmed milk and [illegible] shelled oats from 3 quarts to 4 [illegible] the morning and the same in the [illegible] common family broth is thought [illegible] than the grain. The proportion of [illegible] is about one third of the milk given [illegible] little fine hay set before them, [illegible] begin to eat."

In vol. 5. of [illegible] have an account by Mr Crook of [illegible] successful experiment on rearing [illegible] milk at 2d. a gentleman, in [illegible] 17 calves; in 1786 23; and in [illegible] 787, he bought [illegible] sacks of [illegible] 5s. which [illegible] whole three [illegible] quart of it was [illegible] fix quarts [illegible] ich, by boiling [illegible] nutes, with [illegible] jelly: the calves [illegible] fed with [illegible] a small quantity made [illegible] hay in [illegible] By the [illegible] three times [illegible] that [illegible] being [illegible]

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teat until they be 6, 9, or 12 months old, let- them run either with their dams or with s of leſs value bought on purpoſe. Each cow enerally allowed one male or two female es. Thus they grow very faſt, and become rifingly vigorous. The method of the dairy is to let the calves ſuck for a week or a fort- according to their ſtrength; next they have milk in pans for a few meals; after that new ſkimmed milk mixed; then ſkimmed milk a- or porridge made with milk, water, ground &c. ſometimes with oil cake, &c. until ſe making commences; after which they have porridge, or ſweet whey in the field, being fully houſed in the night until the warm wea- come in. With regard to the method of ning cattle, turnips are coming into general hroughout Britain. In Norfolk no other me- is thought of. The general rule is, to allow to eat their turnips in the field while the ther remains moderately warm, but to give under cover when it becomes wet or very . In this reſpect, however, there is a conſi- ble difference with regard to the manner in ch the cattle have been brought up; for ſuch ave been accuſtomed to a ſevere climate will the winter in the field much better than e which have been brought up under ſhelter. fleſh of cattle fatted under cover is alſo leſs eable than that of ſuch as feed in the open

§. IV. *Of the* MANAGEMENT *of the* DAIRY.

is this includes not only the proper method reſerving milk in a wholeſome and uncorrup- but the making of butter and cheeſe may be accounted as important a part ry as any; and according ave been written expreſly

ath Papers, Vol. 5. the as accurate and ſcientif ſon as by any perſon r; at leaſt as far as re The requiſites for commodity, are the fo ave cows *of a* goo a attend more to th milk of a cow yi tity of milk; an of from the thi cows (he ſays) nown; thou ifferent kind others; an after, that

than ſuch as had liberty to range in old paſtures. B the cows ſhould be permitted to paſture at pleaſure during the mornings and evenings, and at noon ſhould be taken into a houſe, and ſupplied with freſh food. If abundantly fed, they ſhould be milked three times a day; and as great care ſhould be taken that this operation be properly performed, only confidential perſons ſhould be employed. He ſuppoſes that a cow well fed, will give as much milk each time when milked thrice, as when milked only twice.

3. *The* QUALITIES *of the* MILK *itſelf*. (See MILK, § 2, 5—9.) Theſe are reduced by our author to the following: 1. Of the milk drawn from a cow at any time, that which comes firſt is always thinneſt, and continues to increaſe in thickneſs to the laſt drop. This, as well as all the ſucceeding ones, are proved by experiment; and ſo great is the importance of attending to it, that "the perſon who, by bad milking of his cows, loſes but half a pint of his milk, loſes, in fact, as much cream as would be afforded by 6 or 8 pints at the beginning, and loſes beſides that part of the cream which alone can give richneſs and high flavour to his butter." 2. When milk throws up cream to the ſurface, that portion which riſes firſt will be thicker, and of better quality, as well as in greater quantity, than that which riſes in a ſecond equal portion of time. 3. Thick milk throws up a ſmaller quantity of cream to the ſurface than ſuch as is thinner; but that cream is of a richer quality. If water be added to that thick milk, it will afford a conſiderably greater quantity of cream than before, but its quality is at the ſame time greatly debaſed. 4. Milk when carried in veſſels to any diſtance, ſo as to ſuffer conſiderable agitation, never throws up cream ſo rich, nor in ſuch quantity, as if the ſame had been put into the milk pans without any agitation. From theſe aphoriſms, the following corollaries are deducible. 1. The cows ought always to be milked as near the dairy as poſſible. 2. The milk of different cows ſhould be kept by themſelves, that the good cows may be diſtinguiſhed from the bad. 3. For butter of a very fine quality, the firſt drawn milk ought always to be kept ſeparate from the laſt.

Our author commends the method uſed by the Highlanders where every cow is allowed to ſ calf. The calves are kept in the time of milking, when t to come to the door. Each ed to ſuck its dame as long as t es; when it is driven away, an s the remainder. Thus they quantity of milk, but of exuality; and to this practice Dr s the richneſs of the Highland is uſually attributed to the old graſs giens of the Highlands. Where this nnot be economically followed the commends to keep the milk which rſt, and that which comes laſt, ſeparate each other. The for be ſold , or made into cheeſe. or mentions, viz. "Tak milk when it begins to turn

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make it fit cloſe and eaſy to the animal in work. 3. The carcaſe large, the cheſt deep, and the boſom broad, with the ribs ſtanding out full from the ſpine; to give ſtrength of frame and conſtitution, and to admit of the inteſtines being lodged within the ribs. 4. The ſhoulders ſhould be light of bone, and rounded off at the lower point, that the collar may be eaſy, but broad to give ſtrength; and well covered with fleſh for the greater eaſe of draught, as well as to furniſh a deſired point in fatting cattle. 5. The back ought to be wide and level throughout; the quarters long; the thighs thin, and ſtanding narrow at the round bone; the udder large when full, but thin and looſe when empty, to hold the greater quantity of milk; with large dug-veins to ſhift it, and long ſlender teats for drawing it off with greater eaſe. 6. The legs (below the knee and hock) ſtraight, and of a middle length; their bone, in general, light and clean from fleſhineſs, but with the joints and ſinews of a moderate ſize, for the purpoſes of ſtrength and activity. 7. The fleſh ought to be mellow in the ſtate of fleſhineſs, and firm in the ſtate of fatneſs. 8. The hide mellow, and of a middle thickneſs.

As the milk of cows is an article of great importance, it is an object to the huſbandman, if poſſible, to prevent the waſte of that uſeful fluid, which in the common way of rearing calves is unavoidable. A method of bringing up theſe young animals at leſs expence, is propoſed by the Duke of Northumberland. His plan is to make ſkimmed milk anſwer the purpoſe of that which is newly drawn from the teat; and which, he ſuppoſes, might anſwer the purpoſe at one 3d of the expence of new milk. The articles to be added to the ſkimmed milk are treacle and the common linſeed oil cake ground very fine, and almoſt to an impalpable powder, the quantities of each being ſo ſmall, that to make 32 gallons would coſt only 6d. beſides the ſkimmed milk. It mixes very readily, and almoſt intimately with the milk, making it more rich and mucilaginous, without giving it any diſagreeable taſte. The receipt for making it is as follows: Take one gallon of ſkimmed milk, and to about a part of it add half an ounce of treacle, ſtirring it until it is well mixed; then take one ounce of linſeed oil cake finely pulveriſed, and with the hand let it fall gradually in very ſmall quantities into the milk, ſtirring it in the mean time with a ſpoon or ladle until it be throughly incorporated; then let the mixture be put into the other part of the milk, and the whole be made nearly as warm as new milk when it is firſt taken from the cow, and in that ſtate it is fit for uſe. The quantity of the oil cake powder may be increaſed as occaſion requires, and as the calf becomes inured to its flavour.

On this ſubject Mr YOUNG remarks, that in rearing calves, there are two objects of great importance. 1. To bring them up without any milk at all; and, 2. To make ſkimmed milk anſwer the purpoſe of ſuch as is newly milked or ſucked from the cow. In conſequence of premiums offered by the London Society, many attempts have been made to accompliſh theſe deſirable purpoſes; and Mr BUDEL of Wandsworth in Surrey was rewarded for an account of his method. This was to give the calves a gruel made of ground barley and oats. But Mr Young, who tried this method with two calves, aſſures us that both of them died. When in Ireland he had an opportunity of purchaſing calves at three days old from 20d. to 3s. each; by which he was led to repeat the experiment many times over. This he did in different ways, having collected various receipts. In conſequence of theſe he tried tea, bean meal mixed with wheat flour, barley and oats ground nearly, but not exactly, in Mr Budel's method; but the principal one was that of feed boiled into a jelly, and mixed with warm water; this being recommended more than all the reſt. The reſult of all theſe trials was, that out of 30 calves, only 3 or 4 were reared; the few were brought up with barley and oatmeal and a very ſmall quantity of flax ſeed jelly; or only excepted, which at the deſire of his cook man was brought up on a mixture of two gills ſkimmed milk, and one third of water, with a ſmall addition of flax jelly well diſſolved. The 2d object, viz. that of improving ſkimmed milk according to the plan of the Duke of Northumberland, ſeems to be the more practicable of the two. Mr Young informs us, that it has anſwered well with him for two ſeaſons; and two farmers to whom he communicated it gave likewiſe a favourable report.

In the 3d vol. of the ſame work, we are informed that the Cornwall farmers uſe the following method in rearing their calves. "They are taken from the cow from the 4th to the 6th day after which they have raw milk from ſix to 10 or 14 days. After this they feed them with ſkimmed ſkimmed milk and gruel made of ſheiled oats from 3 quarts to 4 being given in the morning and the ſame in the evening. The common family broth is thought to be better than the gruel. The proportion of gruel or broth is about one third of the milk given them. A little fine hay is ſet before them, which they ſoon begin to eat.

In vol. 5. of *Bath Papers*, we have an account by Mr Crook of a remarkably ſucceſsful experiment on rearing calves without milk at all. This gentleman, in 1787, weaned 17 calves; in 1788, 23; and in 1789, 15. In 1787, he bought three ſacks of linſeed, value 2l. 5s. which laſted the whole three years. One quart of it was put to ſix quarts of water; which, by boiling 10 minutes, was reduced to a jelly: the calves were fed with this mixed with a ſmall quantity of tea made by ſteeping the beſt hay in boiling water. By the uſe of this food three times a day, he found that his calves throve better than thoſe of his neighbours which were reared with milk.—Theſe unnatural kinds of food, however, are in many caſes apt to produce a looſeneſs, which in the end proves fatal to the calves. In Cornwall they remedy this ſometimes by giving acorns as an aſtringent; ſometimes by a cordial of which opium is the baſis.

In Norfolk, the calves are reared with milk and turnips; ſometimes with oats and bran mixed among the latter. Winter calves are allowed more milk than ſummer ones; but they are univerſally allowed new milk, or even to ſuck.—In the mid-land counties bull calves are allowed to remain at the

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ie teat until they be 6, 9, or 12 months old, letng them run either with their dams or with ows of leſs value bought on purpoſe. Each cow generally allowed one male or two female alves. Thus they grow very faſt, and become rprifingly vigorous. The method of the dairy en is to let the calves ſuck for a week or a fortght according to their ſtrength; next they have w milk in pans for a few meals; after that new d ſkimmed milk mixed; then ſkimmed milk ane, or porridge made with milk, water, ground te, &c. ſometimes with oil cake, &c. until eeſe making commences; after which they have ey porridge, or ſweet whey in the field, being refully houſed in the night until the warm weaer come in. With regard to the method of tening cattle, turnips are coming into general throughout Britain. In Norfolk no other meod is thought of. The general rule is, to allow em to eat their turnips in the field while the ather remains moderately warm, but to give em under cover when it becomes wet or very d. In this reſpect, however, there is a conſiderable difference with regard to the manner in ich the cattle have been brought up; for ſuch have been accuſtomed to a ſevere climate will nd the winter in the field much better than ſe which have been brought up under ſhelter. he fleſh of cattle fatted under cover is alſo leſs eeable than that of ſuch as feed in the open

ECT. IV. *Of the* MANAGEMENT *of the* DAIRY.

As this includes not only the proper method preſerving milk in a wholeſome and uncorrupſtate, but the making of butter and cheeſe om it, it may be accounted as important a part huſbandry as any; and accordingly ſeveral atiſes have been written expreſsly upon the bject.

In the *Bath Papers*, Vol. 5. the ſubject is conered in as accurate and ſcientific a manner by ANDERSON as by any perſon who has treated s matter; at leaſt as far as regards the making butter. The requiſites for manufacturing this luable commodity, are the following:

1. *To have* COWS *of a* GOOD QUALITY. In this e are to attend more to the quantity of cream ich the milk of a cow yields, than to the abſoe quantity of milk; and this may commonly judged of from the thickneſs of it. The ſmall derney cows (he ſays) afford the richeſt milk herto known; though there are many indivials of different kinds which afford much richer lk than others; and theſe ought carefully to ſought after, that a good breed may be eſtaſhed.

2. *To* MAKE *the* COWS *yield a* LARGE QUANTI*of* MILK. For this purpoſe they muſt have nty of food; and of all other kinds the Dr termines graſs to be the beſt; and that graſs ich ſprings up ſpontaneouſly on rich dry ſoils be the beſt of all. He is of opinion, that there no virtue in *old* paſtures, as many ſuppoſe, ore than in *new* ones; and he has ſeen much ther butter made from the milk of cows fed on hay from clover and rye graſs in the houſe, than ſuch as had liberty to range in old paſtures. But the cows ſhould be permitted to paſture at pleaſure during the mornings and evenings, and at noon ſhould be taken into a houſe, and ſupplied with freſh food. If abundantly fed, they ſhould be milked three times a day; and as great care ſhould be taken that this operation be properly performed, only confidential perſons ſhould be employed. He ſuppoſes that a cow well fed, will give as much milk each time when milked thrice, as when milked only twice.

3. *The* QUALITIES *of the* MILK *itſelf*. (See MILK, § 2, 5—9.) Theſe are reduced by our author to the following: 1. Of the milk drawn from a cow at any time, that which comes firſt is always thinneſt, and continues to increaſe in thickneſs to the laſt drop. This, as well as all the ſucceeding ones, are proved by experiment; and ſo great is the importance of attending to it, that "the perſon who, by bad milking of his cows, loſes but half a pint of his milk, loſes, in fact, as much cream as would be afforded by 6 or 8 pints at the beginning, and loſes beſides that part of the cream which alone can give richneſs and high flavour to his butter." 2. When milk throws up cream to the ſurface, that portion which riſes firſt will be thicker, and of better quality, as well as in greater quantity, than that which riſes in a ſecond equal portion of time. 3. Thick milk throws up a ſmaller quantity of cream to the ſurface than ſuch as is thinner; but that cream is of a richer quality. If water be added to that thick milk, it will afford a conſiderably greater quantity of cream than before, but its quality is at the ſame time greatly debaſed. 4. Milk when carried in veſſels to any diſtance, ſo as to ſuffer conſiderable agitation, never throws up cream ſo rich, nor in ſuch quantity, as if the ſame had been put into the milk pans without any agitation. From theſe aphoriſms, the following corollaries are deducible. 1. The cows ought always to be milked as near the dairy as poſſible. 2. The milk of different cows ſhould be kept by themſelves, that the good cows may be diſtinguiſhed from the bad. 3. For butter of a very fine quality, the firſt drawn milk ought always to be kept ſeparate from the laſt.

Our author commends the method uſed by the Highlanders of Scotland, where every cow is allowed to ſuckle her own calf. The calves are kept in an incloſure till the time of milking, when they are allowed to come to the door. Each calf there is allowed to ſuck its dame as long as the milk-maid pleaſes; when it is driven away, and the woman milks the remainder. Thus they obtain only a ſmall quantity of milk, but of exceeding good quality; and to this practice Dr Anderſon aſcribes the richneſs of the Highland butter, which is uſually attributed to the old graſs in the remote glens of the Highlands. Where this practice cannot be economically followed the Doctor recommends to keep the milk which comes firſt, and that which comes laſt, ſeparate from each other. The former might be ſold ſweet, or made into cheeſe. Another uſe our author mentions, viz. "Take common ſkimmed milk when it begins to turn ſour; put it into an

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upright churn or barrel with one of its ends out, or any other convenient veſſel; heat ſome water, and pour it into a tub that is large enough to contain with eaſe the veſſel in which the milk was put. Set the veſſel containing the milk into the hot water, and let it remain there for one night. In the morning it will be found that the milk hath ſeparated into two parts; a thick cream-like ſubſtance which occupies the upper part of the veſſel, and a thin, ſerous, watery part that remains in the bottom: draw off the thin part (called here *whig*, or *wigg*), by opening a ſtop-cock placed for that purpoſe cloſe above the bottom, and reſerve the cream for uſe. Not much leſs than the half of the milk is thus converted into a ſort of cream, which when well made ſeems to be as rich and fat as real cream itſelf, and is only diſtinguiſhable from that by its ſourneſs. It is eaten with ſugar, and eſteemed a great delicacy; and uſually ſells at double the price of unſkimmed milk." 4. Beſides ſeparating the firſt from the laſt drawn milk, it will be neceſſary alſo to take nothing but the cream firſt ſeparated from the beſt milk. The remainder of the milk may be employed either in making cheeſes, or allowed to throw up cream for butter of an inferior quality. 5. Hence it is plain, that butter of the very beſt quality, could be made only in a dairy of conſiderable extent, as only a ſmall portion of the milk of each cow could be ſet apart for it. 6. Hence it appears that butter and cheeſe can be made in a conſiſtency with one another; the beſt of the milk being ſet apart for the former, and the worſt for the latter. But as perhaps no perſon would chooſe to give ſuch a price for the very beſt butter as would indemnify the farmer for his trouble and expence, it may be ſufficient to take only the firſt drawn half of the milk for cheeſe, and uſe the remainder for butter; and the cream of this, even though allowed to ſtand till it begins to turn ſour, will always yield butter of a much ſuperior quality to that produced in the ordinary manner.

Our author now proceeds to enumerate the properties of a dairy. (See Dairy, § 2.) The Doctor is of opinion, that the temperature of from 50° to 55° is the moſt proper for ſeparating the cream from the milk, and by proper means this might eaſily be kept up, or nearly ſo, both ſummer and winter.

The utenſils of the dairy ſhould be all made of wood, in preference either to lead, copper, or even caſt iron. Theſe metals are all very eaſily ſoluble in acids; the ſolutions of the two firſt highly poiſonous. The creaming diſhes, when properly cleaned, ſweet, and cool, ought to be filled with the milk as ſoon as it is drawn from the cow, having been firſt carefully ſtrained through a cloth, or cloſe ſtrainer made of hair or wire: the Doctor prefers ſilver wire to every other. The creaming diſhes ought never to exceed 3 inches in depth; but they may be ſo broad as to contain a gallon or a gallon and an half; when filled they ought to be put on the ſhelves of the milk-houſe, and remain there until the cream be fully ſeparated. If the fineſt butter be intended, the milk ought not to ſtand above 6 or 8 hours, but for ordinary butter it may ſtand 12 or more; yet if the dairy be very large, a ſufficient quantity of cream will be ſeparated in 2, 3, or 4 hours, for making the beſt butter. It is then to be taken off as nicely as poſſible by a ſkimming-diſh, without lifting any of the milk; and immediately after put into a veſſel by itſelf, until a proper quantity for churning be collected. A ſmall, neat, wooden barrel is well adapted for this purpoſe, open at one end, and having a lid fitted to cloſe it. A cock or ſpigot ought to be fixed near the bottom, to draw off any thin or ſerous part which may drain from the cream; the inſide of the opening ſhould be covered with a bit of ſine ſilver wire gauze, in order to keep back the cream while the ſerum is allowed to paſs; and the barrel ſhould be inclined a little on its ſide to allow the whole to run off.

The Doctor contradicts the opinion that very fine butter cannot be obtained, except from cream that is not above a day old. He inſiſts that it is only in very few caſes that even tolerably good butter can be obtained from cream that is not above one day old. The ſeparation of butter from cream only takes place after the cream has attained a certain degree of acidity. If it be agitated before that acidity has begun to take place, no butter can be obtained, and the agitation muſt be continued till the time that the ſourneſs is produced, after which the butter begins to form. "In ſummer, while the climature is warm, the butter may be, without very much difficulty, continued until the acidity be produced, ſo that butter may be got: but in this caſe the proceſs is tedious; and the butter is for the moſt part of a ſoft conſiſtence, and tough and gluey to the taſte. If this proceſs be attempted during the cold weather in winter, butter can ſcarcely be in any way obtained, unleſs by the application of ſome gentle degree of heat, which ſometimes aſſiſts in producing a very inferior kind of butter, white, hard and brittle, and almoſt unfit for any culinary purpoſe whatever. The judicious farmer, therefore, will not attempt to imitate this practice, but will allow his cream to remain in the veſſel appointed for keeping it, until it has acquired the proper degree of acidity. There is no rule for determining how long it is to be kept; but our author is of opinion that a very great latitude is allowable in this caſe; and that if no ſerous moiſture be allowed to lodge among the cream, it may be kept good for making butter many weeks. The churn in which butter is made likewiſe admits of conſiderable diverſity; but our author prefers the old-faſhioned upright churn to all others, on account of its being more eaſily cleaned. The labour, when the cream is properly prepared, he thinks, very trifling. (See Butter, § 4—7 and Milk, § 8, 9.)

The other grand object of the dairy is cheeſe making, which in ſome counties of England becomes a very conſiderable article. See Cheese, § 1—4. A knowledge of good from bad runnet can only be acquired by long practice, but the utmoſt care muſt be taken that it have no putrid tendency, nor any rancidity from too great heat in drying. See Runnet, § 2.

In the *Bath Papers*, Mr Hazard gives the following receipt for making runnet. "When the

raw skin is well prepared and fit for the purpose, three pints or two quarts of soft water, clean and sweet, should be mixed with salt, wherein should be put sweet brier, rose-leaves and flowers, cinnamon, cloves, mace, and in short, almost every sort of spice and aromatic that can be procured; and these are put into two quarts of water, they must boil gently till the liquor is reduced to three pints, and care should be taken that this liquid is not smoked; it should be strained clear from the spices, &c. and when not warmer than milk from the cow, it should be poured upon the veil or raw; a lemon may then be sliced into it, when it may remain a day or two; after which it should be strained again and put into a bottle, where if well corked it will keep good for 12 months or more; it will smell like a perfume, and a small quantity of it will turn the milk, and give the cheese a pleasing flavour."

SECT. V. *Of* SHEEP.

THIS kind of stock is highly advantageous in different points of view. Sheep are important both as supplying food and clothing, and as a means of improving the farm. See OVIS, § I—IV; NATURE, § 1—4; SHEEP, and WOOL. The sheep of different counties excel in these different properties, and in some parts they have been lately much improved by crossing the breeds. Mr Marshall, in his Survey of Norfolk, observes, that there ought always to be some affinity or similitude between the animals which are crossed. It is, says he, a manifest incongruity to match a Norfolk and a Leicester sheep; or a Norfolk and South Down; or any long-woolled sheep with a short-woolled; but a Leicestershire sheep may be matched, with some degree of propriety, with a Cottswold; and a South Down sheep with a Berkshire or a Herefordshire Ryland.

In the *Survey of Staffordshire*, Mr PITT says, that Wiltshires crossed by a heavy ram have produced sheep, at little more than two years old, of 28lb. per quarter, and which have been sold to the butcher at 3l. 10s. each. The Dorsetshire breed, which are well made and compact, have also answered well, and are, in the opinion of many experienced farmers, equal to any other breed. The fact is, that any breed of sheep, if sound and healthy, may be enlarged and improved by good keeping, and by crossing with rams selected with attention.

The best sheep for fine wool are those bred in Herefordshire and Worcestershire; but they are small and black-faced, and consequently bear but a small quantity. Warwick, Leicester, Buckingham, and Northamptonshire, breed a large boned sheep, of the best shape, and deepest wool. The marshes of Lincolnshire also breed a very large breed of sheep, but their wool is not so good. The northern counties in general breed sheep with long, but hairy wool: and Wales breeds a small hardy kind of sheep, which has the best tasted flesh, but the worst wool of all. The farmer should always buy his sheep from a worse land than his own, and they should be big-boned, and have long greasy wool curling close and well. These sheep always breed the finest wool, and are also the most approved of by the butcher.

Mr PITT in his Survey of Staffordshire tells us, that in that populous manufacturing county the considerable demand for lamb, as well as mutton, has induced a great proportion of farmers to keep none other than an annual stock of sheep, consisting of ewes bought in at Michaelmas, from *Cannock Heath*, *Sutton Coldfield*, the commons of Shropshire, and sometimes even from Gloucestershire, Wiltshire, and Dorsetshire. These ewes are immediately put to a ram, and the lambs in spring suckled till they are fit for the butcher: they are then sold, and the ewes kept in good pasture, fatted, and sold after them, and the whole flock generally cleared off within the year. And many people think the profits in this are equal to those in any other way: the lamb and wool generally pay the original purchase of the ewe, and sometimes more; and the price of the fat ewe remains for keeping and profit.

He also observes that the rams of Mr FOWLER, a celebrated breeder of this kind of stock, are stout, broad-backed, wide on the rump, and well made, with fine wool to the very breech: the largest of them would, he believes, fatten to more than 30lb the quarter; and the smallest would be considerably above 20lb. Great attention has been paid for several years past to improving this breed both in wool and carcases. But Mr Fowler himself thinks the breed is now pushed rather too far in bulk and weight, for the pasturage of the common, or even of the neighbourhood, unless they are driven into better land for fatting. But he is clearly of opinion, that pushing or increasing the size or bulk of sheep, by improving their pasturage, or removing them to a better pasture, does not at all tend to injure the staple, or degenerate the fineness of clothing wool, provided due attention be paid to selecting the finest-woolled rams.

The Leicestershire breeds, says he, are of two kinds, the old and the new. The old Leicesters are large, thick, heavy sheep, with long combing wool: the new Leicester breed is a refinement upon the old, by crossing with a finer boned and finer woolled ram. These are now established in various parts of Staffordshire, and increasing in other places. The old Leicester breeds are crossing with the new, which bids fair to produce a very good breed; there being many instances in which the old breed were become too coarse, and the new too fine. The flock of Mr Dyott, of Freeford near Lichfield, a gentleman who has attended much to this subject, is closely bred from the new Leicester breed, by rams for many years procured from the best breeds. His farming is to the extent of 800 acres or more; and the main object, sheep. His flock of breeding ewes is 260, and he never sells a lamb, which upon the average, rearing, are about 300. He informed our author that his annual sales from sheep and wool amounted upon an average to 650l. that his *sheer hogs*, or yearling wethers, generally go to the butcher at two guineas each; and the *culls* of this age make 35s. each: and by keeping to Feb. he has sometimes sold them at 50s. each, under two years old. He has several times killed sheep kept to a greater age, that have weighed 40lb. per quarter.

Mr Pitt says, that there are some other flocks, such

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ſuch as thoſe of Lord Bygot's tenants, and particularly ſome belonging to Mr Hurvey, his lordſhip's ſteward, that deſerve attention. This breed, introduced into that neighbourhood a few years back, is gaining ground faſt, and is ſuppoſed by many, to be the beſt paſture ſheep ſtock in the kingdom. The ſuperiority conſiſts in this: that the paſtures may be ſtocked much harder with theſe, than any other ſtock of equal weight; as they are always fat, even when ſuckling lambs. The ewes full grown will weigh from 20 to 25lb. per quarter; wethers at two years old, about the ſame; but when kept another year, they riſe to 30lb per quarter. The fleeces weigh from 7 to 10lb. Theſe ſheep he deſcribes to be fine and light in the bone; thick and plump in the carcaſs; broad acroſs the loin, with the back bone not riſing into a ridge, but ſinking in a nick, and a double chine of mutton riſing on either ſide; fine and clean in the neck and ſhoulder; not too ſhort in the leg; and of a ſufficient bulk in the carcaſe to riſe to the weight above-mentioned.

In Norfolk, thoſe who keep ewe flocks, Mr Kent obſerves, find them anſwer extremely well; for, beſides the fleece and manure, the average price of the lambs is 12s. Thoſe who buy the wether lambs with a view of bringing them up for fatting ſtock, after keeping them 18 or 19 months, generally ſell them at an average of 30s. which is a very handſome profit.

Mr Boys informs us, that the management of ſheep in the different parts of Kent is as follows: In the eaſtern part, the ſtock farmers buy in lambs at Romney fair the 20th Aug. at from 12s. to 14s. each; and when they have kept them two years, they either ſell them lean to the fatting grazier, or fatten them themſelves on turnips, and pea or bean ſtraw. Oats, and cuttings of garden beans, are ſometimes given to finiſh them in the ſpring. When theſe two yearling ſheep are ſold in autumn to the graziers, the price is from 24s. to 28s. each; and when made fat, they produce from 34s. to 42s. according to their ſize and fatneſs. But theſe prices have lately conſiderably advanced. The few ſheep bred in the marſhes are of the ſame ſort, except ſome ſmall parcels of Dorſetſhire and South Down ewes. But almoſt the whole of the ſheep kept on the upland farms of Eaſt Kent, are the true Romney marſh breed; whoſe carcaſſes and bones being large, and wool long and heavy, they require rich land and good keep to make them fat. Mr Boys keeps no other than South Down ſheep, and has every reaſon to be ſatisfied with them; his ſtock is about 1000; 400 of which are breeding ewes.

In the Iſle of SHEPEY, the ſheep are of the Romney marſh ſort, true *Kents*. The ſoil being much inferior to Romney marſh, the ſheep are ſomewhat ſmaller; and, from the ſame cauſe, their wool is lighter and finer. The wethers are fattened at three years old, then weighing from 20 to 24 lb. per quarter.

The ſheep moſtly kept in the diſtrict of Weſt Kent, are the South Down ſort, bought in wether lambs, at the autumnal fairs on the Downs, Oct. 2d. They are kept the firſt winter on ſtubble land, with graſs and a few turnips, and on graſs and ſeeds in ſummer; and often are fatted on turnips the next winter, before they are quite two years old. The other ſorts of ſheep kept there, are the Weſt Country, from Wiltſhire and Dorſetſhire; the wethers are bought-in at ad ages, to be fattened on turnips. But there are hardly any ſheep bred in the Weald of Kent, excepting a few for early fat lambs, of the Wiltſhire and South Down ſorts. Some of the Wiltſhire wethers are bought-in to fatten on turnips; and a few South Down wether lambs are bought in autumn, and kept on the driеſt parts until they are two years old, and then fattened for ſale on turnips or meadow lands.

The principal ſyſtem of management in ROMNEY MARSH is that of breeding, rearing, and fattening ſheep; and the modes of doing theſe are the following: The rams are uſually put to the ewes, allowing one to 40 or 50, and ſome to 60; from the 12th to the 16th Nov. and ſtay with them about 5 weeks. The ewes live entirely on the graſs, without any hay, during winter: In deep ſnow they ſcrape with their feet, and obtain a ſubſiſtence, although they then loſe fleſh, and ſometimes become very poor by their yeaning time. They produce many twins; but a great number are loſt: ſo that moſt graziers conſider their crop not a bad one, if they wean as many lambs as they put ewes to ram. The lambs are weaned the 1ſt or 2d week in Auguſt, and are ſoon after put out to keep to the upland farms of the county, where they remain till the ſpring, at from 2s. to 3s. per ſcore, per week. When they return to the marſh, they are put on the pooreſt land, or ſuch fields as the grazier has moſt want improvement by hard ſtocking; which is there called *tegging* a field, and is held to be of great ſervice. Theſe young ſheep are placed in the fields in proportion to what it is judged they will maintain, from the 5th April until Auguſt, which is at the rate of from 4 to 8 per acre. The *ewelver-tegs* in the autumn are removed to the breeding, and the *ewe-tegs* to the breeding grounds, among the two and three yearling ewes. The wethers remain till July or Auguſt following, when, as they become fat, they are drawn off and ſold to the butchers at the marſh markets, or ſent to Smithfield. The two-yearling wethers, when fat, at this ſeaſon weigh from 20 to 28 lb. per quarter; and ſome of the largeſt and beſt fed, a few pounds more. The old ewes, there called *barrens*, are put to fattening as ſoon as their milk is dried after the third lamb, which is at the age of 4 years, on ſome of the beſt land in the marſh, where they are placed from two to three per acre for the winter. Theſe, in favourable winters, are ſometimes made fat, and ſold in the ſpring.

The practice of fattening ſheep on turnips, aſſiſted by oil cake, corn, hay, ſainfoin, &c. is greatly in uſe among the upland farmers of this county; not ſo much for the profit by feeding with thoſe articles, as for the great improvement of the ſoil where the turnips are fed off. The manure from ſheep fed on oil cake and turnips, is reckoned very enriching to the land. A great number of fold flocks of lean ſheep are kept by the farmers of the E. part of the county, of from 8 to 20 ſcore. Theſe are each attended by a ſhepherd,

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pherd, who removes the fold every morning to
h ground, at ſix o'clock in ſummer, and at
ak of day in winter: the flock is then driven
y to the moſt inferior keep at the firſt part of
morning, and is returned into the fold for two
hree hours in the middle of the day, while the
pherd goes to dinner; in the afternoon it is
ſually led to the beſt keep on the farm, that
ſheep may return full fed to the fold in the
ning. Great caution is neceſſary in feeding
p on clover in ſummer, and on turnips in the
part of winter.

Ir ROBERTSON has inſerted the following ac-
nt of feeding ewes with early lambs in his
rcy of Mid Lothian, as ſtated by an accurate
rver. The number in all was 60; fed off in
eeks, the expence was 12l. Thus each lamb
4s. The expence of 20 fed 5 weeks was 5l.
6d. or 5s. 7½d. each lamb.

Feeding on graſs takes ſix weeks to feed off.
average rent of good graſs may be two pounds
acre, which will feed off four ewes with
be. He conſiders ſix weeks from the middle
April, the uſual time of laying on, to be full
half of the value of the graſs for that ſeaſon;
e the lambs coſt 5s. each in that time. In
ſp feeding ſheep, by ſtaking them on the
, 20 ſheep eat an acre in 14 weeks. If they
off to a graſs field, ten ſcore will *tathe* or
an acre in ſeven days, worth 2l. 10s. As to
g in the houſe, he finds the dung worth the
ſe of carting, and the value of the ſtraw it
s for litter. He finds alſo the lambs fed on
s, not only ſooner ready, but more white
firm in the fleſh; the ewes are alſo in better
ition. He likewiſe found, that, at times, to
a little ſalt among the grains, was of great
ce; but it was neceſſary to avoid, above all
gs, giving them grains when ſour, or old
; and of importance alſo to feed them regu-
, and to give them freſh clean litter every
A ſheep will conſume about 20 lb. of tur-
in 24 hours, if it be allowed as many as it can
which ſhould always be allowed to fat ſheep;
ſheep vary in ſize, ſo they will conſume
or leſs food.

Sect. VI. *Of the* REARING *and* FATTENING *of* HOGS.

HE practice of keeping theſe animals is ſo ge-
l, eſpecially in England, that one ſhould think
profit attending it would be abſolutely indiſ-
ible; and this the more eſpecially when it is
idered how little nicety they have in their
ce of food. From ſuch experiments, howe-
as have been made, the matter appears to be
doubtful. In the *Annals of Agriculture*,
1. we have an experiment by Mr Mure, of
ing hogs with the cluſter potato and carrots;
which it appeared, that the profit on large
was much greater than on ſmall ones; the
r eating almoſt as much as the former, with-
yielding a proportionable increaſe of fleſh.
gain was counted by weighing the large and
ll ones alive; and it was found, that from
r. 10th to Jan. 5th, they had gained in the
wing proportion: 20 large hogs, 1l. 3s. 6d.;
mall, 7s. 8d.; 2 ſtag hogs, 1l. 17s. 8d. On
being finiſhed with peaſe, however, it appeared, that there was not any real profit at laſt; for the accounts ſtood ultimately at par; the expence being 95l. and the product exactly the ſame.

In ſome experiments by Mr YOUNG, related in the ſame volume, he ſucceeded ſtill worſe, not being able to clear his expences. His firſt experiment was attended with a loſs of one guinea *per* hog; the ſecond, with a loſs of 11s. 8d.; the third, of 3s. In theſe three the hogs were fed with peaſe; given whole in the two firſt, but ground into meal in the laſt. The 4th experiment, in which the hog was fed with Jeruſalem artichokes, was attended with no loſs; but another, in which peaſe were again tried, was attended with a loſs of 4s. Barley was tried ground along with peaſe and beans. This was attended with a profit of 17s. 4½d. In another experiment, in which the hogs were fed with peaſe and barley ground, the beans being omitted as uſeleſs, there was a profit of 12s. 3d. upon an expence of 20l. 15s. 9d. In this experiment the peaſe and barley meal were mixed into a liquid like cream, and allowed to remain in that ſtate for three weeks, till it became ſour. This was attended in two other inſtances with profit, and in a third with loſs: however, Mr Young is of opinion, that the practice will ſtill be found advantageous on account of the quantity of dung raiſed; and that the farmer can thus uſe his peaſe and barley at home without carrying them to market.

Mr Marſhall remarks, that in the Midland diſtrict, oats are preferred to barley as a food both for young pigs and breeding ſwine. It is alſo ſuppoſed that young pigs require warm meat to make them grow quickly. Barley meal and potatoes are uſed in fattening them. In this diſtrict it is common to keep 2 or 3 pigs in the ſty along with the old hogs to be fatted.

In Staffordſhire, Mr PITT ſays, the breed of hogs moſt eſteemed is not the large ſlouched eared breed, but a croſs between them and a ſmaller dwarf breed. They ſhould be fine in the bone, thick and plump in the carcaſe, with a fine thin hide, and of a moderate ſize; large enough to fat at from one to two years old, to the weight of from 300 to 400 lb. each. Theſe, if well bred, will keep themſelves in good plight with little feeding, and will ſoon grow fat with a plentiful allowance of proper food. Hogs of the large breed have been fatted there, to from 600 to 800 lb. weight, excluſive of the entrails; but, requiring much time and food, have pretty generally given way to a ſmaller ſized, finer boned, thick, plump animal. Hogs are generally fatted there by farmers with the refuſe of the dairy, boiled potatoes, and barley meal, and peas either whole or ground: by millers, with the huſk or bran of wheat ground down, but not wholly diveſted of its flour; alſo with other ſorts of grain, and puiſe ground down: by butchers, with the refuſe or offal of ſlaughtered animals. The beſt way of managing the potatoes, is to boil them in their own ſteam, and put them afterwards into a large oven when the bread is drawn, to evaporate the watery parts: they will then go nearly as far as cheſnuts or acorns in feeding.

In Lancaſhire, Mr Holt obſerves, that Mr Ile-

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cleſton has a breed between the wild boar and the Chineſe, which have very light and ſmall bellies. Upon the ſame food, he thinks they will yield one 4th more fleſh than either the large Iriſh or Shropſhire breeds. Their ſize is but ſmall, weighing only from 10 to 15 ſcore, generally about 12 ſcore.

In Kent, a great number of pigs are reared and fed on the corn ſtubbles for the butchers, which are killed in autumn for roaſting, at the age of 3 or 4 months, then weighing 3 or 4 ſcore pounds each. Some are alſo fattened and killed at from 6 to 12 months old, and ſold. In the W. part of this diſtrict, a few farmers have the larger kind, or Berkſhire breed; but in general they are mixtures of many different ſorts. Little attention, ſays Mr Boys, is paid to this animal, though the breed might, doubtleſs, be very much improved with proper care. Many hogs, ſays he, are likewiſe kept in the woods of the Weald of Kent in the autumn, on acorns, and fattened on corn in the winter.

Pigs, Mr HOLT ſays, ſhould, during their growth, be regularly turned out to graze. This, beſides the advantage of graſs, which is nutritious, by the freſh air and exerciſe, cauſes a diſpoſition to take their reſt, and ſleep after a meal, contributes to their cleanlineſs, and renders their fleſh of ſuperior flavour.

Mr YOUNG has inſerted a number of experiments on feeding hogs, in the Tranſactions of the London Society of Arts; and on the whole, prefers pollard and ſkimmed milk, as the beſt feeding; and next theſe, boiled carrots and potatoes.

SECT. VII. *Of* RABBITS.

IN particular ſituations theſe animals may be kept to advantage, as they multiply exceedingly, and require no trouble in bringing up. A conſiderable number of them are kept in Norfolk, where many parts, conſiſting of barren hills or heaths, are proper for their reception. They delight in the ſides of ſandy hills, which are generally unproductive when tilled; but level ground is improper for them.

Mr MARSHALL is of opinion, that there are few ſandy or other looſe ſoiled hills which would not pay better in rabbit warrens than any thing elſe. "The hide of a bullock (ſays he) is not worth more than one 20th of his carcaſe; the ſkin of a ſheep may, in full wool, be worth from a ſixth to a tenth of its carcaſe; but the fur of a rabbit is worth twice the whole value of the carcaſe; therefore, ſuppoſing a rabbit to conſume a quantity of food in proportion to it's carcaſe, it is, on this principle, a ſpecies of ſtock nearly three times as valuable as either cattle or ſheep." Rabbit warrens ought to be incloſed with a ſtone or ſod wall; and at their firſt ſtocking, it will be neceſſary to form burrows to them until they have time to make them to themſelves. Boring the ground horizontally with a large augre is perhaps the beſt method that can be practiced. Eagles, kites, and other birds of prey, as well as cats, weaſels, and polecats, are great enemies of rabbits. The Norfolk warreners catch the birds by traps placed on the tops of ſtumps of trees or artificial hillocks of a conical form, on which they naturally alight.—Traps alſo ſeem to be the only method of getting rid of the other enemies; tho' thus the rabbits themſelves are in danger of being caught.

Rabbits are ſubject to two diſeaſes: 1. The rot, occaſioned by too much green food, or giving it to them freſh gathered, with dew or rain upon it. The cure is the ſweeteſt hay that can be got. 2. A kind of madneſs, which is known by their tumbling about, with their heels upwards. The cauſe is full feeding; the cure keeping them low, and giving them tare thiſtle. One buck rabbit will ſerve 9 does.

SECT. VIII. *Of* POULTRY.

UNDER this head are comprehended a variety of birds, which are objects of attention to the farmer.

1. FOWLS. The farm yard cannot be ſaid to be complete until well ſtocked with fowls; the advantage of which is moſt conſiderable in ſituations where the farmer is beſt ſupplied with corn, and has the beſt means of preſerving the birds. In chooſing this kind of ſtock, prefer the beſt breeders and the beſt layers; the oldeſt being the beſt ſitters, and the youngeſt the beſt layers; but a ſort will be good for either, if they are kept in fat. The beſt age to ſet a hen for chickens is two years old, and the beſt month is February, though any month between that and March is good. Hens ſit 21 days, during which they ſhould conſtantly have meat and drink near them, that they may not ſtraggle from their eggs and chill them. If fowls are fed with buck or barley wheat, or with hemp-ſeed, they will lay more eggs than ordinary; and buck wheat, either whole or ground, made into paſte, will fatten fowls in a ſhort time; but the common food uſed is barley meal, with milk or water, but wheat flour moiſtened is the beſt. A good hen ſhould be watching, vigilant and laborious, both for herſelf and her chickens, and the larger the better. Thoſe hens are rather to be choſen for hatching that are the younger, becauſe they are more conſtant, and will ſit out their time; but if choſen for laying, take the youngeſt. Thoſe eggs that are laid after the hens are a year and a half, or two years old, are the beſt; at that time give the hens plenty of victuals, and ſometimes oats, with fenugreek to heat them, if you would have large eggs.

In ſetting hens, take care that the eggs be new, which may be known by their being heavy, full and clear. While ſitting, a hen ſhould never be diſturbed from her neſt, leſt ſhe forſake it. The hen-houſe ſhould be large and ſpacious, with a pretty high roof and ſtrong walls, to keep out thieves and vermin; there ſhould likewiſe be windows on the E. ſide, for the benefit of the ſun; and round about the inſide of the walls upon the ground, ſhould be made large pens, three feet high, for geeſe, ducks, and large fowls to lie in; and near the covering of the houſe long perches, reaching from one ſide to the other, ſhould be fixed, on which cocks, hens, capons and turkeys may ſit. At another ſide of the houſe, in the darkeſt part of the ground pens, fix manger full of ſtraw for neſts, for the hens to lay their eggs; but when they ſit to hatch chickens, they ſhould

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ſhould be on the ground: there ſhould likewiſe be ſtakes ſtuck in the walls, that the poultry may climb to their perches with eaſe; and the floor ſhould not be paved, but made of earth ſmooth and eaſy. The ſmaller fowls ſhould alſo have a hole at one end of the houſe, to go in and out when they pleaſe, elſe they will ſeek out rooſts in other places. It would likewiſe be of great advantage to have the hen-houſe ſituated near ſome kitchen, brew-houſe, bake-houſe, or kiln, where it may have the heat of the fire, and be perfumed with ſmoke, which is very grateful to pullets.

To fatten chickens, put them into coops, and feed them with barley-meal; put a ſmall quantity of brick duſt into their water, which will give them an appetite and fatten them very ſoon; for all fowls and birds have two ſtomachs, the one is their crop, that ſoftens their food, and the other the gizzard, that macerates their food: in the laſt we always find ſmall ſtones and ſharp ſand, which help to do that office; and without them, or ſomething of that kind, a fowl would be wanting in its appetite to eat; for the gizzard cannot maſticate, or grind the food faſt enough to diſcharge it from the crop, without ſuch ſand or ſtones: and in this the brick-duſt aſſiſts them. A very little time is neceſſary for this purpoſe. To promote this end, poultry fattened in coops ſhould be kept very *clean*. They ſhould be furniſhed with meat, *but with no water*. Their only food barley-meal, mixed ſo thin with water as to ſerve them for drink. Their food ſhould not be put to troughs, but laid upon a board, *which ſhould be clean waſhed every time freſh food is put upon it.* Foul and heated water is the ſole cauſe of the pip. Theſe fowls are liable to be affected with different diſorders, ſuch as the *pip*, the *roup*, the *flux*, a ſtoppage in the bowels, and *ſore* eyes. The firſt complaint is occaſioned by foul meat, and dirty water, and is known by the fowl having a thin white ſcale on the tip of the tongue. The remedy is, the removal of the ſcale, and ſlightly rubbing the part with ſalt. The 2d a ſwelling on the top, which is known by the feathers of the affected part ſtanding out in an unnatural manner. The cure is *opening* the ſore, and forcing out the matter after the feathers have been plucked out. The *flux* is cauſed by eating too much moiſt food, and is to be removed by an oppoſite kind of diet. The removal of the diſorder in the eyes muſt be effected by changing their ſituation and food.

II. DUCKS are very neceſſary for the farm yard, as they require no charge in keeping, but live on the corn, worms, ſnails, &c. for which laſt they are uſeful in gardens. Once a-year they lay very well; when they ſit they need little attendance, except to let them have a little barley, or offal corn and water near them, that they may not waggle far from their neſt, and thereby chill their eggs. In general it is more profitable to ſet a hen on the duck's eggs, than any kind of duck whatever, becauſe the old one leads them when hatch'd too ſoon to the water, where, if the weather be not very mild, ſome of them will be loſt. But by means of the hen, they remain a good while upon the land, and get hardy before they venture into the water. About 13 eggs is the proper number to let a duck ſit upon. When the ducklings are hatched they require no care, if the weather be tolerably good; but if they be produced in a very rainy ſeaſon, keep them under cover, eſpecially in the night; for, though the duck naturally loves water, it requires the aſſiſtance of its feathers, and, till they are grown, is eaſily hurt by the wet.

The fattening of ducks at any age is very eaſy; whether it be the duckling, or the grown duck, the method is the ſame. They are to be put in a quiet dark place, and kept in a pen, where they are to have plenty of corn and water; any kind of corn will do; and with this ſingle direction they will fatten extremely well in 15 or 20 days.

III. GEESE are advantageous both for food, feathers, and greaſe. They will live upon commons, or any ſort of paſture, and need little care and attendance; only they ſhould have plenty of water. The largeſt geeſe are reckoned the beſt; but there is a ſort of Spaniſh geeſe that are much better layers and breeders than the Engliſh, eſpecially if their eggs be hatched under an Engliſh gooſe. Geeſe in general lay in ſpring, the earlier the better, becauſe of their price and of their having a 2d brood. They commonly lay 12 or 16 eggs each. One may know when they will lay by their carrying of ſtraw in their mouths, and when they will ſit, by their continuing on their neſt after they have laid. A gooſe ſits 30 days; but if the weather be fair and warm, ſhe will hatch 3 or 4 days ſooner. After the goſlings are hatched, ſome keep them in the houſe 10 or 12 days, and feed them with curds, barley meal, bran, &c. After they have got ſome ſtrength, let them out 3 or 4 hours a-day, and take them in again, till they are big enough to defend themſelves.

For fattening *green* geeſe, they ſhould be ſhut up when they are about a month old, and they will be fat in about a month longer. The fatting of older geeſe is commonly done when they are about ſix months old, in or after harveſt, when they have been in the ſtubble fields, from which food ſome kill them; but thoſe who wiſh to have them very fat, ſhut them up for 2 or 3 weeks, and feed them with oats, ſplit beans, barley meal, or ground malt mixed with milk. Geeſe will likewiſe fatten well with carrots cut ſmall.

IV. TURKEYS proſper very well in open countries, where there is not much ſhelter to harbour vermin to deſtroy them, as they are naturally inclined to ramble. The hens are ſo negligent of their young, that, while they have one to follow them, they never look after the reſt; and therefore care muſt be taken while they are young, to watch them, and to keep them warm, as they cannot bear the cold. When kept with corn, they are very great feeders; but if left to their liberty when grown up, they will get their own living, without trouble or expence, by feeding on herbs, ſeeds, &c. Turkeys, being very apt to ſtraggle, will often lay their eggs in ſecret places; therefore they muſt be watched, and made to lay at home. They begin to lay in March, and ſit in April: eleven or thirteen eggs are the moſt they ſit on. They hatch in 25 or 30 days. The young ones may be fed either with curds, or green

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fresh cheese. Their drink may be new milk, or milk and water. Some give them oatmeal and milk boiled thick together, into which they put wormwood chopped small, and sometimes eggs boiled hard, and cut in pieces. They must be fed often; and when they have got some strength, feed them abroad in a close walled place where they cannot stray; they must not be let out till the dew is off the grass, as it is very prejudicial to them. In the fatting of turkeys, *fodden* barley is very excellent, or *fodden* oats for the first fortnight.

V. PIGEONS.—These, Mr PITT observes, can hardly in general be considered as an article of profit to the occupier of a farm: though there are instances in Staffordshire, where something handsome is actually made of them by tenants; yet these instances are rare, and too seldom occur to be reckoned upon in a general account. But few farm houses are in fact furnished with the necessary accommodations for them: and the increase of them beyond a certain degree must be injurious to the cultivation of grain: within due bounds they do little harm; but increased beyond it, they prove pernicious vermin, both to the new sown crops and the early part of harvest. They are particularly voracious in early peafe. Mr KENT says, that pigeons are much fewer in Norfolk than formerly, as many of the pigeon-houses have been drop't, on account of the injury which they did to thatched buildings.

SECT. IX. *Of* BEES.

UNDER the article BEE, § II, 1—23, we have given to full an account of the management of these useful and industrious insects, that we need add nothing here on the subject of BEE HUSBANDRY. See also APIS, § IV. N° 1—5.

SECT. X. *Of the* MOST ECONOMICAL CONSUMPTION *of the* PRODUCE *of a* FARM.

THE Hints which have been thrown out by Dr ANDERSON on this subject, in the 3d vol. of his *Essays on Agriculture*, are so ingenious and philosophical, that we shall conclude with laying a few of them before the reader.

After observing that nothing of this nature has been attempted in any work on RURAL ECONOMIES, he says, "It may be admitted as a maxim, that agriculture can never be said to have been carried to its ultimate degree of perfection, so long as there is to be found one inch of ground that could be made to yield a single grain of greater or more valuable produce; so long as a single ounce of vegetable matter is allowed to go waste, or that has not been applied towards the subsistance of some useful animal, in the way in which it could produce its most beneficial effect; and while a single particle of dung or other manure is suffered to be misapplied, or so employed as not to afford the greatest possible resource it is capable of yielding, for the reproduction of additional crops of the most valuable kinds. That the highest degree of possible perfection should, in every case, be attained, is not to be expected; but the nearer we approximate to it the better; and the more steadily we keep these objects in view, and the more strenuous our exertions are to attain them, we shall doubtless approach the nearer to these desirable attainments. So far, says he, are these objects, however, from being steadily held in view, that one would think they were scarcely ever adverted to, unless by a very few. ECONOMY in the expenditure of the produce of a farm, like economy in family affairs, seems indeed to be despised by many men, as indicating *poverty of spirit*, rather than wisdom."

He adds, that were the subject to be considered in its utmost extent, it would take a much wider sweep than that to which he means to confine himself; which is solely the consumption of the crude produce of a farm by animals. At the mere outset, in a business of such magnitude, the person who first attempts to open up the view, can do little more than act in the humble station of a pioneer, who clears away a few obstructions, that may enable others, with less labour, to penetrate farther.

1. DUNG *much* WASTED *under the common Practice of Pasturage.* The Dr says, it is stated in the *Agricultural Survey of* GLOUCESTERSHIRE, that one acre of rye-grass, which had been saved from Michaelmas to May, kept 9 ewes and lambs a *month*. We may therefore, he adds, conclude that the produce of the same field, from May to Michaelmas, would have been double to that yielded during the winter half-year; consequently it could have sustained 18 ewes and lambs one month. At this rate the acre of ground, taking the whole year round, would have afforded food for 27 ewes and lambs for *one* month. These were large sheep, weighing about 25 lb. per quarter on the average.

In the *Survey of* WILTSHIRE, it is said that 30 such ewes and lambs are sufficient to dung an acre each day when folded upon it: at that rate, says the Dr, 27 of them should dung an acre in a little less than 19 days; consequently, in 30 days, somewhat better than half an acre more. He is however inclined to think this would be but a very moderate dunging; but should double the quantity of dung, or more, be required for certain purposes on particular occasions, it will not, he says, affect the conclusions deducible from these facts in *kind*, only in *degree*. Hence, in his opinion, it follows, that if none of this dung were suffered to go to waste, *an acre* of good land laid down to grass, in high order, should afford as much dung as would be sufficient to dress each year *an acre and a half* of other land.

In the *Agricultural account of* SUFFOLK, it is stated, that the rich marsh lands there keep at the rate of 6 sheep for 7 summer months, and 4 for the 5 winter months per acre: that is, a little more than 5 sheep on an average per acre throughout the year. These are very large sheep, of which 800 would be equal to the 500 ewes and lambs above mentioned, and consequently would be sufficient to dung an acre in one day. But 5 times 365 makes 1825, the number of sheep kept for one day. At this rate, one acre of these rich grass lands would afford as much dung, in the course of one year, as should be sufficient to dung somewhat more than *two acres and a quarter* each year, if husbanded with due economy and attention.

But as the sheep in neither of these cases are folded.

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ided, the dung is ſuffered to drop in a ſcattered anner over the paſtures, throughout the whole ar. In this manner, the influence of the dung uſt either be nothing, or it muſt produce *certain* fects upon the graſs. It is well known, that hen ſheep are folded upon graſs ground, ſo as depoſit their dung upon it in conſiderable quanies all *about one time*, as in folding, the effect is, at a fluſh of graſs is quickly produced over its hole ſurface, which is much more luxuriant and undant than it would have been, had it not reived this dreſſing. But it is equally well known, at the animals, whoſe dung has occaſioned that ſh of graſs, naufeate it; nor can they be brought taſte it, unleſs they be compelled through hunr; although animals of another kind are ſeen to t that kind of graſs, not only without reluctance it even with avidity.

He adds, the extra fluſh of graſs raiſed on the acres, that might be thus manured by the ep fed on one acre, would be ſufficient, on a moate computation, to keep at the rate of 2 ſheep r acre. By conſequence, the extra graſs proed by the dung of the ſheep kept on one acre this rich graſs land, would be ſufficient to keep ſheep. But to keep within bounds, ſay *three* ep only could be kept by the graſs produced m the dung of the ſheep fed on one acre. If the ng be ſuppoſed to have the ſame effect in proing extra graſs, when dropped from the anis as they paſture on the field, as it has when upon ground cloſely, by means of folding, it uſt follow from theſe premiſes, that as much ſs will grow from that dung upon each acre would feed 3 ſheep. But as the ſheep will not this kind of graſs without conſtraint, the ground uſt either be ſo hard ſtocked as to compel them, ough hunger, to eat that naufeous food, or that rtion of the graſs produced by the dung, will ſuffered to run to waſte; ſo that, in either caſe, conſiderable loſs muſt be ſuſtained by the owner. After ſome farther arguments, the Dr ſays, "If ſe obſervations be well founded, what an amaing waſte is ſuſtained through the whole nation, ſhe loſs of the dung that is thus uſeleſsly ſcatter-m the ſurface of paſture fields every where!"

II. *The* FOLDING *of* SHEEP ECONOMICAL.—he Doctor ſays, that the remedy which firſt preits itſelf in this caſe, is that of folding; and that, properly managed, there are perhaps few caſes which it might not be put in practice, not only thout detriment to the ſtock, but even to their vantage. All animals, but eſpecially thoſe that minate, chooſe to feed and reſt by turns. Ruating animals require much time for reſt; and e more quiet they are allowed to be during that riod, the better they will thrive. If theſe then e withdrawn from their paſtures after they have operly filled their bellies, and when they beme neceſſarily diſpoſed to ruminate, they can ſtain no damage by being put into a place where ey can have no acceſs to food. And if they be dly as long detained there as till they have reewed the food they have ſwallowed, and begin feel an inclination to eat more, they will be beefited by this confinement, rather than otherwiſe. nd they will thus all feed and reſt at the ſame me.

Penning, however, under injudicious management, may tend to retard the feeding of the animals ſubjected to it. If the creatures be driven to a gre t diſtance from their paſtures to the pen, ſt muſt ſubject them to a hurtful degree of fatigue; and this will be increaſed if they be made to paſs through narrow lanes, where they may be crowded by paſſengers, mired in dirt, or drenched in wet: or if they be neglected too long in the pen; or put up at improper times, &c. Therefore, to derive the full benefit from folding, where the paſtures are of a great extent, there ought to be two or more folds placed cloſe by the paſture, at convenient diſtances; ſo that the flocks being gently conducted from one to the other, feeding all the way, might find themſelves, when full, juſt at the place for reſt. There they ſhould be ſuffered to remain juſt ſo long as is found to be neceſſary to complete their ruminating proceſs, and to prepare them for feeding afreſh: they ſhould then be ſuffered to riſe and ſtretch themſelves, when they naturally void their dung and urine on the ſpot. Thus will the dung be preſerved, and the paſtures be kept clean and ſweet. They ought then to be led gently to the freſh paſture which they had not lately breathed upon, or trampled with their feet, and which of courſe will be to them ſweet and inviting; they ſhould thus be ſlowly conducted to their next reſting place, feeding all the way; and ſo on till they go over the whole in a regular ſucceſſion. If diſeaſes be produced by ſuffering the animals to eat their food when covered with hoar froſt, or dew, or mildew, or at certain times of the day or night, when ſnails or other creatures are abroad, which they may ſwallow with their food; in all theſe caſes, when obſerved, the evil may, by an attentive economiſt, be avoided by a judicious uſe of the fold. He may alſo withdraw the ſheep from the paſtures when they become reſtleſs and refuſe to feed. In ſhort, a judicious economiſt, by having folds properly ſituated, reſpecting the circumſtances of ſhelter, coolneſs, water, and other conveniencies, may avail himſelf of theſe for greatly promoting the health and enjoyment of the animals, and thus accelerating their feeding; ſo that, independent of the benefits he ſhall derive from their dung, he will in other reſpects reap conſiderable emolument.

Here the Dr enters into ſome reaſonings and calculations reſpecting the greater progreſs and improvement that might be produced on land by theſe means, under a judicious ſyſtem of management, than by ſuffering the produce to be conſumed by animals allowed to paſture at large, for which we muſt refer the reader to his Eſſay.

III. *The* UTILITY *of* HARD *or* LIGHT STOCKING *of* PASTURE GROUND.—The Dr obſerves, that ſome perſons contend that the paſtures ought to be ſtocked very lightly; alleging, that although much of the produce is thus allowed to run to ſeed, which the beaſts will not eat, and which of courſe is trod under foot, and rotted by rain, and thus waſted; yet experience, they ſay, proves, that a greater profit will be thus derived from it, upon the whole, on account of the ſuperior thriving of the animals, than by any other practice. Others inſiſt, that light ſtocking of graſs land is a

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practice highly to be condemned; as it tends not only gradually to diminish its produce, but also to encourage the growth of coarse and unprofitable grasses, which deteriorate the pastures; and that hard stocking of grass lands, especially those of a rich quality, is an indispensable requisite of good management. These two opinions, so diametrically opposite, and which are equally maintained by sensible men, he thinks clearly prove the embarrassment to which they are subjected, in consequence of their not having adverted to the circumstances stated above, and many other particulars, as affecting the economical consumption of the produce of lands in grass.

He adds, that a 3d party, who approach perhaps nearer to the truth than either, advise that a mixed stock should be always kept upon the same field; and that were the consumption of the foul grass produced by the dung of the animals, the only article to be adverted to, it might be, doubtless, so managed as to correct this evil. But there are so many circumstances to be adverted to, that it is not easy by these means to get them all remedied. In every field, a variety of plants spontaneously spring up, some of which are disrelished by one class of animals, while they are eaten by others; and some of which, though eaten readily by some animals at one particular period of their growth, are rejected by them entirely at another. Thus it becomes necessary, not only to have a vast variety of animals in the same pasture; but also a very particular attention is required to augment or diminish the proportion of some of these classes of animals, at particular seasons of the year; otherwise some part of the produce will be allowed to run to waste, unless it be hard stocked to such a degree as to retard their thriving. But if a great variety of animals be allowed to go at large in the same pasture, they are never suffered to feed with that tranquility which is necessary to insure thriving in the highest degree. One class of these wishes to feed, or to play, while the others would incline to rest. They thus mutually disturb and teaze each other; and this inconvenience is greatly augmented, if penning of any sort be attempted. From these considerations, the practice of intermixing various kinds of stock very much together, is productive of evils, in many cases, greater than those which result from the waste of food they were intended to prevent. And though by hard stocking, the grass will be kept shorter, and more palatable in general to the animals who eat it, than if it were allowed to run to a great length, yet as animals which are to be fatted must not only have sweet food, but an abundant bite at all times, to bring them forward in a kindly manner, it seems to be nearly impossible to obtain at the same time both these advantages in the practice of pasturage.

IV. *Of* CUTTING *and consuming the* PRODUCE *by the* HORSE. Might not these evils, says the Doctor, be greatly diminished, if not entirely remedied, in many cases, by having the produce cut by the scythe, and given to the animals fresh in the house; rather than to suffer them to go at large and eat the produce on the field? Even under any system of management whatever? Many arguments, he thinks, tend to show, that this practice would be, in general, highly economical and advantageous. 1. If the consumption of plants be the object principally attended to, it is plain the benefits will be great: for experience has clearly proved, that there are many plants which are greedily consumed by beasts, if cut and given to them in the house, which never would be touched by them when growing in the field. Of this nature is the dock, cow-parsley, thistles, nettles, and many other plants. Upon what principle it should happen that these plants should be so readily eaten, when thus given, while they are totally rejected when in the field, he cannot say. But that they are thus eaten, without reluctance, even when the animal is not hurtfully hungry, is evident from this circumstance, that the beasts often fall greedily to these at the moment they are brought in from the field, even before they have had time to become hungry after they had come in. Fewer plants would be rejected or suffered to go to waste on this plan.

2dly, Many of even the best kinds of grasses, which when young form the most palatable food for the creatures, if once suffered to get into seed, are disrelished so much as never to be tasted by them unless to prevent starvation; and as, in all pasture fields, many of these grasses get into seed from various causes, all the produce of these plants is inevitably lost to the farmer. But if cut down by the scythe, in proper time, not one of these is ever suffered to get into that nauseating state; and consequently no waste is sustained.

3dly. But when animals are suffered to go upon the field, many of the plants are trodden under foot by the beasts, and bruised or buried in part in the earth, in which state they are greatly disrelished by them, and are suffered to run to waste; which never would take place were the practice of cutting adopted generally.

Lastly, Those few plants which are totally disrelished by one class of animals, will not, from this circumstance, become less acceptable to others, but much the reverse. Food that an animal has breathed upon, for any considerable time, becomes unpleasant to other animals of the same class; but not so to those of another species: it seems indeed thus to acquire for them a high relish. Even greater defilement by one animal seems to render food more acceptable to others: for straw, that in its clean state has been rejected by cattle, if employed as litter for horses, acquires a relish for cattle that they search for with avidity. Hence the sweeping of the stalls from one animal, furnishes a dainty repast for those of another kind; which can easily be shifted from one to the other, if the plants are consumed in the house, but which must have been lost in the field.

If, says our author, *the health and the comfort of the animal* be chiefly adverted to, the balance will be clearly in favour of the cutting system, when compared with that of pasturing. When animals are exposed to the sun, in the open air, they are not only greatly incommoded on many occasions by the heat, but also are annoyed by swarms of flies, gnats, and hornets, as well as by the gad-fly, which drives them into a state of perturbation little short of furiosity, which most obviously

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ously retard their thriving. At other times they hurt by chilling blasts, or drenched by cheerless rain, which renders their situation very uneasy, and greatly retards their feeding. Under proper management, in a well constructed all these evils would be alike removed, and they would be kept perpetually in a proper state of moistness, tranquillity, and ease, so as to make a little quantity of food go farther than it otherwise could have done in nourishing them. They would also be prevented from licking up flies, worms, and other noxious creatures, along with their food, which they are by pasturing apt to do, when they feed at those times of the day, or night, when these creatures crawl abroad. This would be entirely avoided by cutting the grass at those times of the day when none of these are to be found. Thus lingering diseases might often be avoided, which always retard the thriving, and often prove the destruction of the animal. And by giving an opportunity of administering dry and nourishing food, along with the moist and succulent, and by varying the tastes, so as to provoke an appetite, not only the health, but the thriving of the creatures, would be greatly augmented beyond what they could have been in any other way.

And if *manure is to be chiefly* attended to, there will be no comparison between the two modes of consumption. This is greatly in favour of stalling, that it would be idle to spend time in proofs of a proposition that may be considered as self-evident and certain.

And lastly, If the *quantity* of herbage produced on the same field be adverted to, it will be found to be equally in favour of the cutting system. All animals delight more to feed on the young fresh shoots of grass, than those that are older. Hence those patches in a pasture field that happen to have been eaten once bare, in the beginning of the season, are kept very short ever afterwards throughout the whole of that season, all the creatures delighting to feed upon them in preference to the parts of the field that have got into a greater head; so that these last are suffered to remain in a great measure untouched throughout the season. It is not, however, in general known, that grass, even the leafy parts of it, when it has attained a certain length, becomes stationary; and, though it will retain its verdure for some months in that state, makes no sort of progress whatever; whereas, if it had been cropped more frequently, it would have continued in a vigorous state of progress, advancing with a rapidity in a great measure proportioned to the frequency of its being cropped. For experimental proofs of this fact, see our author's *Essays on Agriculture and Rural Affairs, Vol.* II. *Disquis.* V. From his own experiments the Dr is satisfied that, in some cases, the actual produce of the same field, by a judicious management *in this respect*, may be augmented *fourfold* in the same season. It is owing to this circumstance, though the reason of the fact has not been understood, that hard stocking of pasture lands has been found to enable the same field to sustain a much greater weight of stock than it could do when lightly stocked. But under no system of management can the evil of unequal cropping of land under pasturage be avoided, unless it be by a destructive degree of hard stocking; which must be avoided where the animals are expected to thrive. By cutting with the scythe frequently, so as to keep the grass always short, and therefore in a state of continual vigorous vegetation, all these evils are avoided. The quantity of produce will be raised to the *maximum* that the land is capable of producing, while the stock to be fed by that produce needs not be in the smallest degree limited in point of food. Therefore, under every point of view that this question can be considered, we conclude that the practice of cutting grass, and consuming it green, in all cases where the ground is in a state that can admit of it, when compared with that of pasturage, appears to be so greatly economical, that the particulars under which that mode of management can be practised, and the peculiarities affecting it, deserve to be much more minutely investigated into than has ever yet been done.

He adds, that in confirmation of the justness of this conclusion, it is now universally admitted as a fact, confirmed by innumerable experiments, that a crop of red clover, when cut, and consumed in the house green, goes in all cases much farther in feeding beasts than when it is consumed by pasturage upon the field. The lowest estimate that he has ever seen made on this head, from actual experiment, is, that it will go at least *twice* as far when cut, as when pastured upon: some go as high as to say it will go *four times* as far. As every person who has tried the experiment agrees that the saving, by cutting this crop, is very great, that practice has of late years begun to prevail very much.

But the Dr conceives that the loss which is annually sustained by the nation at large, from an inattention to this circumstance, is so great as, in some measure, to call upon him to publish these remarks, with a view to direct the attention of others to investigate the subject with greater care than it has hitherto obtained. After suggesting the means of determining this point by actual experiment, for which we must refer the reader to the work itself, the Doctor proceeds; to prove that,

V. GRASS LANDS, *when* CONSTANTLY CUT, *are not* DETERIORATED. He observes, that what the changes would be, both in regard to the quantity and the nature of the produce from the same field, if annually cut, and the produce carried, or if consumed by suffering beasts to pasture upon it, cannot at present be told with certainty; but there are not wanting facts that may enable us to have some idea of the probable result. "I have often, says he, seen lawns around gentlemen's houses that have been under a course of continued shaving from time immemorial that discovered no symptoms of exhaustion, nor any sensible diminution of luxuriance or verdure, though no manures of any sort had ever been laid upon them. This fact struck him as important; and he applied for information respecting this particular, to a gardiner who had the charge of very extensive lawns of this sort, belonging to a gentleman of large property. He assured him, that for

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upwards of thirty years, that he had had the care of theſe lawns, ſome parts of them which had been laid down long before he knew them, and were originally, as he ſuppoſed, of a rich quality, had never received during all that time the ſmalleſt quantity of manure of any ſort; and that the lawn continued to be equally cloſe in the pile, equally verdant at all ſeaſons in the year, and required to be as often cut as ever: and that, in ſhort, he had no reaſon to apprehend that the quantity of its produce had diminiſhed in the ſmalleſt degree. This ſeems to our author a ſtrong preſumptive proof that graſs land, when once of a rich quality may be continued for an indefinite length of time under the ſcythe, without being at all deteriorated, even where it gets no return of dung. And as the Doctor has ſhewn that rich graſs land, under paſturage, produces as much dung as ought to manure each year more than double its own extent of ſurface; it follows, that if the ſame quantity of graſs land will only furniſh as many beaſts in the houſe, as if it were paſtured upon, (and it will do much more,) there can be annually obtained from each acre of land kept under the ſcythe as much dung as might manure two acres more, which might be abſtracted from that graſs land without deteriorating it. Of courſe, if the land be ſuch as that it can admit of being made richer, a dreſſing of that dung, now and then returned upon itſelf, would give it the richneſs wanted, without any extraneous aid. In this point of view, then, it ſeems to be impoſſible to deny that rich land, if kept under the ſcythe, can never become poorer, if none of the dung made by the beaſts fed upon it be abſtracted from it; but that, on the contrary, it can thus be made to afford a large annual ſupply of dung for the purpoſe of enriching poorer land, while it ſtill continues to be fertile itſelf in the ſame degree.

He alſo remarks, there ſeems to be no doubt but that the *quality* of the graſs muſt continue to improve while under the ſcythe, much more than while under paſturage. Every perſon, ſays he, who has beſtowed the ſmalleſt attention to objects of this ſort, muſt have remarked that the worſt kind of graſſes grow moſt freely upon thoſe parts of rich graſs lands that are the moſt open and ſpungy in their texture; and that they are in general much ſweetened in the pile where they chance to be much trod upon. Hence the fineſt graſſes on ſuch fields always abound moſt upon paths which are moderately trod upon; white clover and the ſweeteſt graſſes being ſeen there in abundance, while they are leſs frequent in the ſpungy parts of the field. But frequent rolling tends to produce this effect more univerſally and equally than any kind of treading by beaſts.

In confirmation of this, the Dr quotes the obſervations of Mr Davies, in his *Account of the Agriculture of Wiltſhire*, who ſays, that "the ſweetneſs of the feed depends much more on its being kept cloſe, *and eaten as faſt as it ſhoots*, than on any peculiar good quality of the graſs itſelf: for there are many downs that, when cloſe fed, appear to be a very ſweet paſture, but which, if ſuffered to run a year or two without a full ſtock on them, will become ſo coarſe, that ſheep *will almoſt ſoon ſtarve as eat the graſs*: and even in thoſe parts of the downs, where the finer and ſweeter graſſes abound, the ſoil is frequently ſo looſe and poor that nothing but conſtant treading will preſerve them from dying out, or being choaked by the finer and coarſer graſſes." It is likewiſe further remarked by Mr Davies, that in conſequence of a light ſtocking, heath, in ſome caſes, comes in the place of the better graſſes. But, ſays the Doctor, it is very evident that all the purpoſes of a full ſtocking, that is, keeping the graſs ſhort, and in a continual ſtate of vegetation, and conſequently ſweet, and preventing the coarſer graſſes from running up to ſtalk and overpowering the other together with the conſolidating of the ground by treading, would be obtained with much greater certainty by the practice of mowing; while the animals that conſumed the produce could in no caſe be ſubjected to a ſtint of food, which they neceſſarily muſt ſometimes be, where reliance is had upon hard ſtocking for preventing this evil.

VI. SWEETNESS *of* PASTURES. The Doctor obſerves, that the term, *ſweetneſs of paſture*, as above, and *ſweet kinds of graſs*, frequently occur in agricultural writings: yet it is doubtful, however, if ever they have been properly defined, ſo as to convey a preciſe and accurate meaning to the reader, or been ſo much adverted to as their importance deſerves. He therefore here attempts to ſupply theſe defects. Thoſe paſtures which animals chooſe to feed upon in preference to others, and which in general are eaten down cloſe to the ground are ſaid to be *ſweet* paſtures, in contradiſtinction to thoſe where the graſs, being different, is ſuffered to grow to a greater length, and to run to wither in part, without being touched; and are called *coarſe*, or, if tending to dampneſs, *rank* paſtures. Without entering into a diſcuſſion concerning the circumſtances that tend to produce this ſweetneſs of paſturage, which are various, he obſerves, that from whatever cauſe it originates, it is an univerſal rule, that in every caſe the ſweeter the graſs is, the ſweeter and more palatable it will be to beaſts of every ſort; and that the leſs weight of food will go much farther in recruiting or fattening an animal, if it be very pleaſing to the palate of the animal to which it is given, than if it had been leſs toothſome. For, as a certain quantity of food is required for the mere ſuſtenance of every animal, if that quantity be daily adminiſtered to it, and no more, the creature will barely live, but will never return any profit to the farmer. But if the beaſt ſhall get a greater quantity of food than this portion which is barely neceſſary for its ſubſiſtence, that ſurplus food then goes to augment the ſize, and to *fatten* the animal, and of courſe yields a profit to the farmer in proportion to the quantity.

VII. *The* IMPORTANCE *of* CONDIMENTS *in* DOMESTIC ECONOMY.—Little attention has hitherto been beſtowed on the ſubject of condiments as affecting animals. Hitherto, ſays the Dr, the greateſt part of mankind ſeem to forget that brutes have the ſenſe of *taſting* in as great perfection as man; and are diſpoſed to indulge their appetite for ſenſual gratifications, without reſtraint, wherever circumſtances put it in their power.

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ow, says he, no case in which the general attention of men seems to have been strongly turned to a point, unless it be in respect to the fattening calves: for I have met with few persons who have had an extensive practice in this department, who are not sensible that the profit is in proportion to the quantity of milk that the creatures can induced voluntarily to take in a given time. is solitary fact is known by thousands, who never think of extending it to any other case of animal existence. But there are a few, who have covered the vast importance of studying the taste the creatures they feed, that they may not only with them with the food they like best, but also these and give them in the quantities, and in way that will induce them to eat the most; as profit to be drawn from feeding beasts is always proportioned to the increased quantity of they can get each individual *coaxed* to consume in a given time. In this branch of rural economics, our author has met with no person who made greater progress than a plain practical ner at Hope, near Manchester, who spares neither trouble nor expence in procuring such kinds food and condiments as he finds best calculated to induce his cows to consume, in a given time, the greatest quantity of food possible. Among other condiments, this man has discovered how water stands pretty high in the scale; on account his beasts are never suffered, far hungered, to taste a drop of water that has ever been defiled by any animal setting a foot into it. They are always served with running water, which for their convenience, received into a long open trough, through which it passes while they are drinking. Beasts compelled through necessity to drink out of those muddy stagnant pools, in which other cattle have waded for days together, which are impregnated with their dung and piss, the inconvenience of this nauseating draught; the farmer suffers an abatement of his profit to a astonishing degree.

III. VALUE *of* COMMON SALT *in* FEEDING CATTLE.—The Dr remarks, that there is no substance yet known which is so much relished by the whole order of *graminivorous* animals, as common salt. The wild creatures of the desert are so fond of it, that wherever they discover a bank of earth impregnated with a small proportion of salt, they resort to it ever after regularly to lick the saline earth, as they would to a pool of water for drink; but when a hunter in America discovers such *a licks*, as such places are there called, he reckons himself sure of obtaining plenty of game, by lying in wait near it and shooting them as they approach it. It is also admitted by all those who have tried the experiment, that salt given along with the food of domestic animals, except fowls, to which it is a certain poison, tends very much to promote their health, and accelerate their feeding. But, salt does not act in the smallest degree as a nutritious substance, but merely by acting as a condiment, it whets the appetite, and gives the creature a strong relish for its proper food, so as to induce it to eat a greater quantity than it would have done *in a given time*, and thus greatly to augment its feeding quality beyond what it otherwise would have had. In this way, by a proper use of common salt, the same quantity of forage might be made to go twice as far as it could have gone in feeding animals, without the salt. If so, we have here laid open to our view an easy mode of augmenting the produce of our fields to an amazing extent: for, if the same quantity of forage can be made to go, not twice as far, but *one twentieth* part only farther than it now does, it would be the same thing as adding one 20th part to the aggregate produce of meat for beasts, throughout the whole kingdom. But, according to the estimate of the President of the Board of Agriculture, there are upwards of 50 millions of acres of *cultivated* land in this island; the value of the forage produced by which cannot, on an average, be rated so low as 20s. per acre; but even at that low rate, the addition of one 20th would amount to 2,550,000l. *per ann.*; a sum so great, that, when viewed in the aggregate, it is difficult to bring the mind to believe that such an improvement is actually practicable; yet, when the particulars are considered, it seems to be impossible not to admit that the amount of the improvement must be greatly above the statement here given. The salt laws however operate very strongly against improvement in this way.

IX. BEST MODE *of* OBTAINING HAY *of a* FINE QUALITY.—As in this climate, where grass does not continue to vegetate luxuriantly throughout the whole year, a provision must be made for winter food for beasts; and for this purpose, on grass farms, it becomes necessary, in all cases, to appropriate a proportion of the land for hay; it becomes then a consideration of importance, to inquire in what way hay of the best quality can be obtained in the greatest quantity, and at the least expence that the nature of the case will admit of.

From the considerations above stated, it is evident that it is a matter of much greater consequence than has been generally imagined, to take care that the hay shall be of the very best quality possible; because one stone of hay of an exceeding fine quality may probably go as far in *feeding* beasts as four of an inferior quality will do. So little attention is in general bestowed upon this subject, that few farmers have even an idea of the circumstances that chiefly tend either to improve the quality of their hay, or to make it worse. For the most part, all that seems to be aimed at is, to get the grass as quickly dried as possible, so as that it may admit of being kept, when put up in a large mass together. And as grass, that is already withered before it be cut, can be more easily dried than that which is very green and succulent, it is too general a practice to allow it to advance too far before it be cut; in consequence of which the hay is rendered of a quality much inferior to what it might have been. The judicious remarks of Mr DAVIES, in his *Account of Wiltshire*, are here introduced.

"The dairy farmers (he observes) in North Wiltshire, and in particular the graziers, are much more attentive to the quality than the quantity of their hay. They make a point of haining up their meadows as early as possible in autumn, and of course are able to mow early in the summer. It is not uncommon to see grass mown, not only before it is in blossom, but even before it is *all in*

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ear; and to this it is owing that it is more common to fat cattle with *hay alone*, in North Wilts, than perhaps in any county in the kingdom. And by this the dairy-men are able to keep up the milk of those cows that calve early, and from which calves are fatted, which otherwise shrink before the springing of the grass, and never recover. And the advantage they get by early after-grass, and by the duration of that after-grass to a late period in autumn, fully compensates for the loss of quantity in their hay crop."

Dr ANDERSON observes, that nothing is here said as to the mode adopted for *winning* the hay; by which is meant the process of converting succulent herbage into a state of hay that can be kept in quantities, on which its quality must always greatly depend. It is in general understood, that if hay can be made so as to retain some share of its green colour, it is better than if it were bleached white, or rotted: but precautions are seldom thought necessary to be adopted for guarding against the effects of scorching sun-shine, which, by too quickly exhaling its natural juices, renders it sticky, brittle, and unpalatable to a certain degree; and, what is of still more importance, the effects of rain, or even dew if abundant, if they are suffered to fall upon the grass after it is cut and before it be made into hay, are seldom adverted to; so that if dry weather comes soon to exhale that wet, while the grass lies spread out upon the ground, the farmer feels little anxiety about the consequences; though it is a certain fact that no hay, which has been in the least wetted during the process of hay making, can ever be made to have that sweet palatable taste it would have had without it. Nor has our author ever seen that beasts, when allowed to choose between hay so made and that which has been guarded from moisture, ever hesitated to make choice of the last, or committed a mistake, even where he himself could not distinguish a perceptible difference. But to obtain hay in all cases of the very best quality the circumstances will admit of, the following process, he says, may be safely combined with the practice of cutting and feeding beasts with grass in the house, as above recommended. Where the produce of grass land is to be cut, as above described, and used green, it will be proper in general to reserve a part of it for hay. In this case the cutting for *grass* and for *hay* should be carried on together; but with the following variations, depending on the use it is to be applied to. That part of the grass which is intended to be used green, as it will suffer no damage by being cut when wet, must continue to be cut regularly each day as it is wanted, without regard to the weather; whereas that part of it which is intended for hay, ought on no account to be cut while wet; and therefore that part of the operation must be discontinued, unless when the weather is dry and fine; nor should it ever be cut either in the morning or the evening, while dew is upon it. And as the hay, in the mode proposed, ought to be made day by day, for a certain space, as the grass comes forward for the scythe, while the weather is in a proper state for it; and not all at one time, as in the usual mode of hay-making, the cutting both grass and hay from the same field may be very conveniently combined together. For this purpose the grass which is cut in the morning, while the dew is perhaps be upon it, and in the afternoon, ought to be appropriated to the beasts green; and that part of the grass only which is cut from noon two o'clock, while the weather is dry and fine should be made into hay. If the mower begins to cut down for hay about nine o'clock in the morning, and goes on in that operation till one two in the afternoon; and if the persons who are to put up the hay begin to that operation about one, the grass will thus be allowed to lie between three and four hours in the swathe, exposed to the sun, which will exhale some part of its moisture, and deaden it enough for the purpose required, though it still retains the whole of its nutritious juices without abatement. After it is allowed to lie thus long, it should be raked up, and carried off the field in the latest cart that is employed for taking in the grass, and immediately put into the stack, so as that the whole that was cut that day, shall be put up before evening; and thus regularly each good day in the cut the season. But as grass, while in the succulent state, would not keep if put by itself, care must be taken to provide some forage to mix with it. For this purpose straw can be so proper as good dry hay; but for want of that, at the beginning, good straw must be safely employed. The Dr once saved a quantity of clover hay, being a late crop when the season was too far advanced to allow its being made in the usual way, by putting when new cut, thus intermixed with a proportion of good straw. It kept perfectly and when cut down and given to the beasts relished by them better than any other hay, and was equally valuable for every purpose. The author's method of *stacking* hay is noticed that article.

The Dr further observes, that for the purpose of *fattening* beasts, it may be necessary to use *hay* with the grass; but for rearing young cattle or other purposes, it will be highly economical to make use of straw for this purpose: for the oats or barley, when thus mixed with grass, will be equally good as ordinary hay. If experiments were duly studied by farmers, says he, perhaps not one particle of these kinds of straw ought to be employed in any other way: nor could the proudest of *corn* farms ever be at a loss for such an intermixture, as he will find it proper always to have as much ground under corn as would be sufficient to mix the whole of the straw if he inclined. If the proportion of straw should be more than enough for litter, it may be still profitably applied in the same manner.

X. *On the* PROPER CONSTRUCTION *of* FARM BUILDINGS. The Dr remarks, that whatever diminishes the quantity of labour required for any man, produces a saving to the farmer that will be in proportion to that diminution of labour. Farm houses ill arranged, and of course inconvenient, will require one man to feed and clean from one to five stalled cattle; in houses properly constructed he has known one man be able to feed and clean a score head of beasts with great ease. The arrangement which admitted of this economy, was

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ter. The house was divided by a foot-way of six et wide, running along the middle from end to nd. On each side of it was a range of stalls for attle, placed with their heads towards each other, f such a length as to admit of 25 to stand on a de, which at 3 feet for each will give 75 feet. t each end of this walk was a door, by one of hich the hay or other dry food was introduced; nd at the other turnips or other food recently ought home were laid down, so as not to mix foul the hay. Along each side of the walk was aced a wooden trough running the whole length thout interruption, a section of which was of is shape ⋃, the bottom being about six inches de. Between each beast there was a small divi- n by means of a board, perforated below, and e whole trough was placed in an exact horizon- l position, the bottom being raised about six ches from the ground. Behind the troughs re placed the stakes to which the beasts were ked. The floor on which they stood was pa- d, sloping a little backwards; and at a length just ficient to allow the beasts to stand easily and no re, it was lowered at once about 3 inches, so at the dung which was dropped from the beasts, en they stood right, fell into the lower division. his part of it, and indeed the whole, was made y smooth, so as to admit of the dung being ea- ly swept off by a broad-mouthed flat shovel or e occasionally, and put into a wheel-barrow as en as was necessary, and thus carried off. The per part of the structure was supported by strong sts placed at proper distances, and a passage of ee feet clear behind the cattle. This house d been originally intended to be left open with- t walls; but as it was found to be too cold for ter-feeding, to which it was solely appropria- d, the spaces between the pillars had been wall- m. For a house to be used the whole year round, it would best answer this climate to have these intervals closed in winter, by boards joined to each other quite close, which could be remo- ved during the summer so as to keep the cattle quite cool at that season. At one end of the stalls, where the situation will admit of it, should be a pipe of water, which could, by means of a stop-cock, be let into the troughs at pleasure. In this way the whole troughs could be filled at pleasure with pure water; and when the beasts had drunk as much as they inclined, the water that remain- ed could be let off by opening a plug in the bottom, and carried clear away by a channel pre- pared for that purpose. In feeding, the attend- ant fills a barrow properly constructed for that purpose, and wheels it along the middle walk, giving to each beast, as he goes along, a small quantity only of that kind of food; and so on till he goes over the whole. As soon as that is eaten up (or if any part of it remains in the stall of a particular beast, he takes it first away), he gives each beast in the same manner another small quan- tity of a different kind of food. In this way he goes over them 3 or 4 times successively, varying the food at each time if he can; and always re- serving to the last the sweetest and most palatable kind of food by way of dessert. Then sweep their troughs clean; and if they have got much dry food, especially if salt has been administered, the trough ought to be filled with water, at least four times a-day; which will keep it always sweet and clean, and induce them to eat much more than they would have done without such atten- tion.

The Dr then adds some remarks upon *stall feed- ing* of sheep, or feeding of sheep in *stalls* and upon feeding them with *turnips*, but having already treated so largely on the feeding of these useful animals, we must refer the reader for farther par- ticulars, to the Doctor's work.

RUS

RURALITY. } *n. s.* [from *rural*.] The qua-
RURALNESS. } lity of being rural. *Dict.*

RUREMONDE, a handsome, strong, and po- pulous town of the French empire, in the depart- ment of the Roer, and late province of Austrian Gelderland. It was burnt in 1665, and has been often taken and retaken. It was taken by the French republicans in 1793, but evacuated soon after. It was again taken by them in 1794, and united to the republic. It is seated at the con- fluence of the Maese and the Roer, or Ruer, (whence its name,) 12 miles S. of Venlo, and 70 NE. of Cologn. Lon. 5. 50. E. Lat. 51. 8. N.

RURIC, the first monarch of Russia. See Rus- sia, § 2, 6.

RURICOLIST. *n. s.* [*ruricola*, Lat.] An inha- bitant of the country. *Dict.*

RURIGENOUS. *adj.* [*rus* and *gigno*, Lat.] Born in the country. *Dict.*

RUSCINO, 1. an ancient town of Gaul, at the foot of the Pyrenees: (*Liv.* xxi. c. 24.) 2. A sea port town of Africa. *Idem.* xxx. c. 10.

RUSCIUS, another ancient town of Gaul.

RUS

RUSCONIA, a town of Macedonia. *Liv.* 44, c. 44.

RUSCUS, Knee-holm, **Knee Holly**, or *Butche- r's Broom*, a genus of the syngenesia order, be- longing to the dioecia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 11th order, *Sar- mentaceæ*. The male calyx is hexaphyllous; there is no corolla; the nectarium is central, ovate, and perforated at the top. The female calyx, corolla, and nectarium, are the same as in the male; there is one style, with a trilocular two-seeded berry. The most remarkable species is the

Ruscus aculeatus, or common butcher's broom, common in the woods in many parts of England. It has roots composed of many thick fibres which twine about each other; from which arise several stiff green stalks about three feet high, sending out from their sides several short branches, garnished with stiff, oval, heart-shaped leaves, placed alternately on every part of the stalk, end- ing with sharp prickly points. The flowers are produced in the middle, on the upper side of the leaves; they are small, and cut into six parts; of

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a purple colour, sitting close to the midrib. They appear in June; and the female flowers are succeeded by berries as large as cherries, of a sweetish taste, which ripen in winter; when they are of a beautiful red colour. As this plant grows wild in most parts of England, it is rarely admitted into gardens; but if some of the roots are planted under tall trees in large plantations, they will spread into large clumps; and as they retain their leaves in winter, at that season they will have a good effect. The seeds of this plant generally lie a year in the ground before they vegetate; and the plants do not grow long before they arrive at a size big enough to make any figure, and therefore it is much better to transplant the roots.—The root is accounted aperient, and in this intention is sometimes made an ingredient in apozems and diet-drinks, for opening slight obstructions of the viscera and promoting the fluid secretions. This plant is used by the butchers for besoms to sweep their blocks. Taxidermists place the boughs round their beasts and cheese to defend them from the mice; for they cannot make their way through the prickly leaves.

* RUSE. *n. s.* [Fr.] Cunning; artifice; little stratagem; trick; wile; fraud; deceit. A French word neither elegant nor necessary.—I might have add much concerning the wiles and ruses, which these timid creatures use to save their lives. *Ray.*

RUSELLÆ, an ancient town of Etruria; destroyed by the Romans. *Liv.* xxvii. c. 43.

(1.) * RUSH. *n. s.* [*ræsc*, Islandick *ryg*, Sax.] 1. A plant.—A *rush* hath a flower consisted of many leaves, which are placed orbicularly, and expand in form of a rose; from the centre of which rises the pointal, which afterward becomes a roundish husk, which is generally three-corner'd, opening into three parts, and full of roundish seeds: they are planted with great care on the banks of the sea in Holland, in order to prevent the water from washing away the earth; for the roots of these *rushes* soften themselves very deep in the ground, and mat themselves near the surface, so as to bind the earth closely together. *Mortim.*—He taught me how to know a man in love; in which cage of *rushes* I am sure you are not prisoner. *Shak.*—

Man but a *rush* against Othello's breast,
And he retires. *Shak. Oth.*

—Is supper ready, the house trimm'd, *rushes* strew'd, cobwebs swept? *Shak.*—

Rushes overspread the neighb'ring plains. *Dryd.*

2. Any thing proverbially worthless.—Not a *rush* matter, whether apes go on four legs or two. *L'Estrange.*—John Bull's friendship is not worth a *rush*. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) RUSH, in botany. See JUNCUS.

(3.) * RUSH. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Violent course.—A gentleman of his train spurred up his horse, and with a violent *rush* severed him from the duke. *Hatton.*—

The *rush* of death's unruly wave
Swept him off into his grave. *Crashaw.*
Cruel Antes thither by'd him,
With the *rush* of one rude blast. *Crashaw.*

(4.) RUSH, in geography, a large fishing town of Ireland, in Dublin County, 12 miles from Dublin; famous for ling of a superior flavour.

(5.) RUSH, FLOWERING. See BUTOMUS.

(6.) RUSH, LESSER FLOWERING. See SCHEUCHZERIA.

(7.) RUSH, MARSH, or } See SCIRPUS.
(9.) RUSH, ROUND. }

(8.) RUSH, SWEET. See ACORUS.

* *To* RUSH. *v. n.* [*hreosan*, Sax.] To move with violence; to go on with tumultuous rapidity.—Gorgias rushed out of the camp by night to the old king's tent *rush* upon the camp of the Jews. 1 *Mac.* ix. 2.—Every one that was a warrior rushed out upon them. *Judith.*—

Arches *rush* to battle in the clouds. *Pope.*
Why will thou *rush* to certain death? *Dryd.*
Deliberate should he *rush*, and lose his life
With odds oppress'd. *Dryden's Æn.*

—They will always strive to be good christians, but never think it to be a part of religion, to *rush* into the office of princes or magistrates. *Spratt.*—

While this revolving motion does endure,
They deep inspire fresh, and *rush* from their
shoar. *Dryden.*
With a *rushing* sound th' assembly bend
Diverse their steps. *Pope's Odyss.*
O'er the shaded billows *rush'd* the night. *Id.*

(1.) * RUSH-CANDLE. *n. s.* [*rush* and *candle*.] A small blinking taper, made by stripping a rush except one small stripe of the bark which leaves pith together, and dipping it in tallow.—

If you please to call it a *rush-candle*,
Henceforth it shall be so for me. *Sat.*
The *rush-candle*, from the wicker hole
Of some clay habitation, visit us. *Keats.*

(2.) RUSH CANDLES. See CANDLES, § 1.

RUSHEN, *adj.* made of rushes. This word I have met with only in a description of a bridle. See BRIDGE, § 14.

LOSHEEN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Kerry, and province of Munster.

RUSH-GRASS. See SCIRPUS.

RUSHIN, a town in the Isle of Man, called in Celtic *Cashtaan*. See CASTLETOWN, N° 3.

RUSHWORTH, John, the compiler of useful collections respecting the affairs of England, was born in Northumberland about 1600, and was descended of honourable ancestors. After finishing the university of Oxford, he removed to Lincoln's Inn; but the law not suiting his genius, he left it, and attended the meetings of parliament, where he wrote down the speeches of the kings and members. During 11 years, from 1629 to 1640, when no parliament was held, he was an attentive observer of the great transactions of the time in the *star-chamber*, the *court of honour*, and the *exchequer chamber*, when all the judges of England assembled there on cases of great emergency. He also visited the camp at Berwick, was present at the battle of Newborn, at the treaty of Ripon, and at the great council of York. In 1640 he was appointed assistant to Henry Elsynge, clerk of the house of commons. The commons considered him as a person worthy of confidence, and trusted him with carrying their messages to the king while he was at York. When the parliament created Fairfax their general, Rushworth was appointed his secretary, and did not lose his office till Fairfax resigned his commission, Rushworth returned to Lincoln's Inn, and was soon after (in 1651-2) chosen one of

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committee, on the propriety and means of new-modelling the common law. He was elected a representative for Berwick upon Tweed to the parliament which Richard Cromwell assembled in 1658, and was re-elected to that which restored Charles II. to the crown. After the Restoration, he delivered to the king several books of the privy-council, which he had preserved during the commotions. Sir Orlando Bridgeman keeper of the great seal chose him his secretary in 1677, which he enjoyed as long as Sir Orlando kept the seals. In 1678 he was a 3d time chosen member for Berwick, and a 4th time in the parliament in 1679. He was also a member of the parliament convened at Oxford. The different offices he had held afforded him opportunities of acquiring an independence; yet he was never possessed of wealth. Having run himself into debt, he was committed to the King's Bench prison, where he lingered for the last six years of his life. He died 12th May 1690. His "Historical Collections of private Passages in State, weighty Matters in Law, remarkable Proceedings in Parliament," were published in folio: The first part, between 1618 and 1629, appeared in 1659; the 2d in 1680; the 3d in 1692; the 4th and last, which comes down to 1648, was published in 1701; and all together made 7 vols. These underwent a 2d edition in 1721; and the trial of the earl of Strafford was added, which made the 8th. This work has been much applauded by those who condemn the conduct of Charles I. and accused of partiality by their opponents. Of these last, Dr John Nelson of Cambridge, in a Collection of the Affairs of State published by the command of Charles II. asserted, 'that Rushworth has concealed truth, endeavoured to vindicate the prevailing detractions of the late times, &c. This accusation is carried too far. His principles led him to show the king and his adherents in an unfavourable light, and to vindicate the proceedings of parliament; yet it cannot justly be affirmed that he has misrepresented or falsified any of the speeches or facts which he has admitted into his collection.

* RUSHY. *adj.* [from *rush*.] 1. Abounding with rushes.—In *rushy* grounds, springs are found at the first spit. *Mortimer.*—

The timid hare to some lone seat
Retir'd; the *rushy* fen or rugged furze. *Thomson.*

2. Made of rushes.—

What knight like him could toss the *rushy* lance? *Tickel.*

* RUSK. *n. s.* Hard bread for stores.—The lady sent me divers presents of fruits, sugar, and *rusk*. *Raleigh.*

RUSKY-BRIDGE, a town of Ireland, in the county of Leitrim and province of Connaught.

* RUSMA. *n. s.* A brown and light iron substance, with half as much quicklime steeped in water, the Turkish women make their philothron, to take off their hair. *Grew.*

RUSPINA, an ancient town of Africa, near Adrumetum. *Sil. Ital.* iii, 260. *Hirt.* 640.

RUSS, a town of Prussian Lithuania, capital of a district so named, at the mouth of the Russe; 20 m. NW. of Tilsit. Lon. 21. 50. E. Lat. 55. 20. N.

RUSSA, a rare tree, in Bengal. See BENGAL, § 11.

RUSSE, a river of Prussian Lithuania, which runs into the Mediterranean at Russ.

(1.) RUSSEL, Alexander, M. D. a Scottish writer, born and educated at Edinburgh. He became physician to the English Factory at Aleppo. In 1775, he published a *History of Aleppo*, which was much esteemed, and has been since reprinted, and translated into different languages. He returned to England, in 1759, and became physician to St Thomas's hospital. He died in 1770.

(2.) RUSSEL, Lord William, an illustrious British patriot, the 3d son of William, first Duke of Bedford, was born in 1641. In 1667, he married Rachel, ad daughter of Thomas Wriothesly, earl of Southampton, and widow of lord Vaughan, a lady of distinguished talents and piety. Having obtained a seat in the house of Commons, he took part with the Whigs, and opposed the succession of James, Duke of York, with great zeal. He afterwards entered into various schemes for excluding that prince, for which he was indicted and tried at the Old Bailey, by a venal Court, and a packed Jury, who found him guilty; and he was beheaded in Lincoln's Inn Fields, July 21st, 1683. In 1689, the House of Lords passed an act, reversing his attainder. His virtuous lady survived him several years: and a volume of her correspondence with some of the most eminent personages of that age has been published.

(3.) RUSSEL, in geography, a county of Massachusetts, in Hampshire county.

(4.) RUSSEL, an extensive and mountainous county of Virginia; bounded on the N. by Green-Brier county, E. by Washington, S. by Lee county, and W. by Kentucky. Previous to the separation of Lee from this county, it contained 3148 citizens, and 198 slaves. It is still 120 miles long, and 45 broad.

RUSSELIA, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. The calyx is five-leaved; the petals five above; the capsule is one-celled and many seeded.

RUSSELSHEIM, a town of Germany, in the principality of Hesse Darmstadt, on the Maine, 6 miles E. of Mentz, and 13 NW. of Darmstadt. Lon. 8. 16. E. Lat. 49. 55. N.

RUSSEL-WOOD, a town of Ireland, in the county of Kildare, and province of Leinster.

(1.) * RUSSET. *adj.* [*rousset*, Fr. *russus*, Latin.] 1. Reddishly brown. Such is the colour of apples called *russetings*.—

The morn, in *russet* mantle clad. *Shak.*
Our summer such a *russet* livery wears,
As in a garment often dy'd appears. *Dryd.*

2. *Newton* seems to use it for grey; but, if the etymology be regarded, improperly.—This white spot was immediately encompassed with a dark grey or *russet*. *Newton.* 3. Coarse; homespun; rustick. It is much used in descriptions of the manners and dresses of the country, I suppose, because it was formerly the colour of rustick dress: in some places, the rusticks still die cloaths spun at home with bark, which must make them *russet*.—

Henceforth my wooing mind shall be expres't
In *russet* yeas, and honest kersy noes. *Shak.*

(2.) * RUSSET. *n. s.* Country dress. See RUSSET,

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ET, *adj.*—The Dorick dialect has a ſweetneſs in its clownifhneſs like a fair ſhepherdeſs in her country *ruſſet*. *Dryd.*

(3.) * RUSSET. } *n. ſ.* A name given to ſeve-
* RUSSETING. } ral ſorts of pears or apples from their colour.—The *ruſſet* pearmain is a very peaſant fruit, continuing long on the tree, and in the conſervatory partakes both of the *ruſſeting* and pearmain in colour and taſte; the one ſide being generally *ruſſet*, and the other ſtreaked like a pearmain. *Mortimer.*

(1, 1.) RUSSIA, a very large and powerful empire, partly in Europe, and partly in Aſia, bounded on the N. by the Northern Ocean, or Frozen Sea; on the E. by the Eaſtern Ocean, and divided from America by Behring's, formerly Anian Straits, which are about 73 verſts wide. (See VERST.) From thence, towards the S. it extends along the chain of the Aleoutikie iſlands, which approach the NW. coaſt of America; and from Kamtſchatka, towards the SW. it extends, by a chain of other iſlands, called KOURILSKIE iſlands, as far as Japan; on the S. it borders on the Black Sea, on the nations which dwell at the foot of the Caucaſian mountains, on a part of Perſia, the Caſpian Sea, the hordes of Kirghiſkaſaki, on Zungoria, Chineſe Mungalia and Daouria; a territory traverſed by the Amour, and ſo named from the *Daouri*, its ancient inhabitants; and on the W. on the Danish and Swediſh Lapland, the Baltic Sea, Courland, Livonia, Lithuania, Poland, and Turkey in Europe. Ruſſia occupies more than a 9th part of the European continent, and nearly the 16th part of the whole globe. Its greateſt extent from W. to E. viz. from the 39½° to 207½° of lon. is 168°; and if the iſlands of the Eaſtern Ocean be included, it will then be 185°; ſo that the continental length of Ruſſia, viz. from Riga to Tchoukotſkoy Noiſ, which is the eaſterumoſt promontory, will conſtitute about 8500 verſts. The greateſt extent of this empire from N. to S. *i. e.* from the 78° to 50½° of lat. is 27¼ degrees. Hence the breadth of Ruſſia, from Cape Taymoar, which is the NE. promontory, to Kiakhta, is about 1200 verſts. The greater part of this empire lies in the temperate zone, and a part of it, viz. that which is beyond 64½° of lat. lies in the frigid zone; and the whole ſurface contains above 2,150,000 ſquare verſts. There therefore is not at preſent, and never was been in any period, an empire, the extent of which could be compared to that of Ruſſia. The length and breadth of this immenſe empire, taken in a ſtraight line, may be thus diſcovered. Its furtherməſt point or ſpit on the N. is Taymour Cape, which is the moſt NE. promontory in the government of Tobolſk, lying in 78° of lat.; its fartheſt point on the S. is the mouth of the river Souiak, falling into the Caſpian Sea in the government of Caucaſus, lying in the 43° of lat.; its weſterumoſt point is the iſland of Oczel in the government of Riga, in 39½° of lon.; and the furtherməſt point of it on the E. is the Tchoukotſkoy Noiſ, which is the moſt eaſtern cape in the government of Irkutik, lying in 207½° of lon.

(2.) RUSSIA, ANCIENT HISTORY, AND INHABITANTS OF. Ruſſia was anciently inhabited by various nations; ſuch as Huns, Scythians, Sarmatians, Maſſagetes, Sclavonians, Cimbri, &c. of whom an account is given under the various detached articles in this work. The origin of the Ruſſians themſelves, though not prior to the 9th century, is covered with almoſt impenetrable obſcurity; partly owing to the ignorance and barbarity of the people, and partly to the miſtaken policy which yet prevails in the nation, of ſuppreſſing all accounts of their origin, and inquiries into their ancient ſtate and ſituation; of which we have a remarkable inſtance in the ſuppreſſion of a work by profeſſor Muller, entitled *De Originibus Gentis et Nominis Ruſſorum*. According to ſeveral authors of credit, the Ruſſians derived their origin from the SLAVI, or *Sclavonians*, corruptly called the *Sclavonians*, who ſettled firſt along the banks of the Volga, and afterwards near the Danube, in the countries named *Bulgaria* and *Hungary*: but being driven thence by the Romans (whom the Ruſſians call *Wlochers*, or *Italianers*), they firſt removed to the river Borſthenes, or Dneiper, then over-ran Poland, and, it is reported, built the city of Kiow. Afterwards they extended their colonies farther north, to the rivers which run into the *Ilmen* lake, and laid the foundation of the city of Novogorod. The town of Smolenſk and Tiernikow appear alſo to have been built by them. The moſt ancient inhabitants, not only of Ruſſia, but all over Siberia, quite to the borders of China, are called *Tſchudi*: for profeſſor Muller, on inquiring in theſe parts by whom the ancient buildings and ſepulchral monuments he ſaw there, were erected, was everywhere anſwered, that they were the works of the Tſhudi, who in ancient times had lived in that country. In the 9th century, the Scandinavians, that is, the Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes, emigrated from the north, and, croſſing the Baltic, went to ſeek habitations in Ruſſia. They firſt ſubdued the Courlanders, Livonians, and Eſthonians; and, extending their conqueſts farther, they exacted tribute from the Novogrodians, ſettled kings over them, and traded as far as Kiow, and even to Greece. Theſe new invaders were called *Waregers*; which, according to profeſſor Muller, ſignifies *ſea-faring people*; or, if derived from the old northern word *ware*, it ſignifies *mercantile men*. To theſe Waregers the name of *Ruſſes*, or *Ruſſians*, is thought by the moſt eminent authors to owe its origin; but the etymology of the word itſelf is uncertain. In theſe dark ages, Ruſſia was divided among a great number of petty princes, who made war upon each other with the ferocity and cruelty of wild beaſts; ſo that the whole country was reduced to the moſt miſery; when Goſtomiſel, a chief of the Novogorodians, pitying the unhappy fate of his countrymen, and ſeeing no other method of remedying their calamities, adviſed them to offer the government of their country to the Waregers. The propoſal was readily accepted, and three princes of great abilities and valour were ſent to govern them; namely RURIC, SINEUS and TRUWOR, ſaid to have been brothers. The firſt fixed up his reſidence at Ladoga, in the principality of Great Novogorod; the ſecond at Bielo Ofero, or the White Lake; and the third kept his court at Iſborſk, or, according to others, at a ſmall town, then

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en called TWERTZOG, in the principality of
ekow. The 3 brothers reigned amicably, and
de considerable additions to their dominions;
of which at length devolved to Ruric by the
th of Sineus and Truwor.

3.) RUSSIA, CLIMATE OF. See § 45.

4.) RUSSIA, DIVISIONS OF. See § 33.

5.) RUSSIA, GOVERNMENT OF. See § 44.

6.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, FROM RURIC, TO
E DEATH OF WOLODOMIR. Ruric became
ous for the ſtrict adminiſtration of juſtice;
iſſued a command to all the boyars who poſ-
ſed territories under him, to exerciſe it in an
ſt and uniform manner. To this end, it was
ſſary there ſhould be general laws. And this
ds us to conclude, that letters were not entire-
unknown in his dominions. The Ruſſian em-
continued to flouriſh till the end of the reign
Wolodomir, who aſcended the throne in the
975. Having ſettled the affairs of his em-
in peace, he demanded in marriage the prin-
Anne, ſiſter to the Greek emperor Baſilius
phyrogenitus. His ſuit was granted, on con-
n that he ſhould embrace Chriſtianity. With
the Ruſſian monarch complied; and that vaſt
ire was thenceforward conſidered as belong-
to the patriarchate of Conſtantinople. Wolo-
ir received the name of *Baſilius* on the day
which he was baptized; and, according to the
ian annals, 20,000 of his ſubjects were bap-
d the ſame day. Michael Syra, or Cyrus, a
k, ſent by Photius the patriarch of Conſtan-
ple, was accepted as metropolitan of the
le country. At the ſame time, Wolodomir
away all his former wives and concubines, of
m he had upwards of 800, and by whom he
d 12 ſons, who were baptized on the ſame day
h himſelf. The idols of paganiſm were now
wn down; churches and monaſteries were e-
ed, towns built, and the arts began to flou-
. The Sclavonian letters were now firſt in-
uced into Ruſſia; and Wolodomir ſent miſ-
ries to convert the Bulgarians; but only 3
of their princes came to him and were bap-
d. Theſe events happened in the year 987.
odomir called the arts from Greece, cultivat-
them in the peaceable periods of his reign, and
arded their profeſſors with generoſity, that he
ht diſpel the clouds of ignorance which enve-
ed his country, call forth the genius of his
trymen, and render them happy. He alſo
nded public ſchools, and enacted a law con-
ning the methods of inſtructing youth, and di-
ing the conduct of the maſters appointed to
ruct them. He died in 1008, and, contrary to
rules of ſound policy, divided his empire a-
ng his 12 ſons.

7.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH
WOLODOMIR, TILL THAT OF JARISLAUS.
lodomir was no ſooner dead, than his ſons
mmenced a civil war. Suantepolk, one of the
thers, having deſtroyed and ſeized upon the
minions of two others, was himſelf driven out
Jariſlaus, and obliged to fly to Boleſlaus king
Poland. This brought on a dreadful war be-
en the Poles and Ruſſians; in which the for-
were victorious, and the latter loſt a great
t of their dominions, as related under POLAND,
§ 4. Jariſlaus finding himſelf unable to oppoſe the king of Poland, now turned his arms againſt the reſt of his brothers, all of whom he diſpoſſeſſed of their dominions, and ſeized them for himſelf. He next attacked the Coſſacks, over whom he gained ſeveral advantages. After which he ventured once more to try his fortune with Boleſlaus: but in this 2d expedition he was attended with worſe ſucceſs than before; being now reduced to the condition of a vaſſal and tributary to the victorious monarch. However, in the reign of Mieciſlaus II. the ſucceſſor of Boleſlaus, the Ruſſians again ſhook off the yoke, and a laſting peace was confirmed by the marriage of Mieciſlaus with the ſiſter of Wolodomir. Jariſlaus now continued to enjoy the empire quietly, and was ſo much addicted to reading, that he devoted even a part of the night to his ſtudies. He invited men of letters to his court, and cauſed many Greek books to be tranſlated into the Ruſſian language. In 1019, he gave the people of Novogorod ſeveral laws, under the title of *Gramota Soudebnaia*, to be obſerved in the courts of juſtice. Theſe are the firſt laws that were reduced to writing in Ruſſia; and, what renders them remarkable, is the conformity they have with thoſe of the other northern nations. He founded a public ſchool at Novogorod, where he maintained and educated 300 children at his own expence. His court was the moſt brilliant of the north, and furniſhed an aſylum to unfortunate princes. He died in 1051.

(8.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF JARISLAUS, TILL ITS CONQUEST BY THE TARTARS. Jariſlaus fell into the ſame error which his father had committed, by dividing his dominions among his five ſons. This produced a repetition of the bloody ſcenes which had been acted by the ſons of Wolodomir; the Poles took advantage of the diſtracted ſtate of affairs to make continual inroads and invaſions; and the empire continued in the moſt deplorable ſituation till 1237, when it was totally ſubdued by the Tartars. Innumerable multitudes of theſe barbarians, headed by their khan Batto, after ravaging great part of Poland and Sileſia, broke ſuddenly into Ruſſia, where they committed the greateſt cruelties. Moſt of the Ruſſian princes, among whom was the great duke George Sevoloditz, were made priſoners, and racked to death; and, in ſhort, none found mercy but ſuch as acknowledged themſelves the ſubjects of the Tartars. The imperious conqueror impoſed upon the Ruſſians every thing that is moſt mortifying in ſlavery; inſiſting that they ſhould have no other princes than ſuch as he approved of; that they ſhould pay him yearly a tribute, to be brought by the ſovereigns themſelves on foot, who were to preſent it humbly to the Tartarian ambaſſador on horſeback. They were alſo to proſtrate themſelves before the haughty Tartar; to offer him milk to drink; and, if any drops of it fell down, to lick them up; a ſingular mark of ſervility, which continued near 260 years.

(9.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, FROM THE TARTAR INVASION, TILL ITS PARTIAL CONQUEST BY CASIMIR THE GREAT. George Sevoloditz was ſucceeded by his brother Michael Sevoloditz Zernigouſki;

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Zerniguski; who oppoſed the Tartars, but was defeated by them, and loſt his life. He left three ſons, Theodore, Alexander, and Andrew, whoſe wars with each other ended in the death of them all. Alexander, a ſon of Alexander, was then placed on the throne by the Tartars; and his ſon Daniel, removed his court from Wolodimir to Moſcow, where he firſt aſſumed the title of *Great duke of Wolodimir and Muſcow*. Daniel left two ſons, Gregory and John; the former of whom, named *Kalita*, from a purſe he uſed always to carry about him filled with money for the poor, aſcended the throne, but he was ſoon aſſaſſinated by another prince named *Demetrius*, who was himſelf put to death for it by the Tartars; and John, likewiſe ſurnamed *Kalita*, was then made czar. This John left three ſons, John, Simon, and Andrew; and the eldeſt of theſe, commonly called *Ivan Ivanowitz*, in the barbarous language of Ruſſia, *i.e. John the ſon of John*, was made czar, with the approbation of the Tartars, on whom he was dependent. During theſe ſeveral reigns, which occupied upwards of 100 years, the miſeries of a foreign yoke were aggravated by all the calamities of inteſtine diſcord and war; whilſt the knights of Livonia, or *brothers of the ſword*, as they are ſometimes called, a kind of military order of religious, on one ſide, and the Poles on the other, attacked Ruſſia, and took ſeveral of its towns, and ſome conſiderable countries. The Tartars and Ruſſians, whoſe intereſts were in this the ſame, often united to oppoſe their common enemies; but were generally worſted. The Livonians took Pleſcow; and the Poles made themſelves maſters of Black Ruſſia, the Ukraine, Podolia, and the city of Kiow. Caſimir the Great, one of their kings, carried his conqueſts ſtill farther. He claimed a part of Ruſſia, in right of his relation to Boleſlaus duke of Halitz, who died without iſſue, and took the duchies of Peraſmyſlia, Halitz, and Luckow, and the diſtricts of Sanock, Lubiackzow, and Trebowla; all which countries, he made a province of Poland. See POLAND, § 8.

(10.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, FROM THE CONQUEST BY CASIMIR, TILL THE ACCESSION OF JOHN BASILOWITZ I. The newly conquered Ruſſians were ill diſpoſed to brook the government of the Poles; whoſe laws and cuſtoms were more contrary to their own than thoſe of the Tartars had been. They joined the latter to rid themſelves of the yoke; and aſſembled an army numerous enough to overwhelm all Poland, but deſtitute of valour and diſcipline. Caſimir, undaunted by this deluge of barbarians, preſented himſelf at the head of a few troops on the borders of the Viſtula, and obliged his enemies to retire. Demetrius, the ſon of John, who commanded in Moſcow, made frequent efforts to rid himſelf of the galling yoke. He defeated in ſeveral battles Mamay khan of the Tartars; and, when conqueror, refuſed to pay them any tribute, and aſſumed the title of *great Duke of Muſcovy*. But the ſtorm of the north returned in greater numbers than before; and Demetrius, at length overpowered, after a ſtruggle of 3 years, periſhed with his whole army, which amounted to 240,000 men. His ſon, Baſilius, revenged his father's death. He attacked his enemies, d[rove] them out of his dominions, and conquered Bulgaria. He made an alliance with the Poles, w[hom] he could not ſubdue; and even ceded to them part of his country, on condition that they ſhould help him to defend the reſt againſt any new incurſions of the Tartars. But this treaty was a weak barrier againſt ambition. The Ruſſians found new enemies in their allies; and the Tartars ſoon returned. Baſilius had a ſon named *Baſilius*, to whom the crown ought to have deſcended. But the father, ſuſpecting his agency, left it to his own brother Gregory, a man of a ſevere and tyrannical diſpoſition, and conſequently hated by the people, who aſſerted the lawful and proclaimed him their ſovereign. The Tartars took cognizance of the diſpute, and determined it in favour of Baſilius; upon which Gregory had recourſe to arms, drove his nephew from Moſcow to the principality of Uzeia, and uſurped his throne. Upon the death of Gregory, Baſilius returned to Moſcow; but Andrew, Demetrius, ſons of the late uſurper, laid ſiege to that city, and obliged him to retire to the monaſtery of Troitz, where they took him priſoner with his wife and ſon, and put out his eyes; hence the appellation of *jemnoi*, the *blind*. The ſubjects of this unfortunate prince, incenſed at the cruel treatment he had received, forced the perpetrators of it to fly to Novogorod, and reſtored their lawful ſovereign at Moſcow, where he died. In the midſt of this general confuſion John I. the ſon of Baſilius, by his invincible bravery and refined policy, became both the conqueror and deliverer of his country, and laid the foundation of its future grandeur.

(11.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, FROM THE ACCESSION OF JOHN I. TILL HIS DEATH. Glowing with indignation the narrow limits of his power at his acceſſion to the throne, after the death of his father, he began immediately to revolve within himſelf the means of enlarging his dominions. Marriage ſeemed to him one of the beſt expedients he could begin with; and accordingly he demanded and obtained Maria, ſiſter of Michael duke of Twer; whom he ſoon after deſpoiled, under pretence of revenging the injuries done to his father, and added this duchy to his own territories of Moſcow. Maria, by whom he had a ſon named *John*, who died before him, did not live long; and upon her death he married Sophia daughter of Thomas Paleologus, who had been driven from Conſtantinople, and forced to take ſhelter at Rome, where the pope portioned the princeſs, in hopes of procuring thereby great advantage to the Romiſh religion; but his expectations were fruſtrated, Sophia being obliged to conform to the Greek church after her arrival in Ruſſia. John doubtleſs hoped by this marriage to eſtabliſh a claim to the empire of the eaſt, to which her father was the next heir: and the Ruſſians certainly owed to this alliance their deliverance from the Tartar yoke. Shocked at the vile homage exacted by thoſe proud victors, the huſband going to meet their ambaſſadors at a diſtance from the city, and ſtanding to hear what they had to ſay, whilſt they were at dinner, Sophia told him, that ſhe was ſurpriſed to find [him]

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had married a ſervant to the Tartar. Nettiit tons reproach, John feigned himſelf ill when next deputation from the Tartars arrived, and er that pretence avoided a repetition of the nated humiliating ceremonial. Another cirdance equally diſpleaſing to this princeſs was, the Tartars had, by agreement, within the s of the palace at Moſcow, houſes in which r miniſters reſided; to ſhow their power, and at ſame time watch the actions of the great duke. get rid of theſe, a formal embaſſy was ſent e Tartarian khan, to tell him, that Sophia g been favoured with a viſion from above, ing her to build a temple in the place where houſes ſtood, her mind could not be at eaſe he had fulfilled the divine command; and fore his leave was deſired to pull them down, give his people others. The khan conſented: houſes within the Kremlin were demoliſhed; no new ones being built the Tartar reſidents obliged to leave Moſcow; their prince beprevented from revenging this breach of pro, by a war he was engaged in with the Poles. taking advantage of this circumſtance, and ng conſiderably increaſed his forces, diſclaimubjection to the Tartars, attacked their doand made himſelf maſter of Caſan, where ſolemnly crowned with the diadem of that which is ſtill uſed for the coronation of ſian ſovereigns. The province of Permia, great part of Lapland and Aſiatic Bulgaria, ubmitted to him; and Great Novogorod, duced by his generals after a 7 years ſiege, ded him 300 cart loads of gold and ſilver, other valuable effects. Alexander Witold, de of Lithuania, was in poſſeſſion of this place, from which he had exacted for ſome an annual tribute of 100,000 rubles, a proſum for thoſe days in that country. When taken by John Baſiliowitz, he, to ſecure queſt, put it under the protection of the voluntarily rendered himſelf their tributary and accepted a governor from the hand of ing Caſimir III. a weak prince, from whom nothing to fear. The Novogorodians contito enjoy all their privileges till about two after; when John ambitious of reigning controul, entered their city with a numeretinue, under pretence of keeping to the faith, he being accuſed of an intention to ace the Romiſh religion; and with the aſſiſt of the archbiſhop Theophilus, ſtripped them their remaining riches. He then depoſed racherous prelate, and eſtabliſhed over Nod new magiſtrates, creatures of his own; deſtroying at once a noble city, which, had berties been protected, and its trade encoul, might have proved to him an inexhauſtible of wealth. All the north beheld with terror oniſhment the rapid increaſe of the victor's r: foreign nations courted his alliance; and etty princes of Ruſſia ſubmitted to him with reſiſtance. The Poles, however, complainudly of his breach of faith in regard to Nod, and threatened revenge: upon which elated with his ſucceſſes, with the riches d amaſſed, and the weak condition of moſt neighbours, ſent a body of troops into Lithuania, and ſoon became maſter of ſeveral of its towns. Caſimir applied for aſſiſtance to Matthias king of Hungary: but was anſwered that his own ſoldiers were quite undiſciplined; that his auxiliaries had lately mutinied for want of pay; and that it was impoſſible for him to raiſe a new army out of the neighbouring countries. The Polith monarch in this diſtreſs was obliged to purchaſe of John a ceſſation of arms for two years, during which the Muſcovite made new acceſſions to his dominions. The dukes of Servia, whoſe territories were about 500 miles in extent, had long thought themſelves ill uſed by the Lithuanians on account of their religion, which was that of the Greek church; and wanted to withdraw from this ſubjection to Poland, and put themſelves under the protection of Ruſſia. An accident afforded them the wiſhed for pretence. Their envoys arriving at Wilna, deſired admittance to the king's preſence: which being refuſed, one of them endeavoured to force his way in; but the porter ſhut the door rudely againſt him, and in ſo doing broke one of his fingers. The porter, was immediately put to death, but the Servians, not ſatisfied, returned home in great fury, and prevailed upon their countrymen to ſubmit to the Muſcovites. Caſimir made ſeveral attempts to recall them, but to no purpoſe. Matthias king of Hungary dying about this time, two of his ſons, Uladiſlaus, then king of Bohemia, and John Albert, contended for his vacant crown. Caſimir wiſhed to give it to the latter, whom he aſſiſted to the utmoſt of his power; and though he was in great want of men and money he purchaſed a renewal of the truce with the Ruſſians, and thereby gave John time to eſtabliſh himſelf in his new acquiſitions. Caſimir died in 1492, and was ſucceeded on the throne of Poland by his ſon John Albert, who totally diſregarding the Ruſſians, involved himſelf unneceſſarily in a war with the brave Stephen duke of Moldavia: and though he had at the ſame time both the Tartars and Turks againſt him, his propenſity to pleaſure rendered him ſo indolent, that he not only did not attempt to moleſt John in any of his poſſeſſions, but concluded a peace with him on terms very advantageous to the latter; and even entered into a treaty, by which he ſtipulated not to aſſiſt the Lithuanians, though they had choſen his brother Alexander for their duke, in caſe the Ruſſians ſhould attack them. Alexander, to parry the inconveniences of this agreement, and to guard againſt the deſigns of his enemies, demanded in marriage John's daughter, Helena, by his ſecond wife Sophia, and obtained her. The Lithuanians then expected tranquillity: but the ambitious *czar*, for John had aſſumed that title ſince his conqueſt of Caſan ſoon found a pretence to break with his new allies, by alleging, that Poliſh Ruſſia, as far as the river Berezina, had belonged to his anceſtors, and therefore was his by right, and that Alexander had engaged to build a Greek church at Wilna for his Ruſſian conſort, which inſtead of doing, he had endeavoured to force the Poliſh Ruſſians to become Roman catholics. In conſequence of this plea, he ſent into the territories of his ſon-in-law, by different ways, three armies, which reduced ſeveral places, deſtroyed

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the country about Smolenſko, and defeated the Lithuanian field marſhal Oſtroſky near the river Wedraſch, where he fell unawares into an ambuſh of the Ruſſians. Alexander raiſed a new army of Sileſians, Bohemians, and Moravians; but they came too late, the Ruſſians having retired with their plunder. Elated by their ſucceſs, they invaded Livonia in 1502, with 130,000 men: but Walter Von Plettenberg, grand-maſter of the knights of the croſs, with only 12,000 men, gave them a total overthrow; killing 10,000 of them with little loſs on his own ſide. John diſcomfited by this defeat, and being engaged in a war with the Tartars, the Poles, and the city of Pleſkow, immediately diſpatched an embaſſy to Plettenberg, and concluded a truce with him for 50 years. At the ſame time he begged of that general to ſend to Moſcow, that he might ſee him, one of the *iron dragoons*, as he called them, who had performed wonders in the late engagement. Von Plettenberg readily complied; and the czar rewarded the cuiraſſier's accompliſhments with conſiderable honours and preſents. Alexander had been elected king of Poland upon the death of his brother John Albert, in 1501, but the Poles refuſed to crown his conſort Helena becauſe ſhe adhered to the Greek religion. Provoked at this affront, and probably ſtill more ſtimulated by ambition, John reſolved again to try his fortune with them; and accordingly ordered his ſon Demetrius, to march againſt Smolenſko, and reduce that city. The young prince did what he could, but the vigorous reſiſtance of the beſieged, and the arrival of the king of Poland with a numerous army, obliged the Ruſſians to raiſe the ſiege and return home; and the czar was glad to make a freſh truce with the Poles for ſix years, upon the eaſy terms of only returning the priſoners he had taken. Neither the czar nor Demetrius long ſurvived this event; for Sophia, who had gained an abſolute aſcendant over her huſband, and wanted to give the ſovereignty to her children, perſuaded him to ſet aſide and impriſon his grandſon Demetrius, the only child of the late John, whom he had by his firſt wife Maria, and declare her eldeſt ſon, Gabriel, his ſucceſſor. The czar blindly followed the inquitous advice; but ſhortly after finding his end approach, he ſent for young Demetrius, expreſſed great remorſe for his barbarity, and on his death-bed declared him his lawful ſucceſſor. He died in November 1505, after a reign of 55 years; leaving behind him an immenſe territory, chiefly of his own acquiring.

(12.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF JOHN I. TILL THAT OF BASILIUS. The czar was no ſooner dead, than his ſon Gabriel, at the inſtigation of his mother Sophia, put an end to the life of the young Demetrius, by confining him in priſon, where he periſhed with hunger and cold; after which Gabriel was crowned by the name of *Baſilius*, and took the title of czar. On his acceſſion he expected that the Poles would be in confuſion about the election of a new ſovereign; but, being diſappointed by their unanimous election of Sigiſmund I. (ſee POLAND, § 15.) he ſent an army into Lithuania, and laid ſiege to Smolenſko. It made a brave reſiſtance, till news arrived that the crown troops of Poland were coming to their aſſiſtance, with 80,000 Crim Tartars; which the Ruſſians retreated with precipitation, but were quickly followed by the Poles, who reduced the czar to ſubmit to their own terms. Baſilius remained quiet for ſome time, after which he, with a numerous army, encamped near Pleſkow, where the Poles, preſuming on the late treaty, received him as a friend. But the Moſcovite prieſts, of the Greek church, preaching up that it would be advantageous to have a ſovereign of their own religion, brought them to ſuch a height of enthuſiaſm, that they murdered their magiſtrates, and opened their gates to the czar, who made them all ſlaves, baniſhed them to diſtant parts, and filled the city with Moſcovites, to ſecure his conqueſt. Soon after he took Smolenſko; and the Swedes, alarmed at his rapid progreſs, deſired a prolongation of the truce, for 6 years longer. The duchy of Lithuania was the great object of Baſilius; to accompliſh which, he ordered John Czeladin, a man enterpriſing and to raſhneſs, to march thither with 80,000 men. The army of the Poles did not exceed 30,000 men, but was commanded by a moſt experienced general. The two armies met on the oppoſite banks of the Dneiper, near Orſova, and the Poles paſſed that river in ſight of their enemies. The Lithuanians began the attack, but were repulſed by the Ruſſians; who, imprudently purſuing them became at once expoſed to the full fire of the enemy's artillery. The Poliſh cavalry then ruſhed in among them, and made dreadful havoc. Thoſe who endeavoured to fly, were drowned in the Dneiper; and the reſt, including Czeladin himſelf, were made ſlaves. Baſilius was at Smolenſko when he received the news of this great defeat; on which he immediately fled to Moſcow, where his danger increaſed daily. The Crim Tartars ravaged his dominions, and the emperor Maximilian, with whom he had been in alliance, deſerted him; his troops were defeated in Livonia, where he was obliged to ſubmit to a peace on diſhonourable terms. In the mean time, the king of Poland ſtirred up the Tartars to invade Ruſſia, while the Ruſſian monarch endeavoured to excite them to an invaſion of Poland. Theſe barbarians, equally treacherous to both parties, firſt ſtruck and ravaged Podolia, in Poland: and then invaded Ruſſia, defeated the armies of the czar in 1521, and quickly made themſelves maſters of Moſcow. An army, which had been ſent to oppoſe their progreſs, was defeated near the Oka; and the czar's brother Andrew, who commanded it, was the firſt who fled. Baſilius with great difficulty made his way to Novogorod, being ſo terrified, that he hid himſelf by the way under a hay-cock, to avoid a party of the enemy. The Tartars, however, ſoon obliged him to ſign a writing, by which he acknowledged himſelf their vaſſal, and promiſed to pay them a tribute of ſo much a head for every one of his ſubjects. Beſides this, Machmet Getei, the commander of the Tartars, cauſed his own ſtatue be ſet up at Moſcow, as a mark of his ſovereignty; compelled Baſilius to return to his capital, to bring thither in perſon the firſt payment of the tribute, and, as a token of his ſubmiſſion, to proſtrate himſelf before his ſtatue. Machmet Getei

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en left Moſcow, and returned home with an amenſe booty, and upwards of 80,000 priſon-s, who were made ſlaves, and ſold like cattle the Turks. In his way back he attempted to ke the city of Rezan; but was repulſed with con-erable loſs by John Kowen, who commanded in at place for the Ruſſians. Here the Tartar ge-ral narrowly eſcaped with his life, his coat be-g ſhot through with a muſket ball; and the uſcovites pulled down his ſtatue, and broke it nieces as ſoon as the conquerors had left them. ſiius died in 1533; and was ſucceeded by his ſon hn Baſiliowitz II. an infant of five years of age.

(13.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH JOHN BASILIOWITZ II. During the minority John II. his two uncles Andrew and George en-avoured to deprive him of the crown; but their empts were defeated by the activity of his ardians. The Poles alſo commenced hoſtilities, t made little progreſs. John, as ſoon as he en-ed his 19th year, ſhowed a deſire to reſcue his jects out of that deſperate ſtate of ignorance d barbariſm in which they had been hitherto merſed. He ſent a ſplendid embaſſy to the peror Charles V. who was then at Augſburg, deſire the renewal of a treaty of friendſhip ich had been concluded with his father Maxi-lian; and offering to enter into a league with ainſt the Turks, as enemies to the Chriſ-n religion; for his farther information in which, icularly in regard to the doctrine and ceremo-s of the Latin church, he requeſted that his baſſador might be allowed to ſend from Ger-ny to Ruſſia proper prieſts to inſtruct him and ſubjects. With theſe he likewiſe deſired to e ſome wiſe and experienced ſtateſmen, able civilize the wild people under his government; alſo, the better to help to poliſh them, he re-ſted that he would ſend mechanics and artiſts very kind; in return for all which he offered rniſh two tons of gold yearly, for 20 years ether, to be employed in the war againſt the rks. The emperor readily agreed, and the ian ambaſſador accordingly engaged upwards 50 German artiſts, to repair to Lubec, and ed from thence to Livonia. But the Lu-ers, who were very powerful at that time, aimed at nothing leſs than the engroſſing of whole commerce of the north, ſtopped them, repreſented ſtrongly to the emperor, in the e of all the merchants in Livonia, the dan-ous conſequence of thus affording inſtructions he Ruſſians, who would ſoon avail themſelves to ruin their trade, and diſtreſs the ſubjects his imperial majeſty. The workmen and o-s intended for Ruſſia were eaſily prevailed n to return home; and the czar's ambaſſador arreſted upon his arrival at Lubec, and im-oned there at the ſuit of the Livonians: how-he eſcaped ſoon after; and the czar, though raged at the Lubeckers, was obliged to ſuſ-d his reſentment. His firſt enterpriſe was a-ſt the Tartars of Caſan, who had hitherto n ſuch formidable enemies. In this he was nded with ſucceſs; the whole territory was quered in 7 years; but the capital, *Caſan*, be-well fortified and bravely defended, made ſuch reſiſtance as quite diſheartened the beſiegers. John hearing of this, haſtened to them with a con-ſiderable reinforcement, and exhorted them to puſh the ſiege with redoubled vigour. But the greater part, deaf to his remonſtrances, proceeded to mutiny, and fell upon their comrades who were for continuing the war. John, alarmed at this, ruſhed in among the combatants, and with difficulty parted them: but neither menaces nor intreaties, nor even a promiſe of the whole plun-der of the city if they took it, could prevail on them to continue the war. Their rage at laſt prompted them to threaten the life of their ſove-reign; who was obliged to make the beſt of his way to Moſcow; and the mutineers inſtantly re-turned thither. John, though juſtly incenſed at this inſolence, took a method of puniſhing it which does honour to his humanity. Having ſe-lected a guard of 2000 of his beſt troops, he or-dered a great feaſt, to which he invited his prin-cipal nobles and officers, to each of whom, ac-cording to the Ruſſian cuſtom, he gave very rich garments. The chief of the ſeditious were clo-thed in black velvet; and after the dinner was over, he made a ſpeech to the whole company, ſetting forth the behaviour of his troops before Caſan, their contempt of his commands, and their conſpiracy againſt his life: to which he ad-ded, that he was doubly ſorry to find the inſtiga-tors of ſuch wickedneſs among thoſe who were ſtyled, and who ought to be, his faithful coun-ſellors; and that thoſe who knew themſelves to be guilty of ſuch atrocious wickedneſs could not do better than voluntarily to ſubmit themſelves to his mercy. Upon this, moſt of them immedi-ately threw themſelves at his feet, and implored his pardon. Some of the moſt criminal were exe-cuted, but the reſt were only impriſoned. Im-mediately after this, John marched with a freſh army to re-inveſt Caſan before the Tartars had time to recover themſelves. The beſieged ſtill made an obſtinate defence, and the Ruſſians again began to be diſpirited; upon which the czar or-dered his pioneers to undermine the walls of the citadel, a practice then unknown to the Tartars. This work being completed, he directed his prieſts to read a ſolemn maſs to the whole army, at the head of which he afterwards ſpent ſome time in prayer, and then ordered fire to be ſet to the powder, which acted ſo effectually that great part of the foundation was immediately blown up, and the Muſcovites ruſhing into the city, ſlaughtered all before them; while the aſtoniſhed Tartars, crowding out at the oppoſite gate, croſ-ſed the Caſanka, and fled into the foreſts. Among the priſoners taken on this occaſion were Simeon king of Caſan with his queen; both of whom were ſent to Moſcow, where they were treated with the utmoſt civility and reſpect. Encou-raged by this ſucceſs, John invaded the country of Aſtracan, the capital of which he ſoon re-duced; after which he prepared to revenge him-ſelf on the Livonians for their behaviour in ſtop-ping the German artiſts. John Baſiliowitz I. had concluded a truce with this people for 50 years; which now being expired, Jodocus, archbiſhop of Dorp and canon of Munſter, ſenſible of the

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danger to which he was expoſed by the vicinity of the Ruſſians, requeſted the czar to give him a prolongation of the truce. John offered him the alternative of a truce for 5 years, upon payment of one fifth of a ducat for each perſon in Dorpt; or for 20 years, on condition that he and the Livonians ſhould rebuild all the Ruſſian churches which had been demoliſhed in their territories, and allow his ſubjects the free exerciſe of their religion. Jodocus evaded an anſwer, but at laſt levied a conſiderable ſum, and fled with it to Munſter, where he reſigned his prebend and married. His ſucceſſor, named *Herman*, and the deputies from Livonia, accepted of conditions, and ſwore to obſerve them; with this additional clauſe, that the prieſts of the Romiſh communion ſhould be exempted from paying tribute. But while the Livonians ſwore to theſe terms, they were at that very time in treaty with Guſtavus Vaſa, king of Sweden, to join them in attacking Ruſſia. Guſtavus complied with their deſires; upon which John invaded Finland. Guſtavus advanced againſt him with a powerful army; but as neither the Poles nor Livonians gave him any aſſiſtance, he was obliged to conclude a treaty with the czar, and ſoon after to evacuate the country. Finland was then governed by William of Furſtenberg grand maſter of the Livonian knights, and the archbiſhop of Riga; between whom a quarrel happened about this time, which facilitated John's deſigns. The archbiſhop, after attempting to ſet himſelf above the grand maſter even in civil affairs, and to perſecute thoſe who adhered to the confeſſion of Augſburg, choſe for his coadjutor in the archbiſhopric of Riga, Chriſtopher duke of Mecklenburg. From the abilities and haughty temper of this lord, the Livonian knights had reaſon to fear the worſt; and the ſtep was, beſides, unprecedented, and contrary to the eſtabliſhed laws. Theſe diſcontents were heightened by letters intercepted from the archbiſhop to his brother Albert duke of Pruſſia, inviting this laſt to ſuppreſs the order of Livonian knights, and to ſecularize their poſſeſſions; ſo that an open war broke out among the contending parties, and the archbiſhop was ſeized and made priſoner. He was, however, ſoon releaſed through the mediation of the emperor of Germany and other potentates, backed by the powerful preparations of the Pruſſians to avenge his cauſe; but in the mean time the ſtrength of their country being totally exhauſted, the Livonians were obliged, inſtead of preparing for war, to ſue to the czar for peace. John replied, that he did not believe their intentions to be ſincere while they kept 6000 Germans in pay; and therefore, if they meant to treat of peace, they muſt begin with diſmiſſing theſe troops. The Livonians did as they were ordered; and in 1558, an army of 100,000 Ruſſians entered the diſtrict of Dorpt, and laid every thing waſte with the moſt ſhocking cruelty. After this they entered the territories of Riga, where they behaved with equal inhumanity; and having at laſt ſatiated themſelves with blood and treaſure, they retired with an immenſe booty and a great number of priſoners. The Livonians, now convinced of their own folly in provoking the rage of the Ruſſians, ſent ambaſſadors to ſue for peace. Theſe offered the czar a preſent of 30,000 ducats, and prevailed upon him to grant their nation a truce for 4 months, during which they returned home to get the money. But in this interval the Livonian governor of the city of Nerva, fired ſome cannon againſt Ivanogorod or Ruſſian Nerva, on the oppoſite ſide of the river, and killed ſeveral of the czar's ſubjects who were quite unarmed. The Ruſſians, out of regard to the truce did not attempt to make repriſals; but immediately acquainted John with it; which ſo incenſed the czar, that when the Livonian ambaſſadors arrived, he told them, he looked upon their nation to be a ſet of perjured wretches, who had renounced all honeſty; that they might go back with their money and propoſals, and let their countrymen know that his vengeance would ſoon overtake them. The ambaſſadors were ſcarce arrived in Livonia, when an army of 300,000 Ruſſians entered the diſtrict of Nerva, under Peter Sofegaledrii, who had been a famous pirate in the Euxine ſea. He took Nerva in 9 days, and ſoon made himſelf maſter of Dorpt, where he found immenſe treaſures. Several other garriſons terrified by the approach of ſuch numbers, quitted their poſts; ſo that the Ruſſians became maſters of a great part of Livonia almoſt without oppoſition. At laſt, Gothard Kettler, grand-maſter of the knights of Livonia, intreated Chriſtian III. king of Denmark to take Riga, Revel, and the countries of Garnland, Wirrland, and Eſthonia under his protection; but from his advanced age he declined the offer, though he aſſiſted them with money and powder, of which they ſtood greatly in need. Having then applied to the emperor of Germany, and the court of Sweden, Kettler put himſelf under the protection of the Poles, who had hitherto been ſuch formidable enemies to the Ruſſians. In the mean time the latter purſued their conqueſts; took the city of Marienburg, laid waſte the diſtrict of Riga, deſtroyed Garnland, and penetrated to the very gates of Revel. Felin, though provided with the beſt artillery in the whole country, became theirs by the treachery of its garriſon; and William of Furſtenberg the old grand maſter was taken, and ended his days in a priſon at Moſcow. The diſtracted ſituation of the Livonian affairs now induced the biſhop of Oeſel to ſell his biſhopric to Ferdinand king of Denmark, who exchanged it with his brother Magnus for a part of Holſtein. The diſtricts of Revel and Eſthonia put themſelves under the protection of Sweden; and the grand maſter, finding himſelf deſerted by all, ſuppreſſed the order of which he was the chief, and accepted of the duchy of Courland, which he held as a fief of the crown of Poland. The czar ſaw with pleaſure the diviſion of Livonia between the Swedes and Poles, which, he rightly judged, would produce quarrels between the two nations, and thus give him the fairer opportunity of ſeizing the whole. In 1564, the Swedes offered him their aſſiſtance againſt the Poles; but he, judging himſelf ſtrong enough without them, attacked the Poles with his own forces, but was twice defeated, which checked his farther operations in Livonia. In 1669, he entered into a treaty of commerce with England. Capt. 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ellor having recently discovered a passage to rchangel in Russia through the White Sea, by hich that empire could be supplied with foreign oods, without the assistance of Poland or Livoa. To the discoverers of this new passage John anted many exclusive privileges; and after the ath of queen Mary I. renewed the alliance with ieen Elizabeth, which has been continued without interruption ever since. In the mean time, owever, a prodigious army of Turks and Tarrs entered Muscovy, with a design to subdue e whole country. But Zerebrinov, the czar's eneral having attacked them in a defile, put em to flight with great slaughter. They then tired toward the mouth of the Volga, but be closely pursued by the Russians and Tartars, ey were again defeated and forced to fly towrds Azof on the Black Sea, which they found ined by the blowing up of a powder magazine. he Russians then attacked their ships there, took me, and sunk the rest; by which means almost e whole army perished either with hunger or ord. From this time the empire of Russia beme so formidable, that none of the neighbour nations could expect to make a conquest of it. he Poles and Swedes indeed continued to be very midable; and by the instigation of the former, e Crim Tartars, in 1571, again invaded the untry with an army of 70,000 men. The Russ, who might have prevented their passing the lga, retired before them till they came within miles of Moscow, where they were totally deated. The czar no sooner heard this news than retired with his most valuable effects to a well-tified cloyster; upon which the Tartars entered e city, plundered it, and set fire to several urches. A violent storm of wind soon spread e flames all over the city; which was totally nt in six hours, though its circumference was wards of 40 miles. The fire likewise communated itself to a powder magazine at some disce from the city; by which accident upwards 30 roods of the city wall, with all the buildgs upon it, were destroyed; and, according to best historians, upwards of 120,000 citizens re burnt or buried in the ruins, besides women, ildren, and foreigners. The castle, however, ich was strongly fortified, could not be taken; d the Tartars hearing that a formidable army s coming against them under John Magnus ke of Holstein, whom John had made king of onia, thought proper to retire. The war, nevertheless, continued with the Poles and Swedes; the czar being defeated by the latter after some ing success, was reduced to the necessity of ing for peace. But the negotiations being someor other broken off, the war was renewed with our. The Livonians, Poles, and Swedes, having united against the Russians, gained great adtages over them; and, in 1579, Stephen Batory, then king of Poland, levied an army to inde Russia, and regain all that Poland had formerly claimed, which indeed was little less than whole empire. As the Poles understood the of war much better than the Russians, John nd his undisciplined multitudes unable to cope h the regular forces of his enemies: and their quests were so rapid, that he was soon obliged to sue for peace: which, however, was not granted; and the number of enemies which now attacked Russia might probably have conquered it entirely, had not the allies grown jealous of each other. The consequence was, that, in 1582, a peace was concluded with the Poles, in which the Swedes were not comprehended. However, the Swedes finding themselves unable to effect any thing of moment after the desertion of their allies concluded a truce; after which the czar, having been worsted in an engagement with the Tartars, died in 1584.

(14.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF THEODORE, AND EXTINCTION OF THE RACE OF RURIC. This great prince was succeeded by his son Theodore; a man of such weak understanding, that he was totally unfit for government. Under him, therefore, the Russian affairs fell into confusion; and Boris Gudenov, a nobleman whose sister Theodore had married, assumed all the authority. At last he resolved to usurp the throne. For this purpose he caused the Czar's brother Demetrius, who was only 9 years of age, to be assassinated; and afterwards caused the czar also to be murdered. In 1597 the czar himself was taken ill and died, being poisoned by Gudenov; of which indeed the czarina was so well convinced, that she would never afterwards speak to her brother. With Theodore ended the line of Ruric, who had governed the empire of Russia for above 700 years. Boris, who in reality was possessed of all the power, and would indeed have suffered nobody else to reign, artfully pretended to be unwilling to accept the crown, till compelled to it by the intreaties of the people; and even then he put the acceptance of it on the issue of an expedition which he was about to undertake against the Tartars. The truth of the matter, however, was, that no Tartar army was in the field, nor had Boris any intention of invading that country; but by this pretence he assembled an army of 500,000 men, which he thought the most effectual method of securing himself in his new dignity.

(15.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, TILL THE EXPULSION OF THE POLES, AND ELECTION OF THEODORE III. Boris, in 1600, concluded a peace with the Poles, but resolved to continue the war against the Swedes; however, being disappointed in some of his attempts against that nation, he entered into an alliance with the Swedish monarch, and even proposed a match between the king's brother and his daughter. But while these things were in agitation, the city of Moscow was desolated by one of the most dreadful famines recorded in history. Thousands of people lay in the streets and highways, with their mouths full of hay, straw, or even the most filthy things which they had been attempting to eat. In many houses the fattest person was killed in order to serve for food to the rest. Parents were said to have eaten their children, and children their parents, or to have sold them to buy bread. One author (Petrius) says, that he himself saw a woman bite several pieces out of a child's arm as she was carrying it along: and Captain Margaret relates, that four women having ordered a peasant to come to one of their houses, under pretence of paying him for some wood, killed and eat up both him and his horse. This

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dreadful calamity lasted three years, notwithstanding all the means which Boris could use to alleviate it; and in this time upwards of 500,000 people perished in the city. In 1604 a young man appeared, who pretended to be *Demetrius*, whom Boris had caused to be murdered. Being supported by the Poles, he proved very troublesome to Boris all his lifetime, and after his death deprived his son Theodore II. the new Czar, of the empire; after which he ascended the throne himself, and married a Polish princess. However, he held the empire but a short time, being killed in an insurrection of his subjects; and the unhappy Czarina was sent prisoner to Jaroslaw. After the death of Demetrius, Zuski, who had conspired against him, was chosen Czar; but rebellions continually taking place, and the empire being perpetually harassed by the Poles and Swedes, in 1610 Zuski was deposed, and Uladislaus son of Sigismund king of Poland was elected. However, the Poles representing to Sigismund, that it would be more glorious for him to be the conqueror of Russia, than only the father of its sovereign, he carried on the war with such fury, that the Russians in despair fell upon the Poles, who resided in great numbers at Moscow. The Poles being well armed and mostly soldiers, had greatly the advantage; however, they were on the point of being oppressed by numbers, when they fell upon the most cruel method of ensuring their success that could be devised. This was by setting fire to the city in several places; and while the distressed Russians ran to save their families, the Poles fell upon them sword in hand. In this confusion upwards of 100,000 people perished; but the event was, that the Poles were totally driven out, and lost all footing in Russia. The expulsion of the Poles was succeeded by the election of Theodore Romanov, a young nobleman of 17 years of age, whose posterity still continue to enjoy the sovereignty. He died in 1645, and was succeeded by his son Alexis.

(16.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF ALEXIS. The reign of Alexis was almost one continued scene of tumult and confusion, the empire being harassed on all sides by external enemies, and perpetually disturbed by internal commotions. The sources of these commotions arose from the multiplicity and inconsistency of the laws, and the jarring claims of the nobles on the borders. An *ukase*, or personal order, which is an edict of the sovereign, signed with his own hand, is the only law of Russia. These edicts are as various as the opinions, prejudices, passions, or whims of men; and in the days of Alexis they produced endless contentions. To remedy this evil, he made a selection, from all the edicts of his predecessors, of such as had been familiarly current for 100 years; presuming that those either were founded in natural justice, or during so long a currency had formed the minds of the people to consider them as just. This digest, which he declared to be the common law of Russia, and which was preceded by a sort of institute, is the standard law-book at this day known by the title of the *Ulogenie* or *Siestion*; and all edicts prior to it were declared to be obsolete. He soon made his *novelles*, however, more bulky than the Ulogenie; and the additions by his successors are beyond enumeration. This was undoubtedly a great and useful work; but Alexis performed another still greater. Though there are many courts of judicature in this widely extended empire, the emperor has always been lord paramount, and could take a cause from any court immediately before himself. But as several of the old nobles had the remains of principalities in their families, and held their own courts, the sovereign or his ministers, at a distance up the country, frequently found it difficult to bring a culprit out of one of these hereditary feudal jurisdictions, and try him by the laws of the empire. This was a very disagreeable limitation of imperial power; and the more so that some families claimed even a right to repledge. A lucky opportunity offered of settling this dispute; and Alexis embraced it with great ability. Some families on the old frontiers were taxed with their defence, for which they were obliged to keep regiments on foot; and as they were but scantily indemnified by the state, it sometimes required the exertion of authority to make them keep up their levies. When the frontiers, by the conquest of Cuban, were far extended, those gentlemen found the regiments no longer burdensome, because by the help of false musters, the former scanty allowance much more than reimbursed them for the expence of the establishment. The consequence was, that disputes arose among them about the right of guarding certain districts, and law-suits were necessary to settle their respective claims. These were tedious and intricate. One claimant showed the order of the court, issued a century or two back to his ancestor, for the marching of his men, as a proof that the right was then in his family. His opponent proved, that his ancestors had been the real lords of the marches; but that, on account of their negligence, the court had issued an *emmancy ukase* to the other, only at this particular period. The emperor ordered all the family archives to be brought to Moscow, and all documents on both sides to be collected. A time was set for the examination; a fine wooden court-house was built; every paper was lodged under a good guard; the day was appointed when the court should be opened and the claims heard; but that morning the house, with all its contents, was in two hours consumed by fire. The emperor then said, "Gentlemen, henceforward your ranks, your privileges, and your courts, are the nation's, and the nation will guard itself. Your archives are unfortunately lost, but those of the nation remain. I am the keeper, and it is my duty to administer justice for all and to all. Your ranks are not private, but national; attached to the services you are actually performing. Henceforward Colonel Buturlin (a private gentleman) ranks before Captain Viazemsky (an old prince)." This constitution, which established the different ranks of Russia as they remain to this day, is by Voltaire ascribed to Peter: but it was the work of Alexis; who, when the situation of himself and his country is considered, must be allowed to have been a great and a good man. He died in 1676.

(17.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF PETER THE GREAT. Alexis was succeeded by his

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on Theodore IV. who after an excellent reign, ig the whole of which he exerted himself to ximoſt for the good of his ſubjects, died in , having appointed his brother Peter I. com- y called *the Great*, his ſucceſſor. (See PE- I, N° 4.) Theodore had another brother d *John*; but as he was ſubject to the falling- eſs, the Czar had preferred Peter, though young, to the ſucceſſion. But through the ues of the princeſs Sophia, ſiſter to Theo- a ſtrong party was formed in favour of John; oon after both John and Peter were proclaim- ereigns of Ruſſia under the adminiſtration of ia, who was declared regent. But the prin- egent conſpired againſt Peter, and being diſ- ed, was confined for life in a convent. From ime alſo John continued to be only a nomi- vereign till his death, which happened in , Peter continuing to engroſs all the power. his emperor Ruſſia is univerſally allowed to the whole of her preſent greatneſs. The pri- character of Peter, however, ſeems to have very indifferent. Though he had been mar- n his 18th year to a young and beautiful , he was not reſtrained by the ſolemn vows ſtock; and he was beſides ſo much addicted ing and drunkenneſs, the prevailing vice country, that nobody could have imagined pable of effecting the reformation upon his , which he actually accompliſhed. In ſpite diſadvantages, however, he applied himſelf military art and to civil government. He lſo a very ſingular natural defect, which, had been conquered, would have rendered him er incapable of accompliſhing what he after- did. This was a vehement dread of water; is thus accounted for. When he was a- ſive years of age, his mother went with him each, in the ſpring ſeaſon; and paſſing over where there was a conſiderable water-fall, he lay aſleep in her lap, he was ſo ſudden- ſhed and frightened by the ruſhing of the , that it brought a fever upon him; and af- recovery he retained ſuch a dread of that , that he could not bear to ſee any ſtand- , much leſs to hear a running ſtream: inſion, however, he conquered by jump- to water; and afterwards became very fond element. Being aſhamed of the ignorance ich he had been brought up, he learned al- of himſelf, and without a maſter, enough of igh and Low Dutch languages to ſpeak and intelligibly in both. He looked upon the nas and Dutch as the moſt civilized nations; e the former had already erected ſome of arts and manufactures in Moſcow, which deſtroys of ſpreading throughout his em- and the latter excelled in navigation, which ſidered as more neceſſary than any other. g the adminiſtration of the princeſs Sophia, formed a deſign of eſtabliſhing a maritime in Ruſſia; which he accompliſhed by the recorded in our memoir of him. Having ed his army, and introduced new diſcipline, his troops againſt the Turks; from whom 6, he took the fortreſs of Azof; and had ſatisfaction to ſee his fleet defeat that of the e- nemy. On his return to Moſcow were ſtruck the firſt medals which had ever appeared in Ruſſia. The legend was, "PETER THE FIRST, *the auguſt emperor of Ruſſia.*" On the reverſe was AZOF, with theſe words, *Victorious by ſire and water.* Notwithſtanding this ſucceſs, however, Peter was much chagrined at having his ſhips all built by foreigners; having beſides as great an inclination to have a harbour on the Baltic as on the Euxine. Theſe conſiderations determined him to ſend ſome of the young nobility of his empire into foreign countries, where they might improve. In 1697, he ſent 60 young Ruſſians into Italy; moſt of them to Venice, and the reſt to Leghorn, to learn the method of conſtructing their galleys. Forty more were ſent to Holland, to be inſtructed in building and working large ſhips: others to Germany, to ſerve in the land forces, and to learn military diſcipline. At laſt he reſolved to travel through different countries in perſon, that he might have the opportunity of profiting by his own obſervation and experience. Of this journey we have given a ſhort account in our memoir of him; and ſhall only add, that in executing his great deſign, he lived and worked like a common carpenter. He laboured hard at the forges, rope-yards, and mills for ſawing timber, manufacturing of paper, wire-drawing, &c. In acquiring the art of a carpenter, he began with purchaſing a boat, to which he made a maſt himſelf, and by degrees he executed every part of the conſtruction of a ſhip. Peter went alſo from Sweden to Amſterdam, to attend the lectures of the celebrated RUYSCH on anatomy. He likewiſe attended the lectures of burgomaſter Witſen on natural philoſophy. From this place he went to Utrecht, to viſit King William III. of England; and on his return ſent to Archangel a 60 gun ſhip, in the building of which he had aſſiſted with his own hands. In 1698 he went to England, where he employed himſelf as he had done in Holland, and perfected himſelf in the art of ſhip-building; and having engaged a great number of artificers, he returned with them to Holland; whence he ſet out for Vienna, where he viſited the emperor; and was on the point of ſetting out for Venice to finiſh his improvements, when he was informed of a rebellion having broken out in his dominions. This was occaſioned by the ſuperſtition and obſtinacy of the Ruſſians, who having an almoſt invincible attachment to their old ignorance and barbariſm, had reſolved to dethrone the czar on account of his innovations. But Peter, arriving unexpectedly at Moſcow, quickly put an end to their machinations, and took a moſt ſevere revenge on thoſe who had been guilty. Having then made great reformations in every part of the empire, in 1700, he entered into a league with the kings of Denmark and Poland againſt Charles XII. of Sweden. The particulars of this famous war are related under SWEDEN. Here we ſhall only obſerve, that, from the concluſion of this war, Sweden ceaſed not only to be a formidable enemy to Ruſſia, but even loſt its political conſequence in a great meaſure altogether. Peter applied himſelf to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and ſciences, with equal aſſiduity as to war; and he made ſuch acquiſitions of dominion even

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in Europe itself, that he may be said, at the time of his death, to have been the most powerful prince of his age. He was unfortunate in the Czarovitz his eldest son, whom he contrived to get rid of by the forms of justice, (See PETER, N° 4.) and then ordered his wife Catherine to be crowned with the same magnificent ceremonies as if she had been a Greek empress, and to be recognised as his successor: which she accordingly was, and mounted the Russian throne upon the decease of her husband.

(18.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF PETER II. Catherine I. succeeded her husband in 1725, and carried into execution many of the great designs which he had left unfinished. (See CATHERINE I.) She died after a short but glorious reign, in 1727, and was succeeded by Peter II. a minor, son to the Czarovitz Alexis. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince; but none was more remarkable than the disgrace and exile of Prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and esteemed the richest subject in Europe. (See MENZIKOFF.) Peter died of the small-pox in 1730. See PETER II.

(19.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF THE EMPRESS ANNE. Notwithstanding the despotism of Peter the Great and his wife, the Russian senate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to set aside the order of succession which they had established. The male issue of Peter was now extinguished; and the duke of Holstein, son to his eldest daughter, was by the destination of the late empress entitled to the crown: but the Russians, for political reasons, filled their throne with Anne duchess of Courland, 2d daughter to John, Peter's eldest brother; though her elder sister the duchess of Mecklenburgh was alive. Her reign was extremely prosperous; and though she accepted of the crown under limitations that some thought derogatory to her dignity, yet she broke them all, asserted the prerogative of her ancestors, and punished the aspiring Dolgorucki family, who had imposed upon her limitations, with a view, as it is said, that they themselves might govern. She raised her favourite Biron to the duchy of Courland; and was obliged to give way to many severe executions on his account. She died

HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH
S ELIZABETH. John, the son of
's niece, the princess of Mecklen-
y Ulric of Brunswic Wolfenbut-
will, entitled to the succession:
two years old, Biron was appoint-
ministrator of the empire during his
This destination was disagreeable to the
s of Mecklenburgh and her husband, and
among the Russians. Count Munich
he princess of Mecklenburgh to
as tried, and condemned to
to Siberia. The administra-
Anne of Mecklenburgh and
on many accounts, but par-
erman connections, disagree-
Russians, but to other powers
withstanding a prosperous war
the Swedes, the princess E-
r by Catherine to Peter the Great, formed such a party, that in one night's time she was declared and proclaimed empress of the Russias; and the princess of Mecklenburgh, her husband, and son, were made prisoners. Elizabeth's reign may be said to have been more glorious than that of any of her predecessors, her father excepted. She abolished capital punishments, and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation till her time unknown in Russia; but she banished the counts Munich and Ostreman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late administration. She made peace with Sweden; and settled the succession to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the most equitable foundation. Having gloriously finished a war, which had been stirred up against her with Sweden, she replaced the natural order of succession in her own family, by declaring Peter duke of Holstein-Gottorp, who was the son of her eldest sister, to be her heir. She gave him the title of grand duke of Russia; and soon after her accession she called him to her court; where he renounced the succession to the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princess of Anhalt-Zerbst. Few princes have had a more uninterrupted train of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain at the expence of a large subsidy; but many political, and some private reasons, it is said, determined her to take part with the house of Austria against the king of Prussia in 1756. Her arms alone could give a turn to the success of the war, which was in distance of Prussia, notwithstanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conquests were such as portended the entire destruction of the Prussian power, which was perhaps only saved by her critical death on Jan. 5, 1761.

(21.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, TO THE DESTRUCTION AND MURDER OF PETER III. Elizabeth was succeeded by Peter III. grand prince of Russia, duke of Holstein; a prince whose conduct has been variously represented. He mounted the throne possessed of an enthusiastic admiration of his brother Russian majesty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whose principles and practices he seems to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. He might have surmounted the effects even of his peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Russia; but it is said, that he aimed at reformations in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durst not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. He was certainly a weak man, who had no opinions of his own, but childishly adopted the sentiments of any person who took the trouble to teach him. His chief amusement was buffoonery; and he would sit for hours looking with pleasure at a merry andrew singing drunken and vulgar songs. He was a stranger to the country, its inhabitants, and their manners; and suffered himself to be persuaded by those about him, that the Russians were fools and boors unworthy of his attention, except to make them by means of the Prussian discipline, good fighting machines. These sentiments regulated his whole conduct, and prepared the way for that revolution which improprieties of a different kind [illegible] hasten-

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en. Becoming attached to one of the Voront-ladies, ſiſter to the princeſs Daſhkoff, he diſ-ed his wife, who was then a lovely woman in prime of life, of great natural talents and great ired accompliſhments; whilſt the lady whom referred to her was but one degree above an t. The princeſs Daſhkoff, who was married man whoſe genius was not ſuperior to that of emperor, being *dame d'honneur* and lady of bedchamber, had of courſe much of the em-'s company. Similarity of ſituations knit two illuſtrious perſonages in the cloſeſt friend-. The princeſs, being a zealous admirer of the ch *economiſtes*, could make her converſation amuſing and inſtructive. She retailed all her ical knowledge; and finding the empreſs a ng hearer, ſhe ſpoke of her in every company prodigy of knowledge, judgment, and phi-ropy. Whilſt the emperor by his buffoonery attachment to foreign manners, was daily in-ng more and more the odium of his ſubjects, popularity of his wife was greatly increaſing; ſome perſons about the court expreſſed their t, that ſo much knowledge of government, love of humanity, and ſuch ardent wiſhes for proſperity of Ruſſia, ſhould only furniſh con-ſions with Catherine Romanovna, the princeſs ſelf. The empreſs and her favourite did not theſe expreſſions paſs unobſerved: they conti-their ſtudies in concert; and whilſt the for-was employed in her famous code of laws for t empire, the latter always reported progreſs, e middling circles of Moſcow and St Peterſ-began to ſpeak familiarly of the bleſſings they might enjoy if theſe ſpeculations could alized. Meanwhile Peter III. was giving freſh s of diſcontent. He had recalled from Siberia Munich, who was indeed a ſenſible, brave, worthy man; but as he was ſmarting under ſects of Ruſſian deſpotiſm, and had grounds reſentment againſt moſt of the great families, he ot much diſcourage the emperor's unpopular ject, but only tried to moderate it and give it m. Peter, however, was impatient. He ly ridiculed the exerciſe and evolutions of ſſian troops; and haſtily adopting the Pruſ-cipline, without digeſting and fitting it for ſtitution of his own forces, he completely d himſelf by diſguſting the army. What he was gained by the emiſſaries of Catherine. regiments of guards, amounting to 8000 men, inſtantly brought over by the 3 brothers Or-who had ingratiated themſelves with their rs. The people were in a ſtate of indiffer-out of which they were rouſed by the fol-ng means. A little MS. was handed about, ining principles of legiſlation for Ruſſia, ded on natural rights, and on the claims of ifferent claſſes of people, which had inſenſibly formed, and become ſo familiar as to appear ral. In that performance was propoſed a con-on of deputies from all the claſſes, and from part of the empire, to converſe, but without ority, on the ſubjects of which it treated, and form the ſenate of the reſult of their delibera-. It paſſed for the work of her majeſty, and much admired. While Catherine was thus in the public eſteem and affection, the empe-ror took the alarm at her popularity, and in a few days came to the reſolution of confining her for life, and then of marrying her favourite. The ſervants of that favourite betrayed her to her ſiſter, who imparted the intelligence to the empreſs. Catherine ſaw her danger, and inſtantly formed her reſolution. She muſt either tamely ſubmit to perpetual impriſonment, and perhaps a cruel and ignominious death, or contrive to hurl her huſband from his throne. No other alternative was left her; and the conſequence was what undoubtedly was expected. The proper ſteps were taken; foily fell before abilities and addreſs, and in 3 days the revolution was accompliſhed. When the emperor ſaw that all was loſt, he attempted to enter Cronſtadt from Oranienbaum, a town on the gulph of Finland, 39 verſts, or near 26 miles from Peterſburgh. The ſentinels at the harbour preſented their muſkets at the barge; and tho' they were not loaded, and the men had no cartridges, he drew back. The Engliſh ſailors called from ſhip to ſhip for ſome perſon to head them, declaring that they would take him in and defend him; but he precipitately withdrew. Munich received him again at Oranienbaum, and exhorted him to mount his horſe and head his guards, ſwearing to live and die with him. He ſaid, "No: I ſee it cannot be done without ſhedding much of the blood of my brave Holſteinians. I am not worthy of the ſacrifice." The revolution was ſettled, and Catherine declared *autocratrix*. The crown was ſaid to be preſſed upon her, and her ſon was proclaimed *her* heir, and *as ſuch* great duke of all the Ruſſias. The unfortunate emperor was formally depoſed on the 10th of July, 1762, and murdered on the 17th. See CATHERINE II. and PETER III.

(22.) RUSSIA, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF CATHERINE II. Catherine, after accompliſhing this revolution, affected to behave with magnanimity and moderation; retained Munich; even pardoned counteſs Vorontzoff the emperor's favourite; and afterwards, on her marriage with Mr Paulotſky, made a handſome ſettlement on them. She allowed the expectations of golden days and a philoſophical government to become the ſubject of faſhionable converſation; and the princeſs Daſhkoff was completely happy. The convention of deputies was even reſolved on; and as they were not to be elected by the people, except here and there for ſhow, Prince Galitzin and Count Panin, whom ſhe had completely gained over, and who had the greateſt abilities of any Ruſſians about court, were at immenſe pains in appointing a proper ſet. In the mean time, a great number of ſhowy patriotic projects were begun. A grave Engliſh clergyman was invited over to ſuperintend the inſtitution of ſchools for civil and moral education; and the empreſs was moſt liberal in her appointments. This inſtitution failed, however, to produce the effects expected from it. The clergyman appointed, though a moſt excellent character and real philanthropiſt, had views too contracted for the ſphere in which he was placed; and Mr Betſkoy, the Ruſſian *Mecænas*, to whom the empreſs referred him for inſtructions, preferred declamation, and ſtage-playing, and ballets, to all other accompliſhments. In the mean time, elegance of all kinds was introduced, before the people were taught the

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principles

principles of morals. The nobles were sent a travelling; and as the Russians more easily acquire foreign languages than the people of most other nations, have great vivacity without flippancy, and in general understand play, these travellers were everywhere well received, especially at Paris, where reasons of state contributed not a little to procure them that attention with which they were treated. They were ravished with the manners of foreign courts, and imported fashions and fineries without bounds. The sovereign turned all this to her own account, by encouraging a dissipation which rendered court favours necessary, and made the people about her forget their Utopian dreams. The convention of deputies at last assembled in the capital. The empress's book of instructions came forth; and great things were doubtless expected. It was entitled, *Instructions for the Deputies to consult about a New Code of Laws*, &c. and is a very respectable work, which does honour to the empress, by whom it was undoubtedly composed, if she had seriously intended to put it in execution. But the most consequential of the deputies were privately instructed to be very cautious, and informed that *carriages* and *guards* were ready for *Siberia*. There was a grand procession at their presentation. Each had the honour of kissing her majesty's hand and receiving a gold medal. They met in form to recognise one another, then parted, and have never met since. The *New code* melted away without noise; and the princess Dashkoff was handsomely given to understand, that her counsels were no longer necessary, and that she could not do better than take the amusements of the tour of Europe. She was liberally supplied, visited London, Edinburgh, and most other capitals in Europe; accompanied by one of the young princes, said to have been Paul, afterwards emperor; and was treated with great kindness, but kept amused with something very different from legislation. In the mean time, many patriotic things were really done. Taxes were frequently remitted where they were burthensome. Every person was declared free who had served government without pay for two years. No man was allowed to send boors from his cultivated estates, to his mines in Siberia, nor to any distant estates, but for the purposes of agriculture. Many colonies of German peasants were in various places settled on the crown-lands, to teach the natives the management of the dairy; a branch of rural economy of which the Russians were till that period to completely ignorant, that there is not in their language an appropriated word for *butter*, or *cheese*, or even for *cream*. The Russians hoped to be likewise instructed in agriculture; but the colonists were poor and ignorant; and this part of the project came to nothing, like the great national schools. Other improvements however took place in favour of commerce; for all barriers were removed, and goods suffered to pass through the empire duty-free. The empress with great liberality encouraged the introduction of arts and manufactures. An academy was instituted of sculpture, painting, architecture, &c. a magnificent and elegant building was erected for it, and many sleeves supported in it at the expence of the crown. Several very promising youths have been educated in that academy; but as the Russians are childishly fond of finery, and cannot be persuaded that any thing fine was ever done by their own countrymen, the students are all, on leaving the academy, left to starve. The empress, who had a real just taste in architecture, designed several buildings equally useful and ornamental to her capital (See NEVA and PETERSBURGH;) and while she thus diligently cultivated the arts of peace, she did not neglect those of war. She put her fleets on a most respectable footing, and procured a number of British officers to instruct her seamen in the science of naval tactics. By land, her successes against the Turks, the Swedes, and the Poles, (See POLAND, § 23, 25, and 26; SWEDEN, and TURKEY,) compel us to believe, that her troops are better disciplined, and her generals more skilful than any whom the greatest of her predecessors could bring into the field; and the empire of Russia, though the people are but just emerging from a state of barbarism, is at this day one of the most powerful in Europe. But the glory of Catherine's reign is stained by injustice and cruelty. The horrible massacres than those at Ismael and Praga, by her general Suwarrow, were not commanded by the most savage troops in the most barbarous age. (See ISMAEL, N° 2; and POLAND, § 10.) Of her character, both public and private, we have given a general sketch under the article CATHERINE II. One feature of it we did not particularly specify, viz. her unbounded lust. Above 20 different princes and courtiers successively gratified her desires. Among these were Alexis and Gregory Orloffs, brothers, Prince POTEMKIN, Prince Lanskoi, the two Zubows, brothers; Yermakoff, a lieutenant of the guards; Count Passek, and several others. The first of her lovers was Stanislaus Augustus, Count Poniatowski, with whom she had formed a connection even in her husband's life-time; and whom she afterwards rewarded with the kingdom of Poland, for a while by her influence, and the presence of her troops that the election was over-awed in his favour, till the 7th Sept. 1764, though she afterwards deserved him of his crown and dominions, when she found him no longer pliable, but willing to give the Poles a free constitution. But while she thus disposing of foreign kingdoms, she was under continual dread of being thrown, by some hidden plot or revolution, from the throne she usurped. To prevent this, she hesitated at no new crimes. She procured the private assassination of Prince John, whom her husband Peter had generously liberated from prison. She also by the most treacherous means, wherein Prince Alexis Orloff was her villainous agent, got Princess Tarrakanoff, a daughter of the empress Elizabeth, by Alexis Razumoffsky, (who had been privately married to her,) into her power, and shut her up in a fortress, where she was soon no more heard of. Such were the means she used to get rid of all who had any claim to the throne. Yet with all her crimes and vices, it must be allowed, that she did more to civilize her barbarous subjects, than even Peter the Great himself. At Petersburgh alone she founded 31 seminaries, wherein 6,800 children of both sexes were educated at the annual expence of 754,335 rubles. She

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r-intended the education of her own grand-ren, and even *wrote books* for their inſtruc-; while jealouſy led her to keep their father, own ſon Paul, at a diſtance from court and ail opportunity of improvement. But the eſt thing ſhe ever did for the improvement of e, was in 1767, when ſhe employed the cele-d Drs Pallas, Gmelin, Euler, and ſeve-ther men very eminent in the republic of rs, to travel through her vaſt dominions, to mine the geography of her extenſive territo-the poſition of the chief towns, their tempe-, ſoil and productions; and the manners of habitants, &c. This ſurvey of her empire immortalize her name in ſcience, when her are forgot. In the coalition againſt the h Republic, Catherine promiſed much, but thing, except granting refuge to French e-nts, and ſending a ſquadron of crazy ſhips operate with the Britiſh navy, which were d to be repaired at the expence of the Bri-vernment. This extraordinary woman was ting a new war with the Turks, when ſhe ddenly ſeized on the morning of Nov. 9, with a fit of apoplexy, which put an end life, at 10 o'clock in the evening of the in the 68th year of her age. And ſhe cer-ched with the character of one of the *greateſt* ns that ever ſwayed the ſceptre in Ruſſia.

(Russia, history of, to the murder of emperor Paul. Catherine II. was ſuc-d in the empire of all the Ruſſias by her ſon whoſe reign was ſhort, and his end, like his father, unfortunate. Paul, though his ion, from his mother's jealouſy, had been uch neglected, ſeemed not to want ſpirit at exertions. He took an active and zea-art with the combined powers in the opera-ainſt the French republicans; and by the ns of his troops, under Gen. Suwarrow, nch power in Italy, was for ſome time, overthrown. (See Revolution, § 40, .) They alſo made ſome exertions in Hol-o aſſiſt the Britiſh troops, but with leſs ſuc-But all Suwarrow's exertions were unre-d by Paul; who, adopting a new ſyſtem of , and ſhowing an evident inclination to fa-e French republicans, diſgraced inſtead of ceuſing the old general. But while Paul editating farther exertions in favour of his allies, the French republicans, he was mur-d on the 23d March, 1801. The particulars this horrid tranſaction have been ſo variouſly ted, that we forbear to ſtate any of them. The ies of the murder have been alſo ſo variouſly med, that we ſhall likewiſe leave the inveſti-on of them to future hiſtorians. But it is a ıdful ſtate of ſociety, in all arbitrary govern-nts, where the lives of the ſubjects are all at mercy of the ſovereign, and where the life of ſovereign is at all times at the mercy of aſſaſ-. Of the character of Paul we ſhall only ſay, he appears to have been a well meaning man, too fond of that arbitrary power, to which he ught himſelf entitled by his birth, and of con-uence too raſh and precipitate in his meaſures. Paul, N° 11.

(24.) Russia, history of, to the present period. Paul was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon, Alexander; who, whether he was previouſly ac-quainted with the plot or not, appears to have made little inquiry after his father's murderers. From the general tenor of his conduct ſince his acceſſion to the throne, he appears to have profit-ed conſiderably by his grandmother's inſtructions, and thoſe of the preceptors ſhe placed over him; encouraging learning, the ſciences, commerce and manufactures, for the benefit of his ſubjects and empire. As yet (Feb. 1805,) he appears to have taken no active part in the war againſt France, though the Britiſh miniſtry have been long flat-tered with the hopes of his aſſiſtance. Whe-ther in this he will follow his grand-mother's pru-dent conduct by avoiding all ſhare in the war, or fulfil the expectations of the Britiſh miniſtry, by an active co-operation with our forces, time will ſoon determine.

(25.) Russia, Inhabitants of. The Ruſſian empire is inhabited by no leſs than 16 different nations, of which our limits will hardly permit us to give the names. The firſt are the Sclavonic nations, comprehending the Ruſſians, who are the predominant inhabitants of the whole empire, and the Poles, who beſides occupying the coun-tries lately wreſted from the republic, live in the governments of Polatſk and Moghilev, as well as in the diſtrict of Salenghinſk and along the river Irtiſh. 2. The Germanic nations, comprehending the Germans properly ſo called, who inhabit Eſthonia and Livonia; the Swedes inhabiting the Ruſſian Finland, as well as ſome of the iſlands on the Baltic ſea; and the Danes who inhabit the iſlands of the Baltic ſea, the Worms, and Groſs or Great Roge. 3. The Lettonian or Livonian nations, under which are claſſed the original or real Lettonians or Letiſhi, inhabiting Livonia; and the Lithuanians, who live in the government of Polatſk and Moghilev. 4. The Finns, or Tchudi, nations who inhabit the governments of Vi-berg and St Peterſburgh, with many other diſ-tricts of the empire, being branched out into no fewer than 12 different tribes. 5. The Tartari-an nations, who are all either Mahometans or i-dolaters. The Mahometan Tartars, commonly called by the Ruſſians *Tartare*, dwell in Kazane, and the places adjacent; at Keſimove; at Ouſe, in the government of Parma; at Tomſk and its neighbourhood, and are in general a ſober, induſ-trious, cleanly, and generous people. The other Tartars inhabit different parts of Siberia, and are intermixed with ſtill different races, called after the towns, rivers, and other places to which their habitations are neareſt.—They are idolaters, and governed by ſhamans. (See Shamans.) Beſides theſe, there are in the Ruſſian dominions the Na-gay-Tartars; the Crim Tartars, inhabiting the Crimea, who, together with the land belonging to them, came under the ſubjection of Ruſſia in 1783; the Meſcheraki; the Baſhkirs; the Kir-ghiſtzi or Kirghis-kaiſaks; the Yakouti; and the white Kalmucks. 6. The Caucaſian nations, which are ſix in number, and are each ſubdivided into many different tribes. Among theſe are the Cir-caſſians, who live in different ſettlements border-

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ing on the river Kubane. 7. The Samoyeds or Simoeds, comprehending the OSTIACKS. (See OSTIACKS.) These inhabit the northernmost part of Ruſſia, along the coast of the Icy ſea.—8. The Mungalian nations, comprehending the original Mungals, who are chiefly diſperſed in the deſerts of Cobey; the Bouratti, who live on the banks of the Baikal, and other places in the government of Irkutsk; and the Kamuks, conſiſting of four different tribes.—All theſe hordes ſpeak the Mungalian language, obſerve the religion of Lama, and the Kibitzacks live in large tents. 9. The Tongouſi, a very populous tribe, diſperſed from the river Lniſſey aſtar as the ſea of Okhotſk, and from the Penjinskaya Gooba beyond the Chineſe frontiers. They are all idolaters, and live by hunting and fiſhing. 10. The Kamtſchatkers. 11. The Koriaks. 12. The Kouritzi. Of theſe three nations we have given ſome account under the article KAMTSCHATKA. 13. The Aleouti, who dwell in the iſlands between Siberia and America, and very much reſemble the Eſquimaux and the inhabitants of Greenland.—They live in large huts, and ſeem to be idolaters.—14. The Arutzi, a very numerous people ſcattered in the government of Kolhivane. 15. The Yukatchiri, who are diſperſed on the coaſts of the Glacial ſea, about the rivers Yana, Kolima, and Lena, and as far as the ſource of the Amur. 16. The Tſchuktſchi, who occupy the NE. part of Siberia, between the rivers Kolima and Anadir. Beſides theſe 16 different nations, there are ſcattered through the Ruſſian empire vaſt numbers of Bucharian Tartars, Perſians, Georgians, Indians, Greeks, Servians, Albanians, Bulgarians, Moldavians, Valachians, Armenians, and Jews.

(26.) RUSSIA, LAKES OF. In the Ruſſian empire are many lakes of very large extent. 1. The Ladoga, anciently called *Nevo*, is the largeſt lake in Europe, extending in length 175 and in breadth 105 verſts; or it is 116 Engliſh miles long and near 70 broad. It lies between the governments of St Peterſburgh, Olonetz, and Vyborg: and communicates with the Baltic ſea by the river Neva, with the Onega lake by the river Svir, and with the Ilmen lake by the river Volkov. Several conſiderable rivers fall into it, as the Paſha, Sias, Oyat, and others. The Ladoga canal is made near this lake. 2. The Onega lake is ſituated in the government of Olonetz. It is about 200 verſts long, and the greateſt width of it does not exceed 80 verſts. 3. The Tchude lake, or Peipus, lies between the governments of St Peterſburgh, Pſcof, Revel and Riga. It is near 80 verſts long and 60 broad. It joins to the lake of Pſcov by a large neck of water. The length of this lake is 50 and the width about 40 verſts. The river Velikaya flows into it. The river Narova comes out of the lake Peipus, which by the river Embakha communicates with the lake Wirtz-Erve, and from this latter flows the river Perin, and runs into the bay of Riga. 4. The Ilmen lake, anciently called *Moiſe*, lies in the government of Novogorod. Its length is 40 and width 30 verſts. The river Mſta, Lovate, Shelone, and others, fall into it; and only one river, Volkov, runs over it, by which it is joined with the Ladoga lake. 5. The Biclo-Ozero, that is, the White Lake, lies in the government of Novogorod. It extends 50 verſts in length, and about 30 in width. There are many ſmall rivers which run into it; but only one river, Sheksna, comes out of it, and falls into the river Volga. 6. The Aitin, or Aitay lake, otherwiſe called the *Holy Lake*, is ſituated in the government of Kolivan. It extends in length 126 and in width about 8 verſts. The river Biya comes out of it, which being joined to the river Katounya, conſtitutes the river Obe. 7. The Baical Lake, otherwiſe called the *Baical Sea*, and the *Holy Sea*, lies in the government of Irkoutsk. Its extent in length is 600, and in width from 30 to 50 verſts, and in the wideſt places as far as 70 verſts. 8. The Tchani Lake lies in the deſerts of Baraba, between the rivers Obe and Irtiſh. It joins with a great many ſmaller lakes, occupies a vaſt tract of land, and abounds very much in fiſh. 9. Between the Gulf of Finland and the White Sea there are ſeveral lakes which extend from 50 to 70 verſts in length; and beſides theſe there are many other fine lakes in different parts of Ruſſia, ſuch as the Ozero, the lakes of Illowa, Bondo, Inderſkoye, Ebele, Koryakovſkoye, Smolenſkoye, Borovye, and others; and from which is got from them ſerves for the uſe of the greateſt part of the empire. To theſe may be added the Caſpian ſea, which, though called a lake more properly a lake, as it has no communication with the Ocean either viſible or ſubterraneous. See CASPIAN SEA.

(27.) RUSSIA, LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND SCIENCE OF. The Ruſſian language is a dialect of the Sclavonic, and the pureſt perhaps that is now anywhere to be found (ſee PHILOLOGY, N° III.); but they have nothing ancient written in it except a tranſlation of Chryſoſtom's Offices and Liturgy, which are at this day good Ruſſian, and intelligible to every boor, though certainly not leſs than 800 years old. There is no Ruſſian hiſtory which there is reaſon to believe 200 years old, and the oldeſt tranſlation of the Scriptures into that language is but modern, and come to them from Koningſberg. Science has made but very ſmall progreſs among them; and the reports of the imperial academy at St Peterſburgh have been hitherto ſupported by the exertions of foreigners. For antiquarian reſearch they have little reliſh as for ſcientific inveſtigation. Every thing, to pleaſe, muſt be new; and the only excidations which we have of their antiquities are the performances of Germans and other foreigners, ſuch as the two editors Bayer, Muller, and Gmelin. One native has indeed ſhown ſome deſire to recover and preſerve what he can of their moſt ancient poetry; but in his reſearches he ſeems more indebted to an exquiſitely nice ear than to any erudition. Erudition indeed they hold in contempt. No gentleman is ever taught Latin or Greek. Peter the Great and Catherine II. did what ſovereigns could do to diſperſe the clouds of ignorance, by inſtituting ſchools and colleges, and giving the maſters and profeſſors military rank; but all in vain. One of the moſt accompliſhed ſcholars of the age, after having made himſelf extremely agreeable to a company of ladies, by means of his taſte in muſic, and [illegible] [illegible]

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rd at his side, was instantly deserted by them n some person's whispering that he was a man earning; and before his fair companions would reconciled to him, he was obliged to pretend he was a lieutenant-colonel, totally illiterate. two first sentences of Prince Shtcherbatoff's cation of his History of Russia, which was ted in three volumes 4to, in 1770, afford an rable specimen of Russian literature. It is absurd to be quoted; but a passage so replete blunders and anachronisms it would be difficult to find in any other author.

8.) RUSSIA, MANNERS, CHARACTER, AND TOMS OF THE PEOPLE OF. The native Rus- are stigmatised by their neighbours as igno- and brutal, totally resigned to sloth, and ad- ed to drunkenness, even to the most beastly s; nay, they are accused of being arbitrary, idious, inhuman, and destitute of every social ie. There is not a phrase in their language ogous to ours, "the manners or the senti- ts of a gentleman;" nor does *gentlemen* with n express any thing moral. They have no distinction. Cunning is *professed* and *gloried* y all; and the nobleman who is detected tel- a lie is vexed, but not in the least ashamed. he whole *reglement* of the marine by Peter the at, there is not one word addressed to the ho- r, or even to the probity, of his officers. es of reward, and the constant fear of detec- and punishment, are the only motives touch- n. In every ship of war, and in every regi- t, there is a fiscal or authorized spy, a man of stable rank, whose letters must not be open- ut at the risk of the great knout (see KNOUT); he is required by express statute to give thly reports of the behaviour of the officers privates. Such regulations we cannot think adapted to improve the morals of the peo- yet we believe they have been improved by are, assiduity, and example of some of their forereigns. Certain it is, the vice of drunk- s was so universally prevalent among them, Peter I. was obliged to restrain it by very se- dicts, which, however, have not produced h effect. There were in the city of Moscow ewer than 4000 brandy shops, in which the bitants used to sot away their time in drink- strong liquors and smoking tobacco. This last tice became so dangerous, among persons in most beastly state of intoxication, that a very e law was made to prevent the pernicious equences, otherwise the whole city might been consumed by conflagrations. The no- y were heretofore very powerful, each com- ding a great number of vassals, whom they d with the most despotic and barbarous au- ity; but their possessions have been gradually mscribed, and their power transferred in a t measure to the czar, on whom they are wholly dependent. The Russian nobles for- y wore long beards, and long robes with t sleeves dangling down to their ancles: their rs and shirts were generally wrought with of different colours: in lieu of hats, they co- d their heads with furred caps; and, instead hoes, wore red or yellow leathern buskins. The dress of the women nearly resembled that of the other sex; with this difference, that their garments were more loose, their caps fantastical, and their shift sleeves three or four ells in length, gathered up in folds from the shoulder to the fore arm. But now the French fashions prevail among the superior ranks throughout all Muscovy. The common people are generally tall, healthy, and robust, patient of cold and hunger, inured to hardships, and remarkably capable of bearing the most sudden transition from the extremes of hot or cold weather. Nothing is more customary than to see a Russian, who is over-heated and sweating at every pore, strip himself naked, and plunge into a river; nay, when their pores are all opened in the hot bath, to which they have daily recourse, they either practise this immersion, or subject themselves to a discharge of some pailfuls of cold water. This is the custom of both men and women, who enter the baths promiscuously, and appear naked to each other, without scruple or hesitation. A Russian will subsist for many days upon a little oatmeal and water, and even raw roots: an onion is a regale; but the food they generally use in their journeys is a kind of rye bread, cut into small square pieces, and dried again in the oven: these, when they are hungry, they soak in water, and eat as a very comfortable repast. Both sexes are remarkably healthy and robust, and accustom themselves to sleep every day after dinner. The Russian women are remarkably fair, comely, strong, and well shaped, obedient to their lordly husbands, and patient under discipline.

(29.) RUSSIA, MARRIAGE CEREMONIES IN. On the wedding day, the bride presents the bridegroom with a whip of her own making, in token of submission; and this he fails not to employ as the instrument of his authority. Very little ceremony is here used in match-making, which is the work of the parents. The bridegroom seldom sees the woman till he is joined to her for life. The marriage being proposed and agreed to, the lady is examined, stark-naked, by a certain number of her female relations; and if they find any bodily defect, they endeavour to cure it by their own skill. The bride, on her wedding day, is crowned with a garland of wormwood, implying the bitterness that often attends the married state. When the priest has tied the nuptial knot at the altar, his clerk or sexton throws upon her head a handful of hops, wishing that she may prove as fruitful as the plant thus scattered. She is muffled up, and led home by a certain number of old women, the parish priest carrying the cross before; while one of his subalterns, in a rough goat skin, prays all the way that she may bear as many children as there are hairs on his garment. The new married couple, being seated at table, are presented with bread and salt; and a chorus of boys and girls sing the epithalamium, which is always grossly obscene. The bride and bridegroom are then conducted to their own chamber by an old woman, who exhorts the wife to obey her husband, and retires. Then the bridegroom desires the lady to pull off one of his buskins, giving her to understand, that in one of them is contained a

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whip, and in the other a jewel or a purſe of money. She takes her choice; and if ſhe finds the purſe, interprets it into a good omen; whereas ſhould ſhe light on the whip, ſhe conſtrues it into an unhappy preſage, and inſtantly receives a laſh as a ſpecimen of what ſhe has to expect. After they have remained two hours together, they are interrupted by a deputation of old women, who come to ſearch for the ſigns of her virginity: if theſe are apparent, the young lady ties up her hair, which before conſummation hung looſe over her ſhoulders, and viſits her mother, of whom ſhe demands the marriage portion. The Muſcovite huſbands are barbarous even to a proverb; they not only adminiſter frequent and ſevere correction to their wives, but ſometimes even torture them to death, without being ſubject to any puniſhment for the murder. He that marries a 2d wife, the firſt being alive, is not admitted farther than the church door; whoever eſpouſes a third, he is excommunicated: ſo that though polygamy is tolerated, they count it infamous. If a woman is barren, the huſband generally perſuades her to retire into a convent: if fair means will not ſucceed, he may whip her into condeſcenſion.

(30.) RUSSIA, MILITARY AND NAVAL FORCE OF. The ſtanding army of Ruſſia is computed at 200,000 men; beſides theſe, the Ruſſians can aſſemble a body of 40,000 irregulars, Calmucks, Coſſacks, and other Tartars, who live under their dominion. But the number may be doubled on any emergency. The emperor has likewiſe a conſiderable fleet in the Baltic, and a great number of formidable galleys, frigates, fire ſhips, and bomb ketches.

(31.) RUSSIA, MINERALS, &c. IN. The mountains within Ruſſia, as well as thoſe on its frontiers, abound with minerals of various kinds. Gold, ſilver, quickſilver, copper, lead, iron ore, very powerful loadſtones, mountain cryſtal, amethyſt, topazes of different ſorts, agates, cornelian, beryl, chalcedony, onyx, porphyry, antimony, pyrites, aquamarines, chryſolites, opinites, and lapis lazuli, are found in them, beſides marble, granite, trappe, maria or Muſcovy glaſs, of remarkable ſize and clearneſs, baſaltes, and coal, &c.; and in every part of Siberia, but particularly in the plains of it, are found bones of animals uncommonly large, mammoth's teeth (ſee MAMMOTH), and other foſſils.

(32.) RUSSIA, MUSIC AND DANCING IN. The Muſcovites are fond of the bagpipe, and have a kind of violin, with a large belly like that of a lute: but their muſic is very barbarous and defective. Nevertheleſs, there are public ſchools, in which the children are regularly taught to ſing. The very beggars aſk alms in a whining cadence, and ridiculous ſort of recitative. The warlike muſic of the Ruſſians conſiſts in kettle drums and trumpets: they likewiſe uſe hunting horns; but they are not at all expert in the performance. It has been ſaid, that the Ruſſians think it beneath them to dance, and that they call in their Pouſh or Tartarian ſlaves to divert them with this exerciſe in their hours of diſſipation. Such may have been the caſe formerly, or may be ſo now, in the diſtant and moſt barbarous provinces of the empire: but at St Peterſburgh dancing is at preſent much reliſhed, and a minuet is nowhere ſo gracefully performed in Europe as by the faſhionable people in that metropolis.

(33.) RUSSIA, NATURAL DIVISIONS, PRODUCES AND PRODUCTIONS OF. Ruſſia is divided naturally into two great parts by a range of mountains called *Oural*, or the *Belt*, which, through the whole breadth of it, forms one continual uninterrupted barrier, dividing Siberia from the remaining Ruſſia.—That part of Ruſſia which lies on this ſide of the Uralian mountains preſents a very extenſive plain verging weſtward by an eaſy declivity. The vaſt extent of this plain has a great variety of different climates, ſoils, and products. The leaſt part of it is very woody, marſhy, and but little fit for cultivation, and has a ſenſible declivity towards the White and the Frozen Seas. The other part of this vaſt plain includes the whole extent along the Volga as far as the deſerts, extending by the Caſpian and the Azov Seas, and conſtitutes the fineſt part of Ruſſia, which in general is very rich and fruitful, having more arable and meadow land than wood, marſhes, or barren deſerts. The part lying on the other ſide of the Oural mountains, known by the name of SIBERIA, is a flat tract of land of conſiderable extent, declining imperceptibly towards the Glacial Sea, and equally by imperceptible degrees riſing towards the S. where at laſt it forms a great range of mountains, conſtituting the borders of Ruſſia on the ſide of China. Between the rivers Irtiſh, Oby, and the Altaic mountains, there is a very extenſive plain, known by the name of *Barabinſkaya Stepe*, viz. the deſerts of Baraba, the eaſtern part of which is excellent for agriculture; but the ſouthern part is a deſert full of lakes and marſhes, and very unfit for cultivation. Between the Oby and Eniſſey there is more woodland than open ground; and the other ſide of the Eniſſey is entirely covered with impervious woods as far as the lake Baical; but the ſoil is fruitful everywhere; and wherever the trouble has been taken of clearing it of the wood, and of draining it from unneceſſary water, it proves to be very rich and fit for cultivation; and the country beyond the Baical is ſurrounded by ridges of high and mountains. Proceeding on farther towards the eaſt, the climate of Siberia becomes by degrees more and more ſevere, the ſummer grows ſhorter, the winter longer, and the froſts prove more intenſe. With reſpect to the variety of commodities as well as the produce of the earth, Ruſſia naturally may be divided into three regions or diviſions, viz. the northern, middle, and ſouthern diviſions. Theſe were about 30 years ago ſubdivided into different governments, for the better adminiſtration of juſtice. The northern diviſion, beginning from Lat. 57° extends to the end of the Ruſſian dominions on the north, and includes the governments of St Peterſburgh, Riga, Revel, Vyborg, Ficov, Novogorod, Tver, Oionetz, Archangel, Volouda, Yaroſlavl, Koſtroma, Viatka, Perm, and Toboiſk. The middle diviſion is reckoned from Lat. 57° to 50° and includes the governments of Moſcow, Smolenſk, Polotſk, Mohilow, Tchernigov, Novogorod-Sieverſkoy, Kharkov, Voronez, Kourſk, Orel, Kaluga, Tooa, Ria-

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ie, Vladimir, Niznei-Novogorod, Tambov, ator, Penza, Simbirsk, Kazane, Oufa, Kolhi- ie, and Irkutsk. The southern division begins Lat 50° and extends to the end of Russia on south, including the governments of Kiov, itherinoslav, Caucasus, and Taurida. To this y be added the habitations of the Cossacks of Don. The northern division, though defi- it in grain, fruit, and garden vegetables, has preference before the other two in the abun- ce of animals, rare and valuable for their skins; ishes of particular sorts, very useful for diffe- t purposes of life; in cattle, and metals of in- or kinds, &c. The middle division of Russia ounds in different kinds of grain, hemp, flax, tle, fish, bees, timber proper for every use, dif- nt kinds of wild beasts, metals, both of supe- as well as of inferior kind, different precious es, &c. This division is likewise most con- ient for the habitation of mankind, on ac- nt of the temperate and pleasantness of the The south division has not that abundance grain, but has the preference in different den- kinds of fruit, quantity of fish, cattle, and d animals, amongst which there are several es different from those which are found in middle division. It exceeds greatly both the er divisions in plants and roots fit for dying for medical purposes, as well as for the table; ther is it deprived of precious stones, as well different metals. The products of those three ions constitute the permanent and inexhausti- riches of Russia; for, besides what is necessa- or home consumption, there is a great quan- of those products exported yearly into fo- n countries to the amount of several millions ub.es. These productions are brought from erent places to fairs, established in different s of Russia, where the merchants buy them and forward them to different ports, and o- trading towns, for exportation into foreign gdoms. These fairs are likewise the places re a considerable quantity of goods imported n foreign kingdoms is disposed of. The prin- al yarmankas, or fairs, are those of Makariev- ja, Korennaya, and Irbitskaya.

(34.) RUSSIA, PARENTAL DESPOTISM IN. Such the slavery in which the Muscovites of both es are kept by their parents, their patrons, and emperor, that they are not allowed to dis- e any match that may be provided for them these directors, however disagreeable or odi- it may be. Officers of the greatest rank in army, both natives and foreigners, have been dled with wives by the sovereign in this arbi- ry manner. A great general some time ago de- ded, who was a native of Britain, having been sed by the late empress to wed one of her la- s, saved himself from a very disagreeable mar- ge, by pretending his constitution was so un- ind, that the lady would be irreparably injured his compliance. In Russia, the authority of rents over their children is almost as great as it s among the ancient Romans, and is often ex- ised with equal severity. Should a father, in nishing his son for a fault, be the immediate use of his death, he could not be called to ac- count for his conduct; he would have done no- thing but what the law authorized him to do. Nor does this legal tyranny cease with the mino- rity of children; it continues while they remain in their father's family, and is often exerted in the most indecent manner. It is not uncommon, even in St Petersburgh, to see a lady of the high- est rank, and in all the pomp and pride of youth- ful beauty, standing in the court-yard with her back bare, exposed to the whip of her father's servants. And so little disgrace is attached to this punishment, that the same lady will sit down at table with her father and his guests immediately after she has suffered her flogging, provided its severity has not confined her to bed.

(35.) RUSSIA, POPULATION OF. The empire of Russia is so widely extended, that notwithstand- ing the number of nations which it comprehends, i must be considered as by no means populous. At the last revision it was found to contain 26 millions of souls; but the nobility, clergy, land as well as sea forces, different officers, servants belong- ing to the court, persons employed under govern- ment in civil and other offices; the students of different universities, academies, seminaries, and other schools; hospitals of different denomina- tions; likewise all the ir egular troops, the roving hordes of different tribes, foreigners and colonists, or settlers of different nations—are not included in the above-mentioned number: but with the addi- tion of all these, the population of Russia, of both sexes, may be supposed to amount to 28 millions.

(36.) RUSSIA, PRODUCE AND AGRICULTURE OF. Besides the productions already mentioned (§ 33.) as peculiar to each of the three great natu- ral divisions of the empire, Muscovy yields rhu- barb, flax, hemp, pasture for cattle, wax, and honey. Among other vegetables, we find in Russia a particular kind of rice called *pfyntha*, plenty of excellent melons, and in the neighbourhood of As- tracan the famous zoophyton, or animal plant, which the Muscovites call *bonnaret*, or lambkin, from its resemblance to a lamb. See AGNUS, N° 5: & LAMB, § 5. Agriculture in general is but little understood, and less prosecuted in this country. The most consi- derable articles in the œconomy of a Russian farm are wax and honey, by which the peasant is often enriched. He cuts down a great number of trees in the forest, and sawing the trunks into a number of parts, bores each of these, and stops up the hollow at both ends, leaving only a little hole for the admittance of the bees; thus the honey is se- cured from all the attempts of the bear, who is ex- tremely fond of it, and tries many different expe- riments for making himself master of the luscious treasure.—Of this honey the Russians make a great quantity of strong metheglin for their ordinary drink. They likewise extract from rye a spirit, which they prefer to brandy.

(37.) RUSSIA, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, AND FISH OF. The wild beasts in the northern part of Russia are the same with those we have mentioned under NORWAY and Lapland: such as rein-deer, bears, foxes, ermins, martens, sables, hares, and squirrels. In the more southern provinces the Muscovites breed black cattle, small but hardy horses, sheep, goats, and camels. The breed of cattle and horses has

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has been enlarged by the care and under the protection of Peter and succeeding sovereigns. The whole empire abounds with wild fowl and game of all sorts, and a variety of birds of prey; besides the different kinds of poultry, which are raised in this as well as in other countries. The external parts and provinces of Muscovy are well supplied with fish from the Northern ocean, the Baltic, or gulph of Finland, the White sea, Black sea and the Caspian: but the whole empire is plentifully provided with fresh-water fish from the numerous lakes and rivers, yielding immense quantities of salmon, trout, pike, sturgeon, and beluga: the last being a large fish, of whose roe the best caviare is made. Innumerable insects, like those of Lapland, are hatched by the summer's heat in the fens, morasses, and forests, with which this empire abounds; and are so troublesome as to render great part of the country altogether uninhabitable.

(38.) RUSSIA, RANKS AND TITLES IN. At present there is no other degree of the nobility but that of the boyars: these are admitted to the council, and from among them the waiwodes, governors, and other great officers are nominated, and their ranks with respect to each other are regulated by the importance of their respective offices. Alexis, who introduced this order of precedency, abolished the profound abasement of the inferior classes to their superiors, which he would not accept of when extended to himself; and it is surprising, that Peter, who so ill brooked contradiction, should have encouraged every extravagance of this kind. In a few years the boasted simplicity of deportment and address which his reign had encouraged was forgotten, and the cumbersome and almost inexplicable rules which disgrace the little courts of Germany were crowded into the language of Russia. He established the lowest order of gentlemen to be addressed by the phrase, *your respectable birth*; the next rank, by *your high-born birth*; the third, *your excellence*; the fourth, *your high excellence*; then came *your brilliancy* and *your highest brilliancy*. *Highness* and *majesty* were reserved for the great duke and the czar. These titles and modes of address were ordered with all the rigorosity of the martial exercise; and the man who should omit any of them when speaking to his superior might be lawfully beaten by the offended boyar. Before this period, it was polite and common to speak to every man, even the lowest servant, by adding his father's name to his own; and to the great czar, Peter, *Petrowitz* was perfectly respectful, or a single word signifying *dear father*, which he was not named. Tho' many titles were at known among them before the time of Peter, the subordination of ranks was more complete than in any other European nation; but with this singularity peculiar to them and the Poles, that they had but three ranks, the sovereign, the nobility or gentry, and the serfs. It was not till very lately that the intermediate rank formed any distinction; and that distinction is no more than the exemption of the person, which was formerly a true badge of servitude, belonging to the boyar. Notwithstanding this disparity, which put all resistance out of the question, the obeisance of a person holding an inferior office to one of superior power, but above; and the high [illegible] form was *tchelobitii*, which signifies, "a beating with the forehead," *i. e.* striking the ground with the forehead; which was actually done. The father of Alexis abolished the practice; but to this day, when a Russian petitions you, he touches his forehead with his finger; and if he be very earnest, he then puts his finger to the ground.

(39.) RUSSIA, RELIGION, AND SUPERSTITION IN. The Russians were converted to the Christian religion about the end of the 10th century. From that period they have confessed the articles of the Greek church, mingled with many superstitious ceremonies of their own. They do not believe the pope's infallibility or supremacy; they have no communion with the see of Rome: they use auricular confession, communicate in both kinds, adopt the Athanasian creed, and adhere to the established liturgy of St Basil. They worship the Virgin Mary, and other saints; and adore images and relics. They observe 4 great fasts in the year, during which they neither taste fish, flesh, nor any animal food; they will not drink after a man who has eaten flesh, nor use a knife that has cut it for less than 24 hours after it has been washed; nor will they, even though their health is at stake, touch any thing in which hartshorn or any animal substance has been infused. While the great Lent continues, they subsist upon cabbages, cucumbers, and rye-bread, drinking nothing stronger than a sort of small beer called *quass*. They also fast every Wednesday and Friday. The common penance is to abstain from every species of food and drink, but bread, salt, cabbage, and water. They bend their bodies, and persevere in that painful posture, and between times to strike their head against an image. The Kamschadales reject as impure horse flesh, elk, wolf, rabbit, ass's milk, mare's milk, and Vermilion eel, because the flesh of vipers is an ingredient; and every thing that contains even the smallest quantity of musk, civet, and castor: but they have no aversion to swine's flesh; and the climate produces excellent bacon. They celebrate three grand festivals in the year. On Palm-sunday there is a magnificent procession, at which the czar assists in person and on foot. He is dressed in cloth of gold; his train is carried by the prince of the nobility, and he is attended by his whole court. He is immediately preceded by the officers of his household, one of whom carries his handkerchief on his arm, lying upon another of the richest broidery. He halts at a sort of platform or throne, where, turning to the east, and bending his body almost double, he pronounces a short prayer then he proceeds to the church of Jerusalem where he renews his devotion. This exercise being performed, he returns to his palace, the bridle of the patriarch's horse resting upon his arm. The horse's head being covered with white linen, is held by some nobleman; while the patriarch, sitting sidewise, and holding a cross in his hand, distributes benedictions as he moves along; on his head he wears a cap edged with ermin, adorned with loops and buttons of gold and precious stones: before him are displayed banners of coloured [illegible] in a variety of colours. Above [illegible] parts walk in the procession; those who are next [illegible] bearing pictures of the Virgin Mary [illegible]

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ly ornamented with gold, jewels, and pearls, h croſſes, relics, and religious books, including ppy of the Goſpels, which they reckon of in- luable value. In the midſt of this proceſſion is a triumphal arch; and on the top an apple- covered with fruit, which ſeveral little boys oſed in the machine endeavour to gather. The yers and laity carry branches of willow; the ds and the ſpectators proſtrate themſelves on ground while the proceſſion halts; and after ceremony, the patriarch preſents a purſe of rubles to the czar, who perhaps invites him ne at his table. During the ſeaſon of Eaſter, whole empire is filled with mirth and rejoicing: h, however, never fails to degenerate into and debauchery; even the ladies may indulge ſelves with ſtrong liquors to intoxication with- ſcandal. During theſe carnivals, a great num- of people, in reeling home drunk, fall down periſh among the ſnow. It is even dangerous lieve a perſon thus overtaken; for ſhould he the perſon who endeavoured to aſſiſt him is d before the judge, and generally pays dear his charity. The Muſcovite prieſts uſe exor- s at the adminiſt ation of baptiſm. They ge the child three times over head and ears in r, and give it the ſacrament of the Lord's per in one ſpecies, until it hath attained the ar; after which the child is indulged with eaſon kinds. They likewiſe adminiſter the ſa- ent to dying perſons, together with extreme ls; and if this be neglected, the body is de- Chriſtian burial. Soon as the perſon expires, body is depoſited in a coffin, with a lunchion read, a pair of ſhoes, ſome few pieces of mo- and a certificate ſigned by the pariſh-prieſt, directed to St Nicholas, who is one of their patrons. They likewiſe hold St Andrew in veneration, and pretend they were converted an to Chriſtianity. But next to St Nicholas, adore St Anthony of Padua, who is ſuppoſed ve ſailed upon a mill-ſtone through the Me- ranean and Atlantic, and over the lakes La- and Onega, as far as Novogorod. Every e is furniſhed with an image of St Nicholas, d in the moſt rude and fantaſtic manner; and n becomes old and worm-eaten, the owner throws it into the river with a few pieces of ſaying, *Adieu brother*; or returns it to the r, who accommodates him with a new image. women are very careful in adorning their pri- St Nicholaſes with rich clothes and jewels; on emergency, theſe are reſumed, and the left as naked as he came from the hand of arpenter. There are monaſteries in Ruſſia; either the monks nor the nuns are ſubject to e reſtrictions. The friars are either horſe- n, or trade in hops, wheat, and other com- dities; the fiſters are at liberty to go abroad they pleaſe, and indulge themſelves in all er of freedoms. Heretofore liberty of con- ce was denied, and every convicted heretic committed to the flames; but ſince the reign ſter, all religions and ſects are tolerated ghout the empire. Roman Catholics, Lu- ns, Calviniſts, Armenians, Jews, and Maho- ns, enjoy the free exerciſe of their reſpective s of worſhip; though it was not without great difficulty, and by dint of extraordinary ſolli- citation from different powers, that the Romiſh religion was allowed. Peter knowing the danger- ous tenets of a religion that might ſet the ſpiritual power of the pope at variance with the temporal power of the emperor, and being well acquainted with the meddling genius of its profeſſors, held out for ſome time againſt the interceſſion of Ger- many, France, and Poland; and though at length he yielded to their joint interpoſition, he would by no means ſuffer any Jeſuit to enter his domi- nions.

(40.) RUSSIA, REVENUE OF. The revenue of Ruſſia continually fluctuates, according to the in- creaſe of commerce or the pleaſure of the czar, who has all the wealth of the empire at his diſpo- ſal. He monopolizes all the beſt furs, mines, mi- nerals, and the trade by land to the Eaſt Indies; he farms out all the tobacco, wine, brandy, beer, mead, and other liquors; the inns, taverns, pub- lic houſes, bath, and ſweating-houſes. The cuſ- toms upon merchandize, the impoſt upon corn, and toll exacted from cities, towns, and villages, are very conſiderable. He poſſeſſes demeſnes to a very great value: inherits the effects of all thoſe that die inteſtate, or under accuſation of capital crimes; derives a duty from all law-ſuits; and to ſum up the whole, can command the fortunes of all his ſubjects. All theſe articles produce a large revenue, which was 13 years ago eſtimated at a- bove 40,000,000 rubles, or L. 6,333,333 : 6 : 8 Sterling; but the intrinſic value of money is at leaſt three times greater in Ruſſia than in Britain. The expences in time of peace never exceed 38,000,000 rubles: the remainder is not treaſured up, but is employed by the ſovereign in conſtruct- ing public edifices, making harbours, canals, roads, and other uſeful works, for the glory of the em- pire, and the benefit of the ſubjects.

(41.) RUSSIA, RIVERS OF. Ruſſia has a conſi- derable number of large and famous rivers. Of the Dvina or Dwina, the Neva, Dnieper or Nie- per, the Don, the Volga, the Irtis, the Onega, the Oby, and the Lena, the reader of this work will find ſome account under their reſpective names: but in this vaſt empire there are many other rivers worthy of notice, though not perhaps of ſuch mi- nute deſcription. Among theſe the *Boug*, or, as it is ſometimes written, *Bog*, riſes in Poland; then directing its courſe to the SE. it divides the go- vernment of Ekaterinoſlav from the deſerts of Or- chakovy, now belonging to Ruſſia, and falls into the Liman, which communicates with the Black ſea. The Kubane conſiſts of many ſprings or ri- vulets running out of the Caucaſian mountains, and divides itſelf into two branches, the one of which falls into the Azov Sea, and the other into the Black ſea. This river, from its ſource to the end of it, conſtitutes the frontier of Ruſſia. The OURAL, formerly called YAIK, takes its riſe in the Ouralian mountains, in the government of Oufa, which it divides from that of Caucaſus, and extends its courſe about 3000 verſts. It receives many rivers, the principal of which are the Or, Sakmara, Yleck, and Terkool.—The Kouma riſes in the Caucaſian mountains, and runs through the plains between Terek and Volga, and at laſt loſes itſelf in the ſands, before it comes to the Caſpian ſea.

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ſea. The Terek originates in the Caucaſian mountains, runs between them, and then coming out extends its courſe to the Caſpian Sea, and receives ſeveral rivers, as the Malka, Soonja, Baksan, and Ackſay. The Bolſhaya Petchora, that is, the great Petchora, riſes in the Oural mountains, in the government of Vologda, runs acroſs the whole breadth of the government of Archangel, and falls into the Icy Sea. It receives in its courſe ſeveral rivers, the principal of which are the Outcha and the Elma. The Eniſſey is formed by the junction of two rivers, the Oulookema and the Baykema, which riſe in the Altay mountains in Mungalia. It runs through the whole extent of Siberia, and falls into the Icy Sea. The extent of the Eniſſey is about 2500 verſts. It receives in its courſe ſeveral rivers, the principal of which are the Abakan, Elogooy, Podkamennaya Tungouſka, Niznyaya Tungouſka, and Touroukhan. The Yana, the Indighirka, and the Kolhima, are likewiſe no inconſiderable rivers in the government of Irkutſk. The firſt riſes in the mountains which overſhadow the banks of the river Lena on the right hand, and extends its courſe 800 verſts. The two laſt take their ſources in the mountains which extend on the coaſts of the Eaſtern ſea. The length of the Indighirka is 1200 and that of Kolhima 1500 verſts. The laſt, near its mouth, is divided into two branches, and receives the rivers Omolon and Onooy. The Anadir is the eaſternmoſt of all the rivers in Siberia. It riſes out of the lake Ioanko, in the diſtrict of Okhotſk, and runs through the eaſtern part of it, and then falls into the Eaſtern ocean. The Amour is formed by the junction of two conſiderable rivers, the Shilka and Argoonya, which are joined juſt by the frontiers of China. It runs through the Chineſe dominions, and at laſt falls into the Eaſtern ocean. The Kamtſchatka runs through the peninſula of the ſame name, extending its courſe from the Verkhney to Nizney Oſtrog, that is, from the upper to the lower fort, and falls into the Eaſtern ocean. The Penjina riſes in the Yablonnoy ridge of mountains, and falls into the Penjinſkaya Gooba, that is the Gulf or the ſea of Penjina.

(42.) RUSSIA, SOIL OF. The ſoil of Muſcovy varies ſtill more than the climate, according to the influence of the ſun and the ſituation of the country. In the warmer provinces, the proceſs of vegetation is ſo rapid, that corn is commonly reaped in two months after it begins to appear above the ground. Hence the great variety of muſhrooms produced ſpontaneouſly in Ruſſia, which may be conſidered as a comfortable relief to the poor, while they appear as delicacies at the tables of the rich. Above 1000 waggon loads of them uſed to be ſold annually in Moſcow.

(43.) RUSSIA, TRADE AND MANUFACTURES OF. The external commerce of Ruſſia may be divided into two different branches; 1ſt, The commerce with the European nations, which is carried on by buying and ſelling goods either for ready money or upon credit. 2. The commerce with the Aſiatic nations, which is conducted by barter or exchange of goods. The principal ports belonging to the firſt part of Ruſſia are, on the Baltic ſea, St Peterſburgh, Riga, Vyborg, Revel, Narva, Frederickſham, and the Baltic port; Archangel on the White ſea, and Kola on the Northern Ocean; Taganrog on the ſea of Azof, Kherſon, Sevaſtopole, Balaklava, Soudak, Theodoſia, Kerche, and Phanagoria on the Black ſea, beſides others of ſmaller note. In theſe ports commerce is carried on, as well as in ſeveral trading towns ſituated on the frontiers of Poland, Sweden, and Turkey. The products of Ruſſia exported into the different European kingdoms conſiſt chiefly in hemp, flax, different kinds of grain, tallow, hides, ſail-cloth, iron, timber, linſeed, butter, hemp-oil, train oil, wax, potaſh, tar, tobacco, briſtles, linens, peltry, and other goods, the greateſt part of which is exported chiefly by way of St Peterſburgh, Riga, and Archangel; and in return from the European kingdoms they receive woollen cloths, different kinds of goods made of worſted, ſilk, cotton, and thread; wines and beer, white and moiſt ſugar, ſilks, cotton unwrought, and yarn; French brandy, liquors, arrack, thrub, different iron tools and toys; gold and ſilver in bars, in foreign money, and in other things; brilliants, pearls, plate, lanterne goods, coffee, colours; peltry, white ſilver and otter ſkins; herrings, ſtock-fiſh, fine tobacco, different trees, oil, horſes, china and earthen ware, &c. The greateſt part of theſe goods is imported through the ports of St Peterſburgh and Riga, but a conſiderable quantity is likewiſe admitted by land through different frontier cuſtomhouſes. The principal goods exported into Aſia are partly the products of Ruſſia, and partly imported from other European kingdoms, and conſiſt of peltry and hides. The other goods are woollen cloths, bays, borax, bottles, pearl beads, iron, and different kinds of iron ware, damaſcos, kerſeys, glue, thingins, cochineal, indigo, laura, tinſel, gold and ſilver lace, different kinds of arms, as piſtols, guns, ſabres; different kinds of linens, printed and glazed, fuſtians, ticking, paſhock, crash, &c. From the Aſiatic kingdoms they import different ſilk goods raw ſilk, cotton, ſilk wove ſtuffs, gold and ſilver in bars and in coin, cattle, horſes, &c. In 1758 there were in the government of Perm 68 83 copper and iron works belonging to the government and private perſons, and three gold works. The metals extracted in theſe works are chiefly conveyed to Peterſburgh by water carriage on the river Tchuſovaya, which falls into the Kama.

(44.) RUSSIA, TYRANNICAL GOVERNMENT. The government of Ruſſia is the moſt abſolute deſpotiſm. The whole empire is ruled by the arbitrary will and pleaſure of the ſovereign, who is ſtyled the *czar* or *tzar*, a title which is a corruption of Cæſar. Hereupon he was ſtyled great *duke of Muſcovy*: but ſince the reign of Peter I. is dignified with the appellation of *emperor of the Ruſſias*. The emperor is abſolute maſter only of all the eſtates in the empire, but even the lives of his ſubjects; the greateſt nobles call themſelves his *ſlaves*, and execute his commands with the moſt implicit obedience. The common people revere him as ſomething ſuperior to natural; they never mention his name, or any thing immediately belonging to him without making the moſt profound reſpect and awful reverence.

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e education of the czarovitz, or prince royal, ntrusted to the care of a few perſons, by whom is ſtrictly kept from the eyes of the vulgar, il he hath attained the 15th year of his age: n he is ſhown in the market place, that the ople, by viewing him attentively, may remem- his perſon, in order to aſcertain his identity; they have more than once been deceived by poſtors. The nobility of Ruſſia were formerly and powerful, and ruled deſpotically over r inferiors: but Alexis ſtript them of their vileges, and they are now venal dependants on court. They ſtill retain the titles of their an- tors, though many of them are in the moſt ab poverty. All the peaſants in the empire are ſidered as immediate ſlaves belonging to the r, to the boyars, or to the monaſteries. (See ASANT, § 2.) The value of eſtates is com- ted, not by the extent or quality of the land, from the number of thoſe peaſants, who may ſold, alienated, or given away, at the pleaſure their maſters. The number of theſe huſband- n, whether living in villages or in the open ntry, being known, the emperor, by requir- a certain proportion of each lord or proprie- r, can raiſe 300,000 men in leſs than 40 days. he adminiſtration is managed by a grand coun- l called *dumnoy boyarn*, or *council of the boyars*, ho are grandees, and act as privy counſellors. o this are ſubſervient ſix inferior chambers d courts of judicature, provided each with a eſident. The firſt regulates every thing relat- g to ambaſſadors and foreign negociations; the takes cognizance of military affairs; the 3d nages the public revenues; the buſineſs of the is to encourage, protect, and improve trade d commerce. The two laſt hear and deter- ne all cauſes, whether civil or criminal. Peter nded the empire into the 8 governments of Moſ- w, Archangel, Aſeph, Caſan, Aſtracan, Chioff, d the Ukraine, Siberia, Livonia, comprehend- g Ingria, Pleſcow, and Novogorod, Smolenſko, d Veronitz. The governors or waivodes were ſted with power to diſpoſe of all employments vil and military, and receive the revenues. They re directed to defray all expences in their re- ective governments, and ſend a certain yearly m to the great treaſury. In a word, they en- yed abſolute power in every thing but what re- ted to the regular troops, which, though quar- red in their juriſdiction, were neither paid nor rected by them, but received their orders im- ediately from the czar or his generals. In 1775 atherine II. made a complete new-modelling of e internal government in a form of great ſim- licity and uniformity. By that reglement ſhe ivided the whole empire into 43 governments, ee § 30), placing over each, or where they are leſs extent, over two contiguous governments, governor-general with very conſiderable powers. he ſubdivided each government into provinces ad diſtricts; and for the better adminiſtration f juſtice erected in them various courts of law, vil, criminal, and commercial, analogous to thoſe in other countries. She eſtabliſhed likewiſe every government, if not in every province, a ribunal of conſcience, and in every diſtrict a chamber for the protection of orphans. Amidſt ſo many wiſe inſtitutions a chamber for the adminiſtration of her imperial majeſty's revenues was not forgotten, nor a tribunal of police in each diſtrict. The duty of the governor-general, who is not properly a judge, but the guardian of the laws, is to take care that the various tribunals in his government diſcharge their reſpective duties, to protect the oppreſſed, to enforce the adminiſtration of the laws; and when any tribunal ſhall appear to have pronounced an irregular ſentence, to ſtop the execution till he make a re- port to the ſenate, and receive the ſovereign's or- ders. It is his buſineſs likewiſe to ſee that the taxes be regularly paid; and, on the frontiers of the empire, that the proper number of troops be kept up, and that they be attentive to their duty. This reglement contains other inſtitutions, as well as many directions for the conducting of law ſuits in the different courts, and the adminiſ- tration of juſtice; but the general want of mo- rals, and of honour, in every order of men thro' this vaſt empire, muſt make the wiſeſt regulations of little avail. Ruſſia is perhaps the only nation in Europe where the law is not an incorporated profeſſion. There are no ſeminaries where a prac- titioner muſt be educated. Any man who will pay the fees of office may become an attorney, and any man who can find a client may plead at the bar. The judges are not more learned than the pleaders. They are not fitted for their offi- ces by any kind of education; nor are they ne- ceſſarily choſen from thoſe who have frequented courts and been in the practice of pleading. A general, from a ſucceſsful or an equivocal cam- paign, may be inſtantly ſet at the head of a court of juſtice; and in the abſence of the imperial court from St Peterſburg, the commanding offi- cer in that city, whoever he may be, preſides *ex officio* in the high court of juſtice. The other courts generally change their preſidents every year. The appointment to ſo many interior go- vernments makes the Ruſſian nobility acquainted with the ordinary buſineſs of law courts; and a ſtatute or imperial edict is law in every caſe. The great obſtacles to the adminiſtration of juſtice are the contrariety of the laws and the venality of the judges. From inferior to ſuperior courts there are two appeals; and in a great proportion of the cauſes the reverſal of the ſentence of the inferior court ſubjects its judges to a heavy fine, unleſs they can produce an edict in ſupport of their deci- ſion. This indeed they ſeldom find any difficulty to do; for there is hardly a caſe ſo ſimple but that edicts may be found clear and preciſe for both parties; and therefore the judges, ſen- ſible of their ſafety, are very ſeldom incorrupti- ble. To the principle of honour, which often guides the conduct of judges in other nations, they are ſuch abſolute ſtrangers, that an officer has been ſeen ſitting in ſtate and diſtributing juſtice from a bench to which he was chained by an iron collar round his neck, for having the day before been detected in conniving at ſmuggling. Few crimes are capital in Ruſſia: murder may be a- toned by paying a ſum of money; nay, the civil magiſtrate takes no cognizance of murder, with-

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out having previously received information at the fuit of fome individuals. Criminals were punifhed with torture and the moft cruel deaths till the reign of the illuftrious Catherine I. when a more merciful fyftem took place, and which Catherine II. confirmed by law. See the articles CATHERINE I and ELIZABETH.

(45.) RUSSIA, WEATHER AND CLIMATE OF. In fuch a vaft extent of country, ftretching from the temperate fo far into the frigid zone, the climate muft vary confiderably in different places. In the fouthern parts of the Ruffian empire, the longeft day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas in the moft northern, the fun in fummer is feen two months above the horizon. The country in general, though lying under different climates, is exceffively cold in the winter. Towards the north, the country is covered near three quarters of the year with fnow and ice; and by the feverity of the cold many unfortunate perfons are maimed, or periſh. This fort of weather commonly fets in about the latter end of Auguft, and continues till the month of May; in which interval the rivers are frozen to the depth of 4 or 5 feet. Water thrown up into the air will fall down in icicles; birds are frozen in their flight, and travellers in their fledges. In fome provinces the heats of fummer are as fcorching as the winter colds are rigorous.

(II.) RUSSIA, LITTLE, or } a ci-devant province
(II.) RUSSIA, RED, } of Poland, feized by the emperor Joſeph II. and included in his province of Gallicia. See GALICIA, N° 3; and RED, N° 19.

(1.) RUSSIAN, *adj.* Of, or belonging to, or derived from RUSSIA.

(2.) RUSSIAN BALBUZZARD. See FALCON, N° 9.

(3.) RUSSIAN KITE. See FALCO, N° 12.

(4.) RUSSIANS, *n. ſ.* the natives of Ruſſia. See RUSSIA, § 2, 25; 27—30; 34, 35, 39.

(5.) RUSSIAN SHEEP. See OVIS, § III, N° 1.

RUSSICUS RUBINUS. See RUBY, N° 9.

(1.) * RUST. *n. ſ.* [*ruſt*, Saxon] 1. The red deſquamation of old iron.—This iron began at length to gather *ruſt*. *Hooker.*—

Ruſt eaten pikes and ſwords. *May's Virgil.*

But Pallas came in ſhape of *ruſt*,
And 'twixt the ſpring and hammer thruſt,
Her Gorgon ſhield. *Hudibras.*

—My ſcymitar got ſome *ruſt* by the ſea water. *Gulliver.* 2. The tarniſhed or corroded ſurface of any metal.—

And ſcour his armour from the *ruſt* of peace. *Dryden.*

3. Loſs of power by inactivity. 4. Matter bred by corruption or degeneration.—Let her ſee thy ſacred truths cleared from all *ruſt*. *King Charles.*

(2.) RUST is the flower or calx of any metal, procured by corroding and diſſolving its ſuperficial parts by ſome menſtruum. Water is the great inſtrument or agent in producing ruſt: and hence oils and other fatty bodies, ſecure metals from ruſt; water being no menſtruum for oil, and therefore not able to make its way through it. All metals except gold are liable to ruſt; and even this alſo if expoſed to the fumes of ſalts. For remedies againſt ruſt, ſee IRON, § 7.

(3.) RUST OF COPPER. (See ÆRUGO.) Ruſt of copper, in the new chemical nomenclature, called *Green Oxide of Copper*. See CHEMISTRY, *Vocab.* I.

(4.) RUST OF IRON, ſee § 2. Ruſt of iron is now called *Carbonate of Iron*. See CHEMISTRY, *Vocab.* I.

(1.) * *To* RUST. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To make ruſty.—Keep up your bright ſwords, for the dew will *ruſt* them. *Shak.* 2. To impair by time or inactivity.

(2.) * *To* RUST. *v. n.* 1. To gather ruſt; to have the ſurface tarniſhed or corroded.—

The culter *ruſts*,
That ſhould deracinate ſuch ſavagery. *Shak.*
Our armours now may *ruſt*. *Dryden.*

2. To degenerate in idleneſs.—

Muſt I *ruſt* in Egypt? *Dryden.*

RUSTGADEN, a town of Sweden, in Dalecarlia, 23 miles SSW. of Fahlun. Lon. 16. 30. E. Lat. 60. 18. N.

(1.) RUSTIC, *adj.* See RUSTICAL, and RUSTICK.

(2.) RUSTIC, *n. ſ.* See RUSTICK.

(3.) RUSTIC, in architecture, implies a manner of building in imitation of nature, rather than according to the rules of art. See ARCHITECTURE.

(4.) RUSTIC GODS, *dii ruſtici*, in antiquity, were the gods of the country, or thoſe who preſided over agriculture, &c. Varro invokes the *dii conſentes*, as the principal among the rural gods; viz. Jupiter, Tellus, the Sun, Moon, Ceres, Bacchus, Rubigus, Flora, Minerva, Vejus, Lympha, and Fortune or *Good Luck*. Beſides theſe 12 arch-ruſtic gods, there were an infinity of leſſer ones; as Pales, Vertumnus, Tutelina, Fulgor, Sterculius, Mellona, Jugatinus, Collina, Vallonia, Terminus, Sylvanus, and Priapus. Servius adds the Satyrs, Fauns, Sileni, Nymphs, and even Tritons; and gives the empire over all ruſtic gods to Pan.

(5.) RUSTIC ORDER, that decorated with ruſtic quoins, ruſtic work, &c.

(6.) RUSTIC WORK, is where the ſtones in the face, &c. of a building, inſtead of being ſmooth, are hatched, or picked with the point of a hammer.

* RUSTICAL. *adj.* [*ruſticus*, Lat. *ruſtique*, Fr.] Rough; ſavage; boiſterous; brutal; rude.—A company of *ruſtical* villains, full of ſweat and duſt. *Sidney.*—This is by a *ruſtical* ſeverity to banish all urbanity. *Brown.*—He confounds the ſinging and dancing of the Satyres with the *ruſtical* entertainment of the firſt Romans. *Dryden.*

* RUSTICALLY. *adv.* [from *ruſtical.*] Savagely; rudely; inelegantly.—

He keeps me *ruſtically* at home. *Shak.*
Quintius was born,
And *ruſtically* joy'd, as chief of Rome. *Dryden.*

* RUSTICALNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ruſtical.*] The quality of being ruſtical; rudeneſs; ſavageneſs.

(1.) * *To* RUSTICATE. *v. n.* [*ruſticor*, Latin.] To reſide in the country.—My lady Scudamore from

om having *rusticated* in your company too long, etends to open her eyes. *Pope.*

(2.) * *To* RUSTICATE. *v. a.* To baniſh into country.—I was deeply in love with a milli-r, upon which I was ſent away, or in, the uni-ity phraſe, *ruſticated* for ever. *Spectator.*

* RUSTICITY. *n. ſ.* [*ruſticité*, Fr. *ruſticitas*, m *ruſticus*, Lat.] 1. Qualities of one that lives the country; ſimplicity; artleſneſs; rudeneſs; ageneſs.—He reſted him on the floor, unfit for etter place by his *ruſticity*. *Spenſer.*—The ſweet-and *ruſticity* of a paſtoral cannot be ſo well reſt in any other tongue as in the Greek. *Ad-n.*—An univerſal *ruſticity* preſently took place, ſtopped not till it had over-run the whole k of mankind. *Woodward.* 2. Rural appear-e.

1.) * RUSTICK. *adj.* [*ruſticus*, Lat.] 1. Rural; try.—Many times the very *ruſtick* people left h their delights and profits to hearken to his p. *Sidney.* 2. Rude; untaught; inelegant.—ignorant clown cannot learn fine language or ourly behaviour, when his *ruſtick* airs have n up with him till the age of forty. *Watts.* brutal; ſavage.—

Some *ruſtic* wretch, who liv'd in heav'n's de-ſpight,
Contemning laws, and trampling on the right. *Pope.*

artleſs; honeſt; ſimple. 3. Plain; unadorn-

An altar ſtood, *ruſtick*, of graſſy ſord. *Milt.*
With unguents ſmooth the poliſh'd marble ſhone,
Where ancient Neleus ſat, a *ruſtick* throne. *Pope.*

2.) * RUSTICK. *n. ſ.* A clown; a ſwain; an bitant of the country.—Nothing is ſo rude inſolent as a wealthy *ruſtick*. *South.*

USTICOLA. See SCOLOPAX, N° 7.

USTICUS, L. Junius Arulenius, a learned, an, the preceptor and friend of PLINY the ger. His abilities are celebrated both by Pli-nd Tacitus. *Plin.* 1. ep. 14. *Tac.* 16. c. 26. as put to death by Domitian. *Sueton.*

RUSTINESS *n. ſ.* [from *ruſty*.] The ſtate of ruſty.

To RUSTLE. *v. n.* [*briſtlan*, Saxon.] To a low continued rattle; to make a quick ſion of ſmall noiſes.—He is coming; I hear aw *ruſtle*. *Shak.*—

Prouder, than *ruſtling* in unpaid for ſilk. *Shakeſp.*

Thick ſwarm'd, both on the ground, and in the air
Iſh'd with the hiſs of *ruſtling* wings. *Milton.*
s when we ſee the winged winds engage,
ring from ev'ry quarter of the ſky. *Granv.*
ans clap, ſilks *ruſtle*, and tough whalebones crack. *Pope.*

The milk-white ſwans
tch their long necks, and clap their *ruſtling* wings. *Pope.*

1.) RUSTON, 4 ſmall towns of England: Norfolk, W. of W. Derham: 2. in Yorkſh. Pickering foreſt:

RUSTON EAST, in Norfolk between Wal-nd the coaſt:

(4.) RUSTON PARVA, in Yorkſh. near Kilham.

RUSTRE, *n. ſ.* in heraldry, a bearing of a diamond ſhape, pierced through the middle with a round hole. See HERALDRY.

* RUSTY. *adj.* [from *ruſt*.] 1. Covered with ruſt; infected with ruſt.—After a long calm of peace, he was left engaged in a war with a *ruſty* ſword and empty purſe. *Howel.*—

Part ſcour the *ruſty* ſhields with ſeam. *Dryd.*

2. Impaired by inactivity.—

Hector, in his dull and long continued truce,
Is *ruſty* grown. *Shak.*

RUSUOCURUM, an ancient town of Africa, in Mauritania; ſuppoſed to be the modern ALGIERS.

* RUT. *n. ſ.* [*rut*, Fr.] 1. Copulation of deer.—The time of going to *rut* of deer is in September: and if rain come about the middle of September, they go to *rut* ſomewhat the ſooner. *Bacon.*—The ground hereof was the obſervation of this part in deer after immoderate venery, and the end of their *rut*. *Brown.* 2. [*Route*, Fr.] The track of a cart wheel. *Ainſworth.*—

From hills raine waters headlong fall,
That always eat huge *ruts*, which, met in one bed fill a vall
With ſuch a confluence of ſtreames, that on the mountaine grounds
Farre off, in frighted ſhepherds ears the buſtling noiſe rebounds. *Chapman.*

* *To* RUT. *v. n.* [*ruir*, Fr.] To deſire to come together. Uſed of deer.

RUTA, in botany, RUE, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the decandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 26th order, *Multiſiliquæ*. The calyx is quinquepartite; the petals concave; the receptacle ſurrounded with 10 melliferous pores; the capſule is lobed. In ſome flowers, a 5th part of the number is excluded. There are ſeveral ſpecies; of which the moſt remarkable are theſe:

1. RUTA BAGA, or *Swediſh turnip*. See RURAL ECONOMY, *Part* I. *Section* VI. This plant is highly recommended in Sir *J. Sinclair's Stat. Account*, by the rev. George Drummond, miniſter of Mordington, in Berwickſhire. "The *Ruta Baga* (ſays he,) has been cultivated with ſucceſs, by the two heritors of this pariſh. Beſides being later of ſhooting than the turnip, it loſes not its nutritive qualities after being ſhot, but retains all its juices and ſolidity. Horſes ſeem very fond of it. Another extraordinary quality of the ruta baga, is, that it ſeems impoſſible to make it rot; tho' bit, or trod upon by cattle or horſes, it never rots, but whatever part of the root is left, nay, if ſcooped out to the ſhell, it remains perfectly freſh, and in ſpring puts out a new ſtem. The culture is perfectly ſimple, by ſeed ſown in the field, as turnips, only a month earlier. Both roots and leaves are alſo excellent for culinary purpoſes."

2. RUTA HORTENSIS, or common *broad-leaved garden rue*, has been long cultivated for medicinal uſe. This riſes with a ſhrubby ſtalk to the height of five or ſix feet, ſending out branches on every ſide, garniſhed with decompounded leaves, whoſe ſmall lobes are wedge-ſhaped, of a grey colour, and have a ſtrong odour. The

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flowers are produced at the end of the branches in bunches almost in the form of umbels: they are compoſed of four yellow concave petals which are cut on their edges, and eight yellow ſtamina which are longer than the petals, terminated by roundiſh ſummits. The germen becomes a roundiſh capſule, with four lobes punched full of holes containing rough black ſeeds. Rue has a ſtrong ungrateful ſmell, and a bitteriſh penetrating taſte: the leaves, when full of vigour, are extremely acid, inſomuch as to inflame and bliſter the ſkin, if much handled. With regard to their medicinal virtues, they are powerfully ſtimulating, attenuating, and detergent; and hence, in cold phlegmatic habits, they quicken the circulation, diſſolve tenacious juices, open obſtructions of the excretory glands, and promote the fluid ſecretions. The writers on the materia medica in general have entertained a very high opinion of the virtues of this plant. Boerhaave is full of its praiſes; particularly of the eſſential oil, and the diſtilled water cohobated or re-diſtilled ſeveral times from freſh parcels of the herb. After extravagantly commending other waters prepared in this manner, he adds, with regard to that of rue, that the greateſt commendations he can beſtow upon it fall ſhort of its merit: particularly "for promoting ſweat and perſpiration, for the cure of the hyſteric paſſion and of epilepſies, and for expelling poiſon." Whatever ſervice rue may be of in the two laſt caſes, it undoubtedly has its uſe in the others: the cohobated water, however, is not the moſt efficacious preparation of it. An extract made by rectified ſpirit contains in a ſmall compaſs the whole virtues of the rue; this menſtruum taking up by infuſion all the pungency and flavour of the plant, and elevating nothing in diſtillation. With water, its peculiar flavour and warmth ariſe; the bitterneſs, and a conſiderable ſhare of the pungency, remaining behind.

RUTCHESTER, an ancient town of Northumberland, NW. of Chollerton, called VINDOBALA by the Romans. Severus's wall runs on the middle of the E. rampart, and Adrian's paſſes about a chain to the S. of it. Its ſort was formerly conſiderable, and its ruins are ſtill remarkable.

RUTENI, an ancient people of Gaul, who inhabited the country ſince called ROUERGUE, now the department of AVEIRON, in the late province of Guienne. *Cæſ. de Bel. Gal.*

(1.) RUTH, a canonical book of the Old Teſtament; being a kind of appendix to the book of Judges: and an introduction to thoſe of Samuel; and having its title from the perſon whoſe hiſtory is here principally related. In this hiſtory are obſerved the ancient rights of kindred and redemption; and the manner of buying the inheritance of the deceaſed, with other particulars of great uſe and antiquity. The canonicalneſs of this book was never diſputed; but the learned are not agreed about the epocha of the hiſtory it relates. Dr Watkins places it about A. A. C. 1254.

(2.) RUTH, a Moabitiſh, the widow of Mahlon, an Iſraelite, whoſe intereſting hiſtory forms the ſubject of the above book, and has been imitated by Thomſon in his ſtory of Palemon and Lavinia. For unfeigned affection for Naomi, the mother of her deceaſed huſband, whom ſhe followed into Judea, was rewarded by her marriage with Boaz, one of the chiefs of Judah; by whom ſhe became mother of Obed, grand-mother of Jeſſe, great-grand-mother of King David, and an anceſtor of our Saviour.

(3.) * RUTH. *n. ſ.* [from *rue.*] 1. Mercy; pity; tenderneſs; ſorrow for the miſery of another. Out of uſe.—

O wretch of gueſts, ſaid he, thy tale has ſtirred
My mind to much *ruth.* *Cleopatra*
All *ruth*, compaſſion, mercy he forgot. *Fairy Queen*
He durſt not ſpeak, by ſuit to purchaſe *ruth*. *Fairy Queen*
They that overween
No anger find in thee, but pity and *ruth*.

2. Miſery; ſorrow.—

The Britons, by Maximilian laid way
With wretched miſeries and woful *ruth*,
Were to thoſe Pagans made an open prey. *Spenſer*

(1.) RUTHERFORD, John, M. D. one of the illuſtrious founders of the Medical School in the Univerſity of Edinburgh, was the ſon of the Rev. Mr Rutherford miniſter of Yarrow, in Selkirkſhire. He was born Aug. 1ſt 1695, and received the firſt elements of his education at the pariſh ſchool of Selkirk, where he made a rapid progreſs in the Greek and Latin languages. After his father's death he went to Edinburgh in 1708, or 1709, where he ſtudied the claſſics, mathematics, and natural philoſophy, at the Univerſity. He next engaged himſelf as an apprentice to Mr Alexander Nisbet, an eminent ſurgeon in Edinburgh, with whom he continued till 1716, when he went to London; where he attended the lectures on anatomy, by Dr Douglas, on ſurgery by Alſton, and on materia medica by Strother; beſides attending ſeveral hoſpitals. In 1717, he returned to Edinburgh, and afterwards went to Leyden, which was then, from the abilities of Boerhaave, the moſt famous medical ſchool in Europe. In 1719, he went to France, and was, in June, admitted to the degree of M. D. at the univerſity of Rheims. He ſpent the winter in Paris, where he ſaw Winſlow's demonſtrations in Anatomy, and, in 1720, he returned to Britain. In 1720 he ſettled as a phyſician in Edinburgh; and ſoon afterwards joined with Drs Sinclair, Plummer, and Innes, in purchaſing a laboratory, for the preparation of compound medicines. This was then little known in Scotland, and therefore they met with great and rapid encouragement. They alſo gave lectures on Chemiſtry to a numerous audience; and ſoon after, by Boerhaave's advice, they gave lectures on the other branches of Medicine. In 1725, they were appointed the firſt profeſſors in the Univerſity, and each for ſome time read lectures in every department of medical ſcience, except anatomy, and carried forward their claſſes in rotation. The lectures on Anatomy were given by Dr Alexander Monro ſen. who had been ſettled a ſhort time before him in Edinburgh, and whoſe celebrity is univerſally known. On the death of Dr Innes the particular branch of medical ſcience was aſſigned to each of the other 3 profeſſors. Dr Plummer was appointed profeſſor of chemiſtry and materia

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lica, Dr Sinclair of the inſtitutes of phyſic, Dr Rutherford of the practice; and thus was gular medical ſchool eſtabliſhed in Edinburgh Monro, Plummer, Sinclair, and Rutherford. lectures on the inſtitutes and practice of phyere then, and for many years afterwards de- ed in Latin; and ſuch was Dr Rutherford's mand of that language, that on every thing nected with medicine, he talked in it more ntly than in Engliſh. About 1748, he introduced eat improvement in medical education. Sen- that abſtract lectures on the ſymptoms and mode of treating various diſeaſes, of which ſtudents know little but the names, could cely be of any benefit, he had for ſome time ouraged his pupils to bring patients to him on rday, when he enquired into the nature of diſeaſes, and preſcribed for them in the pre- e of the claſs. This gave riſe to the courſe *linical* lectures; the utility of which was ſo ob- us, that it was enacted, by a decree of the ſe- of the univerſity, that no man ſhould be ad- ted to an examination for his degree, who had attended thoſe lectures; to which an excel- hoſpital, then newly erected (ſee EDINBURGH, 1.) gave the profeſſors every opportunity of ng ample juſtice. To men who mean to live the practice of phyſic, this is perhaps the moſt luable courſe of lectures that is given in Edin- gh; and Dr Rutherford muſt be conſidered as e of the greateſt benefactors of the medical ool. Finding in the late Dr John Gregory (ſee EGORY, N° 24.) a ſucceſſor entirely to his mind, reſigned to him in 1765, after having taught dicine in its different departments for upwards 40 years. He lived, after this period, loved his friends, and revered by many eminent phy- ans, who had been his pupils, till 1779, when died in Edinburgh, where he had ſpent great rt of his life, aged 84.

2.) RUTHERFORD, Samuel, a celebrated Scot- h preſbyterian divine, who flouriſhed in the th century, and wrote the *Hind let looſe*, and o- r tracts on the religious and political contro- ſy of that age. We have ſearched various bio- aphical works in vain for a memoir of him.

3.) RUTHERFORD, in geography, a village of otland, in Roxburghſhire, on the banks of the weed, ſo named from a bloody battle, obſtinate- fought between the Scots and Engliſh, the for- r of whom being at laſt victors, ſaid the Engliſh ught *Rue the ford*; whence the village got its me, on account of the great loſs ſuſtained by the glish in fording the Tweed. There are relics f an ancient Roman camp on the Engliſh ſide of e river, which the Engliſh took poſſeſſion of, revious to their fording the river. A hollow on e oppoſite bank, in which the Scots lay, is ſtill alled the *Scots Hole*, and a riſing ground, where e parties met and fought, is called *Plea-Brae*.

(4.) RUTHERFORD, a county of N. Carolina, Morgan diſtrict; bounded on the E. by Lin- on county, S. by S. Caroiina, W. by Buncomb, nd N. by Burke county. In 1790, it contained 194 citizens, and 614 ſlaves; but a new county as ſince been formed out of it. Rutherford town s the capital.

(5.) RUTHERFORD TOWN, or RUTHERFORDTOWN, } the capital of the above county. It has a court houſe and jail; and a court is held in it on the 3d Monday in Jan. April, July, and Oct.

(1.) RUTHERFORTH, Thomas, a learned Engliſh divine, who became rector of Papworth-Everard in Cambridgeſhire. He made large collections for a Hiſtory of that county.

(2.) RUTHERFORTH, Thomas, D. D. the ſon of the above, was born Oct. 13, 1712; became fellow of St John's College, Cambridge, regius profeſſor of Divinity, in that univerſity, rector of Shenfield, and archdeacon of Eſſex. He married Charlotte Elizabeth Abdy, daughter of Sir William Abdy, Bart. He publiſhed, 1. An Eſſay on the Nature and Obligations of Virtue: 8vo. 1744: 2. A Syſtem of Natural Philoſophy: Camb. 1748. 2 vols. 8vo. 3. A Letter to Dr Middleton, in defence of Bp. Sherlock; 8vo. 1750: 4. A Diſcourſe on Miracles; 8vo. 1751: 5. Inſtitutes of Natural Law; 2 vols. 8vo. 6, 7. Two Letters to Dr Kennicott; 1761 and 1762: 8. A Vindication of Subſcriptions to an Eſtabliſhed Confeſſion of Faith, &c. Camb. 1767. 9, 10. Other 2 tracts on the ſame ſubject, 1766 and 1767: beſides ſeveral Sermons, and Charges to the Clergy. He died Oct. 5, 1771, aged 59.

(3.) RUTHERFORTH, Thomas Abdy, the ſon the above, took orders, and was rector in his own right of Theydon-Gernon. He ſucceeded to the eſtate and title of his uncle Sir William Abdy, and married Jan. 13, 1778, a daughter of James Hayes, Eſq.

(1.) RUTHERGLEN, or RUGLEN, a royal borough of Scotland, in Lanarkſhire. Few towns in Scotland can lay greater claim to antiquity. Maitland, in his *Hiſtory of the Antiquities of Scotland*, vol. i. p. 92. ſays it was founded by Reuther, the 7th king of Scots, from whom it derived its name; and a tradition of the ſame import prevails among the inhabitants. From ſeveral original charters ſtill preſerved, it is certain that it was erected into a royal borough by king David I. about 1126. The territory under the juriſdiction of the borough was extenſive, and the inhabitants enjoyed many diſtinguiſhed privileges, which were however gradually wreſted from them, by political influence, in favour of Glaſgow, which in later times roſe into conſequence by trade and manufactures. It is now much reduced, conſiſting but of one principal ſtreet and a few lanes, and containing about 1631 inhabitants. About 150 yards to the S. of the main ſtreet is a kind of lane, named *Dins dykes*, where Q. Mary was for a ſhort time ſtopt in her flight, after the battle of Langſide, by two inſolent ruſtics. Adjoining to a lane called the *Back row* ſtood the caſtle of Rutherglen, originally built about the time of the foundation of the town. This ancient fortreſs underwent ſeveral ſieges during the wars in the days of king Robert Bruce, and it remained a place of ſtrength until the battle of Langſide; ſoon after which it was deſtroyed by the regent, to revenge himſelf on the Hamilton family, in whoſe cuſtody it then was. No relic of it now exiſts. The kirk of Rutherglen, an ancient building of the Saxo-Gothic ſtyle,

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Ryle, was rendered famous by two transactions, in which the fate of Sir William Wallace and his country was deeply concerned. In it a truce was concluded between Scotland and England in 1297, and in it Sir John Monteath bargained with the Engliſh to betray Wallace his friend and companion. (*Henry's Life of Wallace*, Book VI. verſe 862. XI. 796.) This ancient building was, in 1794, pulled down, and a modern one was erected in its place. Vaſt quantities of human bones, and ſome relics of antiquity were found in the area of the old church. No borough in Britain poſſeſſes a political conſtitution more free and unembarraſſed than Rutherglen. It was anciently under the influence of a ſelf-elected magiſtracy, many of whom lived at a diſtance from the borough, and who continued long in office without change. Negligence on the one hand, and an undue exertion of power on the other, at length excited the burgeſſes, about the middle of the 17th century, to apply an effectual remedy to this evil. The community who, at that period, poſſeſſed the power of reforming the abuſes that had long prevailed in the management of the borough, were much aſſiſted in their exertions by a Mr David Spens town clerk, a gentleman unbiaſſed by falſe politics, and who was animated with a high degree of patriotiſm. Great oppoſition was at firſt made to the reform; but the plan adopted by the burgeſſes was wiſely laid, and was proſecuted with unremitting aſſiduity. They were proof againſt the influence and bribery of a party that ſtruggled to continue the old practice; and having at length ſurmounted every difficulty, they formed a new conſtitution or ſett for the borough, which, in 1671, was approved of by all the inhabitants of the town, and afterwards inſerted in the records of the general convention of the royal boroughs of Scotland. Rutherglen joins with Glaſgow, Renfrew, and Dumbarton, in electing a member to the Britiſh parliament. The fairs are generally well attended, and have long been famous for a great ſhow of horſes, of the Lanarkſhire breed, which are eſteemed the beſt draught horſes in Britain. The inhabitants ſtill retain ſome cuſtoms of a very remote antiquity. One of theſe is the making of *Rutherglen four cakes*. The operation is attended with ſome peculiar rites, which lead us to conclude that the practice is of Pagan origin. An account of theſe rites is given in *Ure's Hiſtory of Rutherglen and Kilbride*, p. 94. Rutherglen is 2 miles SE. of Glaſgow, and 9 W. of Hamilton. Lon. 4. 13. W. Lat. 55. 51. N.

(2.) RUTHERGLEN, a pariſh of Scotland, of which the above borough is the capital, and from which it is named, 3 miles long, and 1½ broad, comprehending ſome of the moſt beautiful and fertile plains on the S. banks of the Clyde; particularly the eſtates of *Shawfield*, *Farme*, *Hamilton Farm*, and *Roſebank*. It is wholly arable, and moſtly incloſed. The climate is mild and warm; the ſoil a fine loam, or rich mould; producing great crops of oats, wheat, barley, peaſe, beans, and potatoes. The population, in 1793, was 2860; increaſe 872, ſince 1755. Of theſe 254 were employed in weaving, and 126 in the coal-works. The roads are good.

* RUTHFUL. *adj.* [*ruth* and *full*.] Rueful; woful; ſorrowful.—The inhabitants feldom the a *ruthful* and reaving experience of thoſe *Carew's Survey of Cornwall.*

* RUTHFULLY. *adv.* [from *ruthful*.] 1. W fully; ſadly.—The flower of horſe and foo by the valour of the enemy, *ruthfully* perish *Knolles.* 2. Sorrowfully; mournfully.—

Help me, ye baneful birds, my deadly cra Moſt *ruthfully* to tune. Spen

3. Wofully. In irony.—

By this Minerva's friend bereft Oileades of that rich bowl, and lift his lips, a eyes *Ruthfully* ſmear'd. *Chapman's Ho*

RUTHIN, a town of N. Wales, in Denb ſhire, with a good market on Monday, ſeated a valley on the Cluyd, with an ancient caſtle, n in ruins. It is populous, and has a free ſch and a large hoſpital: 15 miles SW. of Holyw and 206 NW. of London. Lon. 3. 30. W. L 53. 7. N.

* RUTHLESS. *adj.* [from *ruth*.] Cruel; pitil uncompaſſionate; barbarous.—

What is Edward but a *ruthleſs* ſea? Sh The *ruthleſs* flint doth cut my tender fe

His archers circle me; my reins they wo And *ruthleſs* ſhed my gall upon the ground. *Sandy*

Their rage the hoſtile powers reſtrain, All but the *ruthleſs* monarch of the main. *Pop*

* RUTHLESSLY. *adv.* [from *ruthleſs*.] Wi out pity; cruelly; barbarouſly.

* RUTHLESSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ruthleſs*.] W of pity.

(1.) RUTHVEN, a pariſh of Scotland, in Ab gus-ſhire, pleaſantly ſeated on the N. ſide Strathmore, near the foot of the Grampians. It is nearly ſquare, and contains about 1700 acres of which 303 are covered with wood, 40 wi heath, 30 conſiſt of marl, and 16 of moſs. T reſt is arable and fertile, having a light ſoil gravelly bottom, and producing oats, barley and green crops. Oaks are its natural pro and anciently grew to a very large ſize, as a dent from two old ones ſtill growing on the of the ISLA; which runs through it, and fo ſome beautiful cataracts, but ſometimes overflo its banks, and damages the adjacent fields. It bounds with ſalmon and trouts. The populatio in 1792, was 220; the decreaſe 60, ſince 175 the number of horſes was 52; and of black cat 360. In 1742 there were 1050 ſheep, but w few in 1792. The N. part of the pariſh is ſai by tradition, to have been the ſcene of a batt between K. Edward and K. Robert Bruce. Inglifton, (or *Engliſh town*,) where relics of the camp and cairn are ſtill viſible, and wherein the latter was victorious. The place, where the Scot were ſtationed, is ſtill called *Brucetown*, and tw large ſtones ſtand as monuments of the victory The pariſh abounds with mineral ſprings and marl. *Iſla-bank*, the ſeat of James Ogilvy, Eſq. is ſeated near the ſite of the ancient caſtle of Ruth ven, of which not a relic remains.

(2.) RUTHVEN, a ſmall river of Perthſhire which riſes in the pariſh of Blackford, near the houſe of Gleneagles; runs NE. through the whole length

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th of the parish of Auchterarder, turns 11 s, and falls into the Earne, NE. of the village Auchterarder. It gave name to the ancient sh of *Aber-Ruthven*, now united to that of hterarder.

.) RUTHVEN CASTLE. See HUNTING-TOWER and PERTH, N° 3; also *Cant's History of Perth*, *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* vol. xvii, p. 644.

.) RUTHWELL, a parish of Scotland, in fries-shire, anciently called RYVAL, about 6 long from E. to W. along the Solway Frith, 3 broad. The surface is a gentle acclivity the coast; the soil is sand and various; but , and the crops of oats, barley, wheat, pot- &c. are early. Limestone is wrought to a extent, and much to the advantage of the . The population, in 1793, was 1061; the se 462, since 1755; owing to the division of farms, and a tract of pasture of 2000 acres, small, and to the discovery of a lime quarry mlongan. There is a fine chalybeate spring on.

) RUTHWELL, an ancient burgh of barony, ly village, in the above parish, lately rebuilt stones and slates by the Earl of Mansfield, roprietor of the greater part of the parish. habitants, in right of an ancient charter, fixture salt, free of duty. *Comlongan Castle*, of Earl Mansfield, is a venerable building, ded with extensive plantations; and there ks of an ancient castle at *Cockpool*, another f the Earl's. The coast abounds with her- cod, skate, and large flounders, &c. The o Port-Patrick passes through this village. church-yard is an ancient obelisk, of the on which an engraving is given in *Pennant's* and *Gordon's Itenerarium Septentrionale*.

TIGLIANO, a town of Naples, in the pro- f Bari; 5 miles SE. of Bari.

TILIUS RUFUS, Publius, a Roman consul, age of Sylla, celebrated for his virtues and tings. Sylla having banished him, he re- o Smyrna, and refused, when solicited by ds to be restored by arms. He was the to taught the Roman soldiers to fabricate n arms; and, during his exile, wrote a *Rome*, in Greek; an account of his own Latin; and many other works, which are *vid. Fast. Seneca. Cic.* &c.

TILUS, in ichthyology, the ROACH, BAR- &c. See CYPRINUS, N° 9.

TLAM, a town of Hindostan Proper, in the e of Malwa; 48 miles W. of Ongein, and of Amedabad. Lon. 74. 48. E. Lat. 23.

UTLAND, a town of Ireland, in Queen's , and province of Leinster.

UTLAND, a small town of Ireland, in the of Donegal and province of Ulster.

UTLAND, a county of the United States, ont, bounded on the N. by Addison, E. by r, and S. by Bennington counties; and W. State of New York. It is 37 miles long broad; and is divided into 25 townships. , it contained 15,565 free citizens, but not e. It has many lakes, the chief of which s Bombazon and St Austin. It has also mountains, some of which abound with iron ore; for manufacturing of which 3 furnaces, 14 forges, and a slitting mill have been erected. In a mountain a few miles from Otter Creek, in Clarendon township, there is a remarkable natural cave, discovered in 1782. The entrance into it is about the wideness of a hogshead through a rock of marble. After descending 31½ feet, in an angle of 20° with the horizon, it opens into a spacious room, 29½ feet long, by 12½ broad, and 18 high; at the farthest end is a narrow passage leading into another room of an elliptical form, 20 feet long by 14 broad. This cave abounded with stalactites, but they have been mostly broken and carried off by visitors.

(4.) RUTLAND, a post town, capital of the above county, seated on Otter Creek, 55 miles above its influx into lake Champlain. It contains a court-house, and a congregational church; and had 1407 citizens in 1795. It is alternately with Windsor the seat of government. A supreme court is held in it on the 2d Tuesday in August, and a county court the 3d Monday in March and Nov. It is 45 miles W. by N. of Windsor, 57 N. of Bennington, and 355 NNE. of Philadelphia. Lon. 2. 12. E. of that city. Lat. 43. 33. N.

(5.) RUTLAND, a township of Massachusetts, in Worcester county. It contained 1072 citizens, in 1795.

(6.) RUTLAND, or RUTLANDSHIRE, the smallest county in England, being only 40 miles in circumference; in which are 48 parishes, and 3266 houses. The climate is good, and the soil fertile, affording plenty of corn, and feeding a great number of horned cattle and sheep. It is well watered with brooks and rivulets; the chief rivers are the Weland and the Wash. It is bounded on the E. by Lincolnshire; on the S. by the river Weland, which parts it from Northamptonshire; and on the W. and N. by Leicestershire. It has two market-towns; namely, Okeham, where the assizes and sessions are held, and Uppingham. The population of Rutlandshire, by the return made to Parliament, in June 1801, was 7,950 males, and 8,350 females, in all 16,300.

* RUTTIER. *n. s.* [*routier*, Fr.] A direction of the road or course at sea.

* RUTTISH. *adj.* [from *rut*.] Wanton; libidinous; salacious; lustful; lecherous.—That is an advertisement to one Diana, to take heed of the allurement of count Roufillon, a foolish idle boy; but for all that very *ruttish*. *Shakespeare*.

RUTTUNPOUR, a city of Indostan, in Orixa; the capital of one of the Western Mahratta chiefs. Lon. 82. 36. E. Lat. 22. 16. N.

RUTUBA, in ancient geography, two rivers of Italy: 1. in Liguria, rising in the Apennine Mountains and running into the Mediterranean: 2. in Latium, falling into the Tiber. *Lucan*, ii. v. 422.

RUTULI, an ancient people of Latium, over whom TURNUS reigned, where Æneas arrived in Italy. See ROME, § ii. Their capital was ARDEA. *Virg. Æn.* vii. *Plin.* iii. c. 5.

RUTUPÆ, RUTUPIUM, or RUTUPENSIS PORTUS, in ancient British geography, a sea port town of Cantium, on the S. coast of Britain, abounding in oysters. *Lucan*, vi v. 67. *Juv.* iv. 41. Some suppose it to be DOVER; others RICHBOROUGH, or SANDWICH. See CANTIUM.

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RUVO, a populous town of Naples, in Bari, with a bishop's see, 16 miles W. of Bari, anciently called RUBI. Lon. 16. 44. E. Lat. 41. 26. N.

RUWADDE, an ancient town and fort of Turkey, now in ruins; originally called *Arvad*. See ARVAD.

(1.) RUYSCH, Frederic, a most eminent Dutch anatomist, born at the Hague in 1638. After making great progress at home, he repaired to Leyden, and there prosecuted the study of anatomy and botany. He studied next at Franeker, where he became M. D. He then returned to the Hague; and marrying in 1661, dedicated his whole time to his profession. In 1665 he published a treatise, entitled *Dilucidatio valvularum de vasis lymphaticis et lacteis*; which raised his reputation so high, that he was chosen professor of anatomy at Amsterdam. After this he was perpetually engaged in dissecting the various parts of the human body. He improved the science of anatomy by new discoveries; and found out a method to preserve dead bodies many years from putrefaction. His anatomical collection was valuable. He had a series of fœtuses of all sizes, from the length of the little finger to that of a new born infant. He had also bodies of full grown persons of all ages, and a vast number of animals almost of every species on the globe, besides many other natural curiosities. Peter the Great of Russia, in his tour through Holland in 1698, visited Ruysch, passed whole days with him; and when he returned to Holland in 1717, purchased his cabinet of curiosities for 30,000 florins, and sent it to Petersburgh. In 1685 he was made professor of medicine. In 1728 he got his thigh-bone broken by a fall in his chamber. Ruysch, though he lived to 93, did not labour under any infirmities above a month. He retained his vigour of mind and body, till 1731, when he died on the 22d Feb. His anatomical works are printed in 4 vols 4to. The style of his writings is simple and concise, but sometimes inaccurate. The academy of sciences at Paris in 1727 elected him a member. He was also F. R. S. of London.

(2.) RUYSCH, Henry, the son of the above, was a youth of great talents, and well skilled in anatomy and botany. He had been created M. D. and assisted his father in his discoveries and publications. He died in 1727.

(3.) RUYSCH, madam, a learned lady, daughter of Frederick, and sister of Henry. She had been early inspired with a passion for anatomy, the favourite science of her father and brother, and had studied it with success. She was therefore well qualified to assist her father in forming a second collection of curiosities in natural history and anatomy, which he began to make after the emperor of Russia had purchased the first.

(1.) RUYSDAAL, or } Jacob, a eminent Dutch
(1.) RUYSDALL, } landscape painter, born at Haerlem, in 1636. His paintings at 12 years of age, astonished many good painters. He painted waters with inimitable truth and transparency. He died in 1681.

(2.) RUYSDALL, Solomon, elder brother of Jacob, was also a good landscape painter. He was born in 1616, and died in 1670.

RUYTER, Michael Adrian, a distinguished Dutch naval officer, born at Flushing, in Zeal in 1607. He entered on a sea faring life wh was only 11 years old, and was first a cabin b While he advanced successively to the ran mate, master, and captain, he acquitted him with ability and honour. He repulsed the E who attempted to take Dublin out of the hands the English. He made 8 voyages to the Wes dies, and 10 to Brazil. He was then promoted the rank of rear admiral, and sent to assist the P tuguese against the Spaniards. When the en came in sight, he gave such proofs of va drew from the Portuguese monarch the wa applause. His gallantry was still more conspi ous before Salee, in Barbary. With one inferi sel he sailed through the roads of that place in fiance of 5 Algerine Corsairs. In 1653 a squa of 70 vessels was sent against the English u Adm. Van Tromp. Ruyter, who accompa the admiral in this expedition, seconded him great skill and bravery in the three battles t the English so gloriously won. He was after stationed in the Mediterranean, where he several Turkish vessels. In 1659 he rece commission to join the king of Denmark a with the Swedes; wherein he raised his hon er than ever. The king of Denmark co him and gave him a pension. In 1661 he shore a vessel belonging to Tunis, rescu Christian slaves, made a treaty with the T and reduced the Algerine corsairs to ob His country raised him to the rank of rear and commander in chief. He obtained th victory over the combined fleets of Fran Spain, in 1672, about the time of the cros Holland. Ruyter having thus made himself ter of the sea, conducted a fleet of merchan into the Texel; thus defending and cover country, while it was the prey of hostile ar In 1673, he had three engagements with th of France and England, in which, his hon more distinguished than ever. But in an ment with the French fleet off the coast he lost the day, and received a mortal w which he died in a few days. His corpse ried to Amsterdam, and a magnificent m was there erected by the command of the general.

RUZA, a town of Russia, in Moscow, 18 WNW. of Moscow. Lon. 36. 2. E. Lat.

RYACOTTA, a strong town of Lo Mysore, 75 miles S. of Seringapatam, a WSW. of Arcot. It was taken by the B July 1791, though well furnished with ar ammunition and provisions. Lon. 76. 4. E 30. 15. N.

RYADER, a river of N. Wales, in co ties of Denbigh and Montgomery.

(1.) RYAN, Lacy, an English dramatic and actor, born at Westminster, in 1694. H ther, Daniel Ryan, a tailor, had him educ St Paul's for the law; but his taste for the prevailing, Sir Richard Steele introduced h the Hay-market Company in 1710, and h into fame by acting the part of Marcus in then in its high run, in 1712. From this he rose rapidly in the public favour, and many important characters both in tragedy co

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medy, though from a defect in voice, he was ver ranked as a firſt rate performer. This de- was owing to a blow on the noſe in an acci- tal fray with ſome watermen; and was ren- ed worſe, by a wound in the mouth ſome rs after, by a piſtol ſhot from ruffians in the et: notwithſtanding which, he continued on ſtage till the laſt, and was a favourite with ay on account of his reſpectable private cha- er. An intimate and inviolable friendſhip ſub- d between him and the celebrated QUIN. He te *The Cobler's Opera*, a dramatic piece of one 1729, 8vo. He died at Bath, Auguſt 15, .

.) RYAN, Loch, a conſiderable bay of Scot- l, on the NW. coaſt of Wigtonſhire, which nds in a SE. direction from the Atlantic; ning, by its approximation to the Bay of e, the peninſula called the *Rhyns of Galloway*. : RHYNS.) It is 10 miles long, and two broad, 3 miles from its entrance, after which it ads into a circular form, about 4 miles broad. fords good anchorage, at CAIRN, PORTMORE, G, STRANRAER, &c.

.) RYCKHAERT, David, an eminent painter a at Antwerp, in 1615. He excelled in con- mon pieces and rural ſcenery.

.) RYCKHAERT, Martin, an eminent land- pe painter, born at Antwerp, in 1591. He s much eſteemed by Vandyck, and died in .

.) RYDAL, a fertile valley of Yorkſhire, be- en Hovingham, Helmſley, and Kirby More- . The RYE runs through it.

.) RYDAL WATER, a lake of Weſtmoreland, le W. of Ambleſide; about one mile long. as many ſmall iſlands; and communicates, by row channel, with Graſſmere Water on the and by the Rothay, with WINDERMERE lake he S. Rydal-Hall ſtands on an eminence near lake.

YDER, Thomas, a late celebrated actor on Iriſh ſtage, but a native of England; eſteem- he ROSCIUS of Dublin. He was bred a prin- m which profeſſion, he caught, by reading, elegant taſte, which afterwards gained him public approbation at every theatre on which appeared. He became manager of Dublin tre, and his ſucceſs was ſo great at firſt, that the additional good fortune of a large prize he lottery, he was led into extravagance; ly, however, through the vanity of his wife, ſoon diſſipated his ſuddenly acquired for- ; and rendered him dependent for life. His ate character, however, was as reſpectable as dramatic merits were great. More verſatility mius ſeldom falls to the lot of any man. He d ſuſtain with credit every character, whether agedy or comedy. He died at Sandy Mount, eland, Nov. 26th, 1791. His daughters are performing in Dublin.

YDROOG, a town and fortreſs of Hindooſ- in the Myſore, 128 miles N. of Seringapa- . Lon. 76. 52. E. Lat. 14. 40. N.

.) * RYE. *n. ſ.* [*ryge*, Saxon.] 1. A coarſe of bread corn.—

Between the acres of the *rye*,
Theſe pretty country folks would lye. *Shak.*

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—*Rye* is more acrid, laxative, and leſs nouriſhing than wheat. *Arbuthnot.* 2. A diſeaſe in a hawk. *Ainſworth.*

(2.) RYE, in botany. See SECALE.

(3.) RYE, in geography, a town in Suſſex, with markets on Wed. and Sat. It is one of the cinque-ports; is a handſome well built place, governed by a mayor and jurats, and ſends two members to parliament. It has a church built with ſtone, and a town hall; and conſiſts of 3 ſtreets, paved with ſtone. One ſide of the town has been walled in, and the other is guarded by the ſea. It has two gates, and is a place of great naval trade. From thence large quantities of corn are exported, and many of the inhabitants are fiſhermen. It is 34 miles SE. by S. of Tunbridge, and 64 on the ſame point from London. The mouth of the harbour is of late choaked up with ſand; but if well opened, it would be a good ſtation for privateers that cruize againſt the French. Lon. 0. 50. E. Lat. 51. 0. N.

(4.) RYE, a town of Hertfordſhire, near Hodſon.

(5.) RYE, a townſhip of New Hampſhire, on the coaſt of Rockingham county, containing 865 citizens, in 1795.

(6.) RYE, a townſhip of New York, in W. Cheſter County, on Long Iſland Sound; containing 863 citizens, 154 electors, and 123 ſlaves, in 1795.

(7.) RYE, WILD, is a ſpecies of HORDEUM.

RYEGATE, a borough of England, in Surry, with a market on Thurſday, ſeated in the valley of Holmſdale. It ſends two members to the imperial parliament. It had a caſtle, the ruins of which are ſtill to be ſeen; particularly a long vault, with a room at one end, large enough to hold 500 perſons, where tradition ſays, the Barons held their private meetings in the reign of K. John, before they took up arms againſt him. It is ſeated in the valley of Holmſdale, 16 miles E. of Guildford, and 21 SW. of London. Lon. 0. 15. W. Lat. 51. 16. N.

(1.) * RYEGRASS. *n. ſ.* A kind of ſtrong graſs.—Some ſow *ryegraſs* with the corn at Michaelmas. *Mortimer.*

(2.) RYEGRASS. See HORDEUM, and RURAL ECONOMY, *Part* II. *Sect.* IV.

RYER, Peter Du, a French dramatic writer, born at Paris, in 1605. He was ſecretary to the king, but falling into poverty, was obliged to ſell his place. He afterwards became ſecretary to the Duke of Vendome. He wrote for the booksellers, and his works procured him a place in the French Academy in 1646. He was afterwards made hiſtoriographer for France. He wrote 19 dramatic pieces, and 13 tranſlations. He died in 1658.

RYMENAUT, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Dyle, and ci devant province of Auſtrian Brabant; ſeated on the Dyle, 5 miles E. of Mechlin.

(1.) RYMER, Thomas, Eſq. the author of the *Fœdera*, was born in the north of England, and educated at the grammar ſchool of Northallerton. He was admitted a ſcholar at Cambridge, then became a member of Gray's Inn, and at length was appointed hiſtoriographer to King William. He wrote *A View of the Tragedies of the laſt*

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Hen. and afterwards published a tragedy named *Edgar*. As a critic, he wanted candour; nor is his judgment to be relied on, who could condemn Shakspeare. But as an antiquarian and historian, he has merit. His *Fœdera*, which is a collection of all the public transactions, treaties, &c. of the kings of England with foreign princes, is esteemed one of our most authentic and valuable records, and is often referred to by the best English historians. It was published at London in 1704, in 3 vols folio. Three were added by Sir Thomas Robert's death. The whole were reprinted at the Hague in 10 vols in 1739. They were abridged by Rapin in French, and inserted in his *Hist. d'Angleterre*, and a translation made by Mr. Kennet, 2 vols folio, and printed in 4 vols 8vo, 1731. Rymer died 14th Dec. 1713. Some specimens of his poetry are preserved in *Nichol's Select Collection*, 1780, vol. 1.

(2.) RYMER, Thomas the. See LERMONTH; RYMER No 1. and THOMAS.

RYNCHOPS, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of anseres. The bill is bright; and the superior mandible much shorter than the inferior, which is inflected at the point. The species are two, viz.

1. RYNCHOPS FULVA, and } both native of A-
2. RYNCHOPS NIGRA, } merica.

RYND, Gaelic for a point, a part of Perthshire, the Tay on the west, and a little below the Earn, forms the point of land between the Tay and the Earn; whence the name. It extends 4 miles W. above the Tay, and is about a mile broad, and 4 miles from Perth. The surface is mostly flat: the soil a rich loam or clay, very fertile; producing good crops of wheat, oats, barley, beans, clover, and rye-grass. The air is moist, but healthy. The population, in 1791, was 435; the decrease 3, since 1755. There are to be seen ancient monastery at Orchardcook, 1 mile W. of Elcho, near the Tay; said to have been founded by David Lindsay, ancestor of the Earls of Crawford.

RYNS, or RINNS OF GALLOWAY. See RHINS.

RYOTS, in the policy of Hindostan, the modern name by which the renters of land are distinguished. They hold their possessions by a lease, which may be considered as perpetual, and at a rate fixed by ancient surveys and valuations. This arrangement has been so long established, and accords so well with the ideas of the natives, concerning the distinction of casts, and the functions allotted to each, that it has been invariably maintained in all the provinces subject either to Mahometans or Europeans; and to both it serves as the basis on which their whole system of finance is founded. Respecting the precise mode, however, in which the ryots of Hindostan hold their possessions, there is much diversity of opinion; the chief of which are very impartially delineated in note iv. to the Appendix of Robertson's Historical Disquisition, &c. concerning India, p. 345. to which we refer such of our readers as are interested in this subject of finance.

RYPHÆI MONTES. See RIPHEAN and URALIAN.

RYSBRAECK, Peter, an eminent history painter, born at Antwerp, in 1657. He excelled exceedingly, and with great spirit.

RYSCHIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking with those that are doubtful. The calyx is quinquefidous; the corolla is pentapetalous; and the petals turned back, about three times the length of the calyx; the filaments are five, awl-shaped, and shorter than the petals. The seed vessel is an orbicular, and contains many seeds. Of this genus are two species, viz.

1. RYSCHIA CLAUSIFOLIA; and
2. RYSCHIA SQUAROSSA.

RYSWICK, a large village of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Delft, seated between the Hague and Delft, where the prince of Orange had a palace. It is a very noble structure, all of hewn stone, and of great extent in front. It is adorned with a marble stair-case, marble terrace, and a magnificent terrace. There is a good prospect of it from the canal between Delft and the Hague. This place is remarkable for a treaty concluded here in 1697 between England, Germany, Holland, France, and Spain. Lon. 4. 20. E. Lat. 52. 5. N.

(1—3.) RYTON, 3 small towns of England. 1. in Durham, near Newcastle; 2. in Northamptonshire, near Mansfield; 3. in Shropshire, W. of Tongueatre.

(4.) RYTON, GREAT, } two towns in Somer-
(5.) RYTON, LITTLE, } shire, W. of the Burnel.

(6.) RYTON OF THE ELEVEN, between Salisbury and Oswestry; so called from 11 parish churches in its view.

(1.) RYVES, Bruno, an English divine, a relation of Sir Thomas, (No 3.) who flourished in the 17th century. On the restoration, he was made dean of Windsor, and secretary to the Order of the Garter. He wrote *Mercurius Rusticus*, or *Country's Complaint*, and several other works, and died in 1677.

(2.) RYVES, Eliza, a learned lady, born in Ireland, of a respectable family. Having lost her fortune by a law suit, she had recourse to the pen, and compiled some part of the *Annual Register*. She also wrote a novel, entitled *Female Hermit of Snowdon*: and translated some works from the French. She died in 1797.

(3.) RYVES, Sir Thomas, an English lawyer, born about 1590, and educated at Winchester school, and the university of Oxford. He became a celebrated civilian in Doctor's Commons, and the Court of Admiralty. On the accession of Charles I. he was made king's advocate, and knighted. He wrote, 1. *The Vicar's Plea*: 2. *Historia Navalis Antiqua*; 3. *Historia Navalis Modica*. He died in 1651.

RZECZICA, a town of Lithuania, capital of a territory so named; seated at the conflux of the Wyedfzwick and Dnieper; 18 miles N. of Kiow. Lon. 31. 5. E. Lat. 50. 28. N.

(1.) RZEVA, a province of Russia.

(2.) RZEVA, the capital of the above province.

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ated on the Volga, near its ſource. Lon. 35. E. Lat. 56. 11. N.

3.) RZEVA, THE DESERT, another town in the above province, in a deſert ſituation. Lon. 29. 35. E. Lat. 56. 20. N.

S

SAB

* S, has in Engliſh the ſame hiſſing ſound as in other languages, and unhappily rails in ſo many of our words that it produces the ear of a foreigner a continued ſibilation. In beginning of words it has invariably its natu- and genuine ſound: in the middle it is ſome- es uttered with a ſtronger appulſe of the tongue he palate, like, z, as *roſe, reſcate, roſy, oſier, l, reſident, buſy, buſineſs.* It ſometimes keeps natural ſound; as *ſco e, deſignation;* for which now not whether any rules can be given. In end of monoſyllables it is ſometimes *s*, as in ; and ſometimes z, as in *as, has;* and gene- y where *es* ſtands in verbs for *eth*, as *gives.* It ms to be eſtabliſhed as a rule, that no noun gular ſhould end with *ſ* ſingle: therefore in rds written with diphthongs, and naturally g, an *e* is nevertheleſs added at the end, as *e, houſe;* and where the ſyllable is ſhort, the s doubled, and was once *ſſe*, as *aſs*, anciently *; wilderneſs*, anciently *wilderneſſe; diſtreſs*, ciently *diſtreſſe.*

(2.) S is uſed, 1. As a letter: 2. as an abbrevi- on: and, 3. it was anciently uſed as a numeral. As a LETTER, S, ſ, or s, is the 18th in our al- abet, and the 14th conſonant. The ſound is med by driving the breath through a narrow ſage between the palate and the tongue elee- ed near it, together with a motion of the low- jaw and teeth towards the upper, the lips be- a little way open; with ſuch a configuration very part of the mouth and larynx, as renders voice ſomewhat ſibilous and hiſſing. Its ſound, wever, varies; being ſtrong in ſome words, as *, thus*, &c. and ſoft in words which have a al *e*, as *muſe, wiſe*, &c. It is generally doub- l at the end of words, whereby they become d and harſh, as in *kiſs, loſs*, &c. In ſome ords it is ſilent, as *iſle, iſland, viſcount*, &c. In iting or printing, the long character *ſ* is gene- ly uſed at the beginning and middle of words, t the ſhort *s* at the end. Some modern prin- rs have lately affected to throw out the long *ſ* together. II. As an ABBREVIATION, S ſtands r *ſocietas* or *ſocius;* as, R. S. S. for *regiæ ſocie- tis ſocius*, or F. R. S. *Frater regiæ ſocietatis*, i. e. llow of the royal ſociety. In medicinal pre- riptions, S. ſignifies *ſemis*, i. e. the half of the eight or meaſure before mentioned, and S. A. nifies *ſecundum artem*, i. e. according to the les of art: And in the notes of the ancients, S nds for *Sextus;* SP. for *Spurius;* S. C. for *ſe- tus conſultum;* S. P. Q. R. for *ſenatus populuſque omanus;* S. S. S. for *ſtratum ſuper ſtratum*, i. e. e layer above another alternately; S. V. B. E. Q. V. for *ſi vales bene eſt, ego quoque valeo*, a rm uſed in Cicero's time, in the beginning of tters. In the Italian muſic, S ſignifies *ſolo:* nd in books of navigation, S. ſtands for ſouth; S. E. for ſouth-eaſt; S. W. for ſouth-weſt; S. S. E. for ſouth ſouth-eaſt; S. S. W. for ſouth ſouth- weſt, &c. III. As a NUMERAL, S was anciently uſed for *Seven.*

SAABA, a kingdom of Africa, in Negroland; with its capital of the ſame name, W. of Tom- buctoo, on the Senegal.

SAADAH, a ſtrong and populous town of Arabia Felix, famous for making Turkey lea- ther; 140 miles WNW. of Sanaa, and 180 NE. of Almacharana. Lon. 44. 55. E. Lat. 17. 50. N.

SAADIH, a Perſian poet, who publiſhed *Gu- liſtan, or the Flower Garden*, in 1258; and after- wards, *Buſtan, or the Fruit Garden.* He lived to the age of 116.

SAAL, or SALFELD. See SALFELD.

SAALE, a river of Bavaria, in Salzburg.

(1.) SAAMI, a river of Africa, in Negroland, which runs into the Gambia.

(2.) SAAMI, a town of Negroland, 12 miles a- bove the mouth of the Saami.

SAAR. See SARRE.

SAARBRUCK. See SARBRUCK.

SAARBURG. See SARBURG.

SAAR-LOUIS. See SAR-LOUIS.

SAATZ, or ZATEC, a town of Bohemia, capi- tal of a circle ſo named; ſeated on the Eger, 25 miles SW. of Leitmentz, and 44 S. of Dreſden. Lon. 4. 15. E. Lat. 50. 16. N.

SAAVEDRA, Michael DE. See CERVANTES.

SAB, or } in ancient geography, a town of

(1.) SABA, } Arabia Felix, famous for myrrh, frank-incenſe, and aromatic plants. *Diod.* 3. *Stra- bo*, 16. It is now called ZIBET.

(2.) SABA, a Dutch iſland, one of the CARIB- BEE Iſlands. It is a ſteep rock, on the ſummit of which is a little ground, very proper for garden- ing. Frequent rains, which do not lie any time on the ſoil, give growth to plants of an exquiſite flavour, and cabbages of an extraordinary ſize: 50 European families, with about 150 ſlaves, here raiſe cotton, ſpin it, make ſtockings of it, and ſell them to other colonies for ten crowns, or 25s. ſterling, a pair. They alſo make ſhoes. It is 12 miles in circumference, and lies 13 NW. of St Euſtatia, and 2 W. of St Chriſtopher's. Lon. 63. 12. W. Lat. 17. 39. N.

(3.) SABA, a town of Perſia, in Irac Agemi, on the road from Sultania to Kom. Lon. 52. 15. E. Lat. 34. 56. N.

(4.) SABA, LITTLE, one of the VIRGIN ISLANDS, ſituated on the S. of St Thomas; belong- ing to Denmark.

SABACHUS, or } an ancient king of Ethiopia,

SABACON, } who invaded Egypt, and reigned in it, after the expulſion of Amaſis. (*Hero- dot.* ii. c. 137.) By ſome he is called *Aſarſanes*; (See EGYPT, § 9.) By others, So.

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SABADIBÆ, 3 islands of the Anthropophagi, in the Indian Sea.

SABÆANS. } See SABIANS.
SABÆI. }

SABAKSAR, a town of the Russian empire, in the kingdom of Cazan, S. of the Volga, and the isle of Mokritz.

SABANDGE, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, in which all the roads from Asia to Constantinople meet. It is seated on a lake, abounding with fish, 60 miles ESE. of Constantinople. Lon. 29. 40. E. Lat. 40. 30. N.

* SABAOTH. *n. s.* [Hebrew.] Signifying *an army.*—Holy Lord God of *sabaoth*; that is, *Lord of hosts. Common Prayer.*

SABAS, the founder of the sect of the MESSALIANS, who adhered strictly to the letter of Scripture. He flourished about A. D. 310.

SABATA, in ancient geography; 1. a town of Assyria; 2. a town of Italy, in Liguria; supposed to be the modern SAVONA. *Strabo*, iv. *Sil. Ital.* viii. 461.

SABATHA, an ancient town of Arabia, now called SANAS.

SABATHIANS, a sect of Christian heretics, so named from SABATHIUS, a Jew, and afterwards a heretical bishop in the 4th century.

SABATHRA, an ancient town of Syria. *Sil. Ital.* iii. 256.

SABATINI, an ancient people of Italy, in Samnium, who resided on the banks of the SABATUS. *Liv.* 26. c. 33.

SABATUS, a river of ancient Italy, in Samnium, running into the Volturnus. *Livy*, 26.

SABATZ, a town and fort of European Turkey, in Servia. It was taken by the imperialists in 1789. It is seated on the Drave, 22 miles S. of Peterwaradin, and 28 W. of Belgrade. Lon. 20. 3. E. Lat. 45. 5. N.

SABAUDIA, the ancient name of SAVOY.

SABAZIA, in Greek antiquity, were nocturnal mysteries in honour of Jupiter Sabazius. All the initiated had a golden serpent put in at their breasts, and taken out at the lower part of their garments, in memory of Jupiter's ravishing Proserpina in the form of a serpent. There were also other feasts and sacrifices distinguished by this appellation, in honour of Mithras, the deity of the Persians, and of Bacchus, who was thus denominated by the Sabians, a people of Thrace.

SABAZIUS, a surname of Jupiter, and of Bacchus. See the last article.

(1.) * SABBATARIAN. *n. s.* [from *sabbath.*] One who observes the Sabbath with unreasonable rigour; one who observes the seventh day of the week in opposition to the first.

(2.) SABBATARIANS, OR SEVENTH DAY BAPTISTS, a sect of anabaptists, thus called, because they observed the Jewish Sabbath, from a persuasion that it was never abrogated in the New Testament by the institution of any other.

(1.) * SABBATH. *n. s.* [An Hebrew word signifying *rest*; *sabbat*, Fr. *sabbatum*, Lat.] 1. A day appointed by God among the Jews, and from them established among Christians for publick worship; the seventh day set apart from works of labour to be employed in piety.—

By our holy *sabbath* have I sworn,
To have the due and forfeit of my bond. *Shak.*
Glad we return'd up to the coasts of light,
Ere *sabbath* ev'ning. *Milton.*
Here ev'ry day was *sabbath*: only free
From hours of pray'r, for hours of charity;
Such *sabbaths* as that one she now enjoys. *Dryden.*

2. Intermission of pain or sorrow; time of rest.
Never any *sabbath* of release
Could free his travels. *Daniel.*
Nor can his blessed soul look down from heav'n,
Or break the eternal *sabbath* of his rest. *Dryden.*
Peaceful sleep out the *sabbath* of the tomb,
And wake to raptures in a life to come. *Pope.*

(2.) SABBATH, שבת, *Heb.* i. e. *rest.* The 7th day was so denominated, because in it God had rested from his works of creation. From that time the *seventh* day was set apart for religious services, and, by a particular injunction, was afterwards observed by the Hebrews as a holy day. They were commanded to set it apart for sacred purposes in honour of the creation, and likewise as a memorial of their own redemption from Egyptian bondage.

(3.) SABBATH, IMPORTANCE, EARLY CEREMONIES, AND TIME OF THE INSTITUTION OF THE. The importance of the institution may be gathered from the different laws respecting it. When the ten commandments were published from Mount Sinai in tremendous pomp, the law of the Sabbath held a place in what is commonly called the first table, and by subsequent statutes the violation of it was punished with death. Six days were allowed for the service of man; but the 7th God reserved to himself, and appointed it to be observed as a stated time for holy offices, and the duties of piety and devotion. On this day the ministers of the temple entered upon their week; and those who had attended on the temple service the preceding week went out at the same time. New loaves of shew-bread were placed upon the pure table, and the old ones taken away. Two lambs for a burnt-offering, with a certain proportion of fine flour, mingled with oil, for a bread-offering, and wine for a libation, were offered. The Sabbath, as all other festivals, was celebrated from evening to evening. It began at six in the evening on Friday, and ended at the same time the next day. Concerning the time at which the Sabbath was first instituted, different opinions have been held. Some have maintained, that the sanctification of the seventh day, mentioned in Gen. ii. 3, is only there spoken of δια προλεψιν or by anticipation, and is to be understood of the Sabbath afterwards enjoined the children of Israel. But it cannot be supposed that the inspired penman would have mentioned the sanctification of the seventh day amongst the primeval transactions, if such sanctification had not taken place until 2500 years afterwards. Moses appears to have despised all the fine-spun refinements of composition, and to have constructed his narrative in great conformity to the series of events.

(4.) SABBATH, OBSERVANCE OF THE, AMONG THE PATRIARCHS. From the accounts we have

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he religious ſervice practiſed in the patriarchal , it appears that, immediately after the fall, :n Adam was reſtored to favour through a Me- or, a ſtated form of public worſhip was inſti- :d, which man was required to obſerve in teſti- :y, not only of his dependence on the Creator, alſo of his *faith* and *hope* in the promiſe made ur firſt parents, and ſeen afar of. Of an inſti- on then ſo grand and important, no circum- ce would be omitted neceſſary to preſerve it, render the obſervance of it regular and ſo- n. That determined times are neceſſary for the celebration of divine ſervice, cannot be denied. is the conſtitution of man, that he muſt have icular times ſet apart for particular ſervices. s doomed to toil and labour; to earn his bread e ſweat of his brow; and is capable of per- ing religious duties only in ſuch a manner as onſiſtent with his ſituation in the world. If d times for religious ſolemnities had not been ined, ſuch ſolemnities would have been alto- er neglected. It is the obſervation of holy s that preſerves the practice of holy ſervices; without the frequent and regular returns of hal- d days, man would quickly forget the duty wes to God, and in a ſhort time no veſtige of ion would be found in the world. Among ordinances which God vouchſafed his ancient ple, we find that the pious obſervation of holy was particularly inſiſted upon; and the Sab- was enjoined to be kept holy, in the moſt ſo- manner, and under the ſevereſt penalties. it then be ſuppoſed that He would ſuffer kind, from the creation of the world to the ic era, to remain without an inſtitution ſo ient in itſelf? No; we have every reaſon to ude, that when religious ſervices were enjoin- eligious times were appointed alſo; for the eceſſarily implies the other. It is no objection early inſtitution of the Sabbath, that it is not oned in the hiſtory of the patriarchal age. It d have ſwelled the Bible to a moſt enormous had the ſacred hiſtorian given a particular nt of all the tranſactions of thoſe times. n Moſes wrote the book of Geneſis, it was eſſary to relate minutely tranſactions and in- ions already well known by tradition: ac- ngly we ſee, that his narrative is everywhere conciſe, and calculated only to preſerve the ry of the moſt important facts. However, take a view of the church-ſervice of the pa- hal age, we ſhall find that what is called the diſpenſation, at leaſt the liturgic part of it, o new ſyſtem. The Scriptures inform us ain and Abel offered ſacrifices; and the ac- given of the acceptance of the one, and ection of the other, ſhows that ſtated laws ting the ſervice had then taken place. "In s of time," *at the end of the days*, "Abel ht an offering." Here was *prieſt*, *altar*, *mat- ſacrifice*, *appointed time*, *motive to ſacrifice*, *ent made*, and *accepted*. The diſtinction of ls into clean and unclean before the flood, oah's ſacrifice immediately after his deliver- without any new direction, is an unanſwer- roof of the ſame truth. It is teſtified of A- n, by God himſelf, that he kept his *charge*, *mmandments*, his *ſtatutes*, and his *laws*. Theſe expreſſions comprehend the various branches, into which the law given at Sinai was divided. They contain the moral precepts, the matter of religious ſervice, a body of laws to direct obedience, and to which man was to conform his conduct in every part of duty. Agreeably to this, we find that ſacrifices were offered, altars and places of worſhip conſecrated, and the *Sabbath* alſo mentioned as a well known ſolemnity, before the promulgation of the law. It is expreſsly taken notice of at the fall of manna; and the incidental manner in which it is then mentioned, is a convincing proof that the Iſraelites were no ſtrangers to the inſtitution: for had it been a *new* one, it muſt have been enjoined in a poſitive and particular manner, and the nature of it muſt have been laid open and explained, otherwiſe the term would have conveyed no meaning.

(5.) SABBATH, PROOFS OF THE UNIVERSALITY OF THE INSTITUTION OF THE. The diviſion of time into WEEKS, or periods of ſeven days, which obtained ſo early and almoſt univerſally, is a ſtrong indication that *one* day in ſeven was always diſtinguiſhed in a particular manner. *Week*, and *ſeven days*, are in ſcripture language ſynonymous terms. God commanded Noah, *ſeven days* before he entered the ark, to introduce into it all ſorts of living creatures. When the waters of the flood began to abate, Noah ſent forth a dove, which, finding no reſt for the ſole of her foot, returned to him. After *ſeven days* he ſent forth the dove a ſecond time, again ſhe returned to the ark. At the expiration of other *ſeven days* he let go the dove a 3d time: and a *week* is ſpoken of (Gen. xxix.) as a well known ſpace of time. This ſeptenary diviſion of time has been, from the earlieſt ages, uniformly obſerved over all the eaſtern world. The Iſraelites, Aſſyrians, Egyptians, Indians, Arabians, and Perſians, have always made uſe of a week, conſiſting of 7 days. Many vain attempts have been made to account for this uniformity; but a practice ſo general and prevalent could never have taken place, had not the ſeptenary diſtribution of time been inſtituted from the beginning, and handed down by tradition. From the ſame ſource alſo muſt the ancient heathens have derived their notions of the ſacredneſs of the ſeventh day. That they had ſuch notions of it is evident from ſeveral paſſages of the Greek poets quoted by Ariſtobulus, a learned Jew, by Clement of Alexandria, and Euſebius.

——— ἑβδομη, ἱερον ἡμαρ. Heſiod.

The ſeventh, the *ſacred* day.

Ἑβδοματη δ' ἠελιος ἀναγλαθη, ἱερον ἡμαρ. Homer.

Afterwards came the ſeventh, the *ſacred* day.

That they likewiſe held the number *ſeven* in high eſtimation has been ſhown by a learned, though ſometimes fanciful, author, with ſuch evidence as to enforce conviction. The Pythagoreans call it the *venerable* number, σεβασμιον ἀριθμον, *worthy of veneration*, and held it to be *perfect* and *moſt proper* to religion. *Seven*, in the Hebrew language, is expreſſed by a word that primarily ſignifies *fulneſs*, *completion*, *ſufficiency*, and is applied to a *week*, or *ſeven days*, becauſe that was the *full* time employed in the work of creation; to the *Sabbath*, becauſe on it all things were *completed*; and to an *oath*, becauſe it is *ſufficient* to put an end to all ſtrife,

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ſtrife. This opening of the Hebrew root will enable us to come at the meaning of thoſe expreſſions of the heathens, and alſo let us ſee whence they derived their ideas and modes of ſpeaking, and that the knowledge of the tranſactions at the creation, though much perverted, was never entirely loſt by them. It has been ſuppoſed by ſome, that the heathens borrowed the notion of the *ſacredneſs* of the ſeventh day from the Jews. But this opinion will not readily be admitted, when it is conſidered, that the Jews were held in the greateſt contempt by the ſurrounding nations, who derided them no leſs for their ſabbaths than for their circumciſion. Seneca, Tacitus, Juvenal, Perſius, &c. ridiculed them on this account. This diviſion of time, therefore, can be accounted for only by admitting the primeval inſtitution of the Sabbath, as related by Moſes in the book of Geneſis. That inſtitution was abſolutely neceſſary to preſerve among men a ſenſe of religion; and it was renewed to the Jews at the giving of the law, and its obſervance enforced by the ſevereſt penalties. It was accordingly obſerved by them with more or leſs ſtrictneſs in every period of their commonwealth, and kingdom.

(6.) SABBATH, RESPECT PAID TO THE, BY THE MODERN JEWS. There is none of the inſtitutions of their divine law-giver which, in their preſent ſtate of diſperſion, they more highly honour. They regard it, indeed, with a ſuperſtitious reverence. They have often varied in their opinions of the manner in which it ought to be kept. In the time of the Maccabees, they carried their reſpect for the ſabbath to very high, that they would not on that day defend themſelves from the attacks of their enemies. But afterward they did not ſcruple to ſtand upon their neceſſary defence, although they would do nothing to prevent the enemy from carrying on their operations. When our Saviour was on earth, it was no ſin to looſe a beaſt from the ſtall, and lead him to water; and if he had chanced to fall into a ditch, they pulled him out: but now it is abſolutely unlawful to give a creature in that ſituation any other aſſiſtance than that of food; and if they lead an animal to water, they muſt take care not to let the bridle or halter hang looſe, otherwiſe they are tranſgreſſors. As the law enjoins reſt on that day from all ſervile employments, to comply with that injunction, they undertake no kind of work on Friday but ſuch as can eaſily be accompliſhed before evening. In the afternoon they put into proper places the meat that they have prepared to eat the day following. They afterwards ſet out a table covered with a clean cloth, and place bread upon it, which they alſo cover with another cloth: and during the ſabbath the table is never moved out of its place. About an hour before ſunſet, the women light the ſabbath lamps, which hang in the places where they eat. They then ſtretch forth their hands to the light, and pronounce a ſhort benediction. Theſe lamps are two or more in number, according to the ſize of the chamber in which they are ſuſpended, and continue to burn during the greateſt part of the night. To begin the ſabbath well, they waſh their hands and face, trim their hair, and pare their nails, beginning at the 2d finger, then going to the 4th, 5th, 3d, and ending with the thumb. But the ceremonies that follow are ſo trifling, ſuperſtitious, and ridiculous, that we think it would be diſgracing a work of ſcience to take up room with them. On the morning of the ſabbath, the Jews do not riſe ſo early as they do at other times; thinking, the greateſt reſt they can get on that day, the more devoutly they keep it. When they come into the ſynagogue, they pray as uſual, only their devotions are ſomewhat longer, being interwingled with pſalmody, in honour of the ſabbath. The Pentateuch is then produced, and 7 ſections of it are read in order by ſeven perſons choſen for the purpoſe. Several paſſages are likewiſe read out of the prophets, which have ſome relation to what was read out of the law. After morning prayers they return to their houſes, and eat the 2d ſabbath meal, ſhewing every token of joy, in honour of the feſtival. But this joy is ſometimes diſturbed by ominous dreams, the night before. In that caſe, he faſts until very late in the day. In the afternoon they go again to the ſynagogue, and perform the evening ſervice, adding to the ordinary prayers ſome lections that reſpect the ſabbath. When the devotional duties are finiſhed, they return home, and light a candle reſembling a torch, and again ſit down to eat. They remain at table until near ſix, and then the maſter of the family takes a cup, and pouring wine into it recites ſome benedictions; after which he pours a little of the wine upon the ground, accompanying it with ſome other abſurd ſuperſtitions. With theſe the ſabbath is ended by the Jews, and they return again to their ordinary employments. Thoſe who meet then pay their compliments, by wiſhing one another a happy week. If a Jew on a journey is overtaken by the ſabbath in a wood, or on the highway, no matter where, nor under what circumſtances, within his own; he will not ſtir out of the place where he falls down in the dirt, he lies there; he muſt not riſe up. If he ſhould tumble into a pit, he would reſt there: he would not be taken out. This actually once happened to a Jew of Nuremberg, who refuſing to be taken out, on the ſabbath day, was conned there by the biſhop of the Chriſtian Sabbath, in conſequence of which he periſhed. If he ſees a flea ſkipping upon his cloaths, he muſt not catch it. If it bites him he muſt not remove it with his hand; he muſt not kill it. If a louſe meets with no ſuch indulgence, for it muſt be deſtroyed. He muſt not wipe his hands or face with a towel or cloth, but he may do it very well with a cow's tail. A freſh wound muſt not be bound up on the ſabbath-day; a plaiſter that has been formerly applied to a ſore may remain on it, but if it falls off, it muſt not be put on again. The lame may uſe a ſtaff, but the blind muſt not. Theſe particulars, and a great number more of the ſame nature, are obſerved by the Jews in the ſtricteſt manner. But if any wiſhes to know more of the practice of that devoted race, he may conſult Buxtorf's *Judaica Synagoga*, ch. x. xi. where he will find a complete detail of their ſuperſtitious ceremonies on the ſabbath; and likewiſe the primary prohibitions branched out into their reſpective circumſtances.

(7.) SABBATH, THE CHRISTIAN. As the ſeventh day was obſerved by the Jewiſh church in memory of the reſt of God after the works of the

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, and their own deliverance from Pharaoh's
inny; ſo the firſt day of the week has always
n obſerved by the Chriſtian church, in memory
he reſurrection of Jeſus Chriſt, by which he
pleted the work of man's redemption on earth,
reſcued him from the dominion of him who
the power of death. This day was denomi-
d by the primitive Chriſtians the LORD'S DAY.
as alſo ſometimes called SUNDAY; which was
name given to it by the heathens, who dedi-
d it to the ſun. But although it was originally
alled *Sunday* by the heathens, yet it may very
erly retain that name among Chriſtians, be-
e it is dedicated to the honour of "The true
t, which lighteth every man that cometh into
world," of Him who is ſtyled by the prophet
he Sun of righteouſneſs," and who on this day
e from the dead. But although it was, in the
itive times, indifferently called the *Lord's day*
unday, yet it was never ſtiled the *ſabbath*; a
e ſolely appropriated to Saturday, or the *ſe-*
th day, both by ſacred and eccleſiaſtical writers.
the change from the *ſeventh* to the *firſt* day of
eſtival, there is no account in the new Teſta-
week or even of the inſtitution of the *Lord's*
t. However, it may be fairly inferred from
at the firſt day of the week was, in the apoſ-
age, a ſtated time for public worſhip. On
day the apoſtles were aſſembled, when the
y Ghoſt came down ſo viſibly upon them to
ify them for the converſion of the world. On
day we find St Paul preaching at Troas, when
diſciples came to break bread: and the direc-
which the ſame apoſtle gives to the Corin-
ns concerning their contributions for the relief
eir ſuffering brethren, plainly allude to their
ious aſſemblies on the firſt day of the week.
it appears from ſeveral paſſages in the New
ament, that the religious obſervation of the
lay of the week is of apoſtolical appointment;
nay indeed be very reaſonably ſuppoſed to be
g thoſe directions and inſtructions which our
d Lord himſelf gave to his diſciples, during
o days between his reſurrection and aſcenſion,
ein he converſed with them, and ſpoke of the
pertaining to the kingdom of God. Still,
ever, it muſt be owned that thoſe paſſages, al-
gh the plaineſt that occur, are not ſufficient
ove the apoſtolical inſtitution of the Lord's
or even the actual obſervation of it. To
the matter therefore beyond all controverſy,
ſe muſt be had to eccleſiaſtical teſtimony.
the conſentient evidence and uniform prac-
f the primitive church, and alſo from the at-
ion of Pliny, a reſpectable and learned heathen,
d that the firſt day of the week was obſerved
earlieſt ages as a holy day or feſtival, in ho-
of the reſurrection of Chriſt. Now there are
wo ſources whence the cuſtom could poſſi-
ve ariſen. It muſt have been inſtituted either
man or *divine* authority: by human autho-
was not inſtituted; for there was no gene-
uncil in thoſe early times, and without the
of a general council it was impoſſible that
eccleſiaſtical inſtitution could have been uni-
ly eſtabliſhed at once. It remains, therefore,
t muſt have been inſtituted by divine autho-
and that it really was ſo, appears from the
following conſiderations: It is certain that the apoſtles travelled over the greateſt part of the world, and planted churches in the remoteſt parts of it. It is certain alſo that they were all led by the ſame *ſpirit*; and their deſire was, that unity and uniformity ſhould be obſerved in all the churches founded by them. It is not therefore ſurpriſing that, in the primitive times, the ſame doctrine, the ſame worſhip, the ſame rites and cuſtoms, ſhould prevail all over the Chriſtian world; nay it would have been unaccountable had the caſe been otherwiſe. For this reaſon we may conclude that every cuſtom, univerſally obſerved in the early ages of the Chriſtian church, and not inſtituted by a general council, was of original appointment. As the *Lord's day* is ſanctified, that is *ſet apart* to Chriſtians for the worſhip and ſervice of God, their Creator, Redeemer, and Sanctifier, it is eaſy to diſcover how it ought to be obſerved. Although ſeparated from worldly buſineſs, yet it is in no ſenſe a day of idleneſs, but appropriated to the works of ſalvation and labours of charity. In the primitive times this holy day was obſerved in the moſt ſolemn manner. From the monuments of thoſe early ages we learn, that it was ſpent in a conſtant attendance on all the offices of divine worſhip. On it they held their religious aſſemblies, in which the writings of the apoſtles and prophets were read to the people, and the doctrines of Chriſtianity preſſed upon them by the exhortations of the clergy. Solemn prayers and praiſes were offered up to God, and hymns ſung in honour of Chriſt; the Lord's ſupper was conſtantly celebrated; and collections were made for the maintenance of the clergy and the relief of the poor. On this day they abſtained, as much as they could, from bodily labour. They looked upon it as a day of joy and gladneſs; and therefore all faſting on it was prohibited, even during lent, their great annual faſt.—Such was the zeal of thoſe times, that nothing, no not the ſevereſt perſecutions, hindered them from celebrating holy offices on this day. They were often beſet and betrayed, and as often ſlaughtered in conſequence of cruel edicts from the emperors, for whoſe proſperity they nevertheleſs offered up their prayers. For this reaſon, when they could not meet in the day-time, they aſſembled in the morning before it was light. No trivial pretences were then admitted for any one's abſence from public worſhip; for ſevere cenſures were paſſed upon all who were abſent without neceſſity. When the empire became Chriſtian, Conſtantine and his ſucceſſors made laws for the more ſolemn obſervation of the Lord's day. They prohibited all proſecutions and pleadings, and other juridical matters to be tranſacted on it, and alſo all unneceſſary labour; not that it was looked upon as a Jewiſh ſabbath, but becauſe theſe things were conſidered as inconſiſtent with the duties of the feſtival. But although the primitive Chriſtians did not indulge themſelves in the practice of unneceſſary labour or trifling amuſements, yet they did not wholly abſtain from working, if neceſſity required it. The council of *Laodicea* enjoined that men ſhould abſtain from work on the Lord's day *if poſſible*; but if any were found to *Judaize*; they were to be cenſured as great tranſgreſſors.

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So circumspect were the primitive Christians about their conduct on this festival, that on the one hand they avoided all things which tended to profane it, whilst on the other they censured all those who insisted it should be observed with Pharisaical rigour.

(8.) SABBATH, THE CHRISTIAN, ADVANTAGES AND MANNER OF OBSERVING. The primary duty of the Lord's day is *public worship*. The nature and design of the Christian religion sufficiently shows the necessity and importance of assembling for the duties of devotion. The whole scope of Christianity is to bring us to an union with God, which cannot be obtained or preserved without frequent communications with him; and the reasons which show religious intercourse to be the indispensable duty of Christians in a private capacity, will bind it with equal or more force on them considered as a community. The advantages of public worship, when duly performed, are many and great. There are two, however, which deserve to be considered in a particular manner. It gives the Christians an opportunity of openly professing their faith, and testifying their obedience to their Redeemer in the wisest and best manner; and in an age when atheism has arisen to an alarming height, every man, who has any regard for religion, will cheerfully embrace all opportunities of declaring his abhorrence of the vicious courses pursued by those degenerate apostates. He will lay hold on every occasion to testify that he is neither afraid nor ashamed to confess the truth; and will think it his indispensable duty openly to disavow the sins of others, that he may not incur the guilt of partaking of them. Public worship preserves in the minds of men a sense of religion, without which society could not exist. Nothing can keep a body of men together and unite them in promoting the public good, but such principles of action as must reach and govern the heart. But these can be derived only from a sense of religious duties, which can never be so strongly impressed upon the mind as by a constant attendance upon public worship. Nothing can be more weak, than to neglect the public worship of God, under the pretence that we can employ ourselves as acceptably to our Maker at home in our closets. By public worship every man professes his belief in that God whom he adores, and appeals to Him for his sincerity, of which his neighbour cannot judge. By this appeal he endears himself more or less to others. It creates confidence; it roots in the heart benevolence, and all other Christian virtues, which produce, in common life, the fruits of mutual love and general peace. Many are of opinion that the duties of the Lord's day are over when public worship is ended. But they forget for what purposes the day was set apart. It is not only appropriated to the duties of public worship, but also sanctified to our improvement in the knowledge of the doctrines of Christianity. It is an institution calculated to alleviate the condition of the laborious classes of mankind, and, in consequence of that, to afford rest to *beasts* also. It is proper, it is necessary, that man should reflect on his condition in the world, that he should examine the state of his soul, and inquire what progress he has made in that work which was given him to do. Those who have children or servants are obliged to look after *their* instruction as well as their own. These are the ends which the institution of Sunday was designed to answer. Every man must allow that these things must be done at some time or other; but unless there be *set* times for doing them, the generality of mankind would wholly neglect them. *Visiting* and *travelling* (though very common) are enormous profanations of this holy day. Families are thereby robbed of their *time*; a loss which cannot be made up. Servants, instead of having leisure to improve themselves in spiritual knowledge, are burdened with additional labour: And in a man of any humanity, it must excite many painful sensations, when he reflects how often the useful horse on that day experiences all the anguish of hunger, torn flesh and battered knees. Every kind of *amusement*, every kind of *common* labour, is an encroachment on the particular duties of the Lord's day; and consequently men profane the day spending it in any amusements, or undertaking upon it any ordinary employment, unless it be a work of absolute necessity.

* SABBATHBREAKER. *n. s.* [*sabbath* and *break*] Violator of the sabbath by labour or wickedness. —The usurer is the greatest *sabbathbreaker*, because his plough goeth every Sunday. *Bacon.*

SABBATH-BREAKING, *n. s.* or profanation of the Lord's day, is punished by the municipal laws of England. For, besides the notorious indecency and scandal of permitting any secular fair to be publicly transacted on that day in a country professing Christianity, and the corruptions of morals which usually follows its profanation, the keeping one day in seven holy, as a time of relaxation and refreshment, as well as for public worship, is of admirable service to a state, considered merely as a civil institution. It humanizes, by the help of conversation and society, the manners of the lower classes; which would otherwise degenerate into a sordid ferocity and savage selfishness of spirit: it enables the industrious workman to pursue his occupation in the ensuing week with health and cheerfulness: it imprints on the minds of the people that sense of their duty to God so necessary to make them good citizens, but which yet would be worn out and effaced by an unremitted continuance of labour, without any stated times of recalling them to the worship of their Maker. And therefore the laws of King Athelstan forbad all merchandizing on the Lord's day, under very severe penalties. And by the statute 27 Hen. VI. c. 5. no fair or market shall be held on the principal festivals, Good Friday or any Sunday (except the four Sundays in harvest,) on pain of forfeiting the goods exposed to sale. And by the statute 1 Car. I. c. 1. no persons shall assemble, out of their own parishes, for any sport whatsoever, upon this day; nor in their parishes, shall use any bull or bear baiting, interludes, plays, or other unlawful exercises or pastimes; on pain that every offender shall pay 3s. 4d. to the poor. This statute does not prohibit, but rather impliedly allows, any innocent recreation or amusement, within their respective parishes, even on the Lord's day, after divine service

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t is over. But by ſtatute 29 Car. II. c. 7. no ſon is allowed to work on the Lord's day, or any boat or barge, or expoſe any goods to , except meat in public houſes, milk at cer- hours, and works of neceſſity or charity, on ſeiture of 5s. Nor ſhall any drover, carrier, or like, travel upon that day, under pain of 20s.

ABBATH DAY'S JOURNEY, a meaſure, among ancient Jews, of 729 Engliſh paces and 3 feet; 1000 cubits; or 3648 feet. *Bailey.*

1.) * SABBATICAL. *adj.* [*ſabbaticus*, Lat. *ſabbatique*, Lat. from *ſabbath.*] Reſembling the ſab- ; enjoying or bringing intermiſſion of la- r.—The appointment and obſervance of the *batical* year, and after the ſeventh *ſabbatical* r a year of jubilee, is a circumſtance of great ment. *Forbes.*

2.) SABBATICAL YEAR, among the ancient s, or the year of Jubilee, was every ſeventh r; in which it was unlawful to till the ground, all ſlaves were ſet at liberty, unleſs ſuch as d their maſters ſo well, that they preferred tinuing in their ſervice to freedom. There alſo a *grand ſabbatical year* held by the Jews h uncommon ſplendor, every 49th year; tho' e commentators pretend, it was held the 50th r; but this ſeems not probable, as they would have had two Jubilees running. See JUBI- , § 2.

ABBATI DIES, in the Minutes of the Houſe Commons, Saturday.

SABBATISM. *n. ſ.* [from *ſabbatum*, Latin.] ervance of the ſabbath ſuperſtitiouſly rigid.

SABBATIZE, *v. n.* To Judaize: to ob- e the Sabbath day, with the ſtrictneſs of a Jew.

ABBATO, a river of Naples, anciently called ATUS.

ABBATUM, *n. ſ.* [Lat. Sabbath.] in Doomſ- Book. peace or quiet.

ABBIA, a valley of the Italian republic, in lep. of the Mincio, diſtrict and late prov. of ua, and ci-devant territory of Salo. See LEMO.

ABBINGTON, a ſmall town of England, in inghamſhire, W. of Tame.

1.) SABEANS, in ancient hiſtory, a tribe of , deſcended from Sheba the ſon of Cuſh, or Sheba, the ſon of Raamah, and grand- of Cuſh. They inhabited the country called A or SHEBA; they carried off Job's cattle, and afterwards conquered by Cyrus.

2.) SABEANS, in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, a ſect of ſtian Heretics, who patched up a compound hriſtianity, Judaiſm, Mahometaniſm and Pa- ſm into one heterogeneous ſyſtem. They a- ted baptiſm after the example and in com- ation of John the Baptiſt; but do not admi- it in the name of the Trinity. They have craments; baptiſm, the euchariſt, orders, marriage. Both Miniſters and Laity are al- ed two wives. (*Bailey.*) Perhaps they are ſame with the SABIANS.

ABELLI, an ancient people of Italy deſcend- from the Sabines, or as others ſay, of the nites. They inhabited that part of Italy, ch lay between the Sabines and the Marſi. . iii, od. 6. *Virg. Geor.* iii, 255.

SABELLIANS, a ſect of Chriſtians of the 3d century, who embraced the opinions of SABELLIUS. They maintained, that the Word and the Holy Spirit are only virtues, emanations, or functions of the Deity; and held, that he who is in heaven is the Father of all things, that he deſcended into the virgin, became a child, and was born of her as a ſon; and that having accompliſhed the myſtery of our ſalvation, he diffuſed himſelf on the apoſtles in tongues of fire, and was then denominated the *Holy Ghoſt*. This they explained by reſembling God to the ſun, the illuminative virtue or quality of which was the Word, and its warming virtue the Holy Spirit. The Word, they taught, was darted like a divine ray, to accompliſh the work of redemption; and that being re-aſcended to heaven, the influences of the Father were communicated after a like manner to the apoſtles. They were anathematiſed in a council held at Conſtantinople, A. D. 381.

SABELLICUS, Mark Anthony Coccius, a learned Italian, born at a ſmall town upon the Teveron, in the 15th century. He became profeſſor of belles lettres at Vicenza, and died in the 70th year of his age.

SABELLIUS, an ancient Unitarian, and philoſopher of Egypt, but a native of Lybia, who taught that there is but one perſon in the Godhead, and gave riſe to the ſect of the SABELLIANS. See that article.

(1.) SABIA, a kingdom of Africa, on the E. coaſt, bounded on the N. by Sophala, E. by the Moſambique, S. by unknown regions, and W. by Manica. It has gold mines, and abounds with elephants. The capital is Maneone.

(2.) SABIA, a promontory of Africa, in Tripoli, at the bottom of the Gulf of Sidra.

(1.) SABIANS, an ancient ſect of idolaters, who continue to this day, and worſhip the ſun, moon, and ſtars. They pretend to have derived their name from *Sabius*, a ſon of Seth, and they have a book containing their ſacred doctrines, which they pretend was written by Seth. Others derive the name from the Hebrew *Tſaba*, a *hoſt* or *army*, becauſe they worſhipped the *hoſt of Heaven*, the *Tſaba hememim*, againſt which idolatry Moſes cautions the Iſraelites.

(2.) SABIANS, a ſect of Chriſtians in Perſia and Arabia, who call themſelves *Mendai Jiahi*, or *Diſciples of St John*, and who are ſtiled by Europeans *Chriſtians of St John*. See CHRISTIANS, § 7. They ſtill retain ſome knowledge of the goſpel; but their ſuperſtitious ceremonies and frequent waſhings are ſuppoſed to be of Jewiſh origin, and derived from the HEMEROBAPTISTS, who had a chief of the name of *John*. They are moſt numerous in Baſſora.

SABIE, a ſea port of Denmark, on the E. coaſt of N. Jutland; at the mouth of a river ſo named, 23 miles NNE. of Alburg. Lon. 10. 18. E. Lat. 57. 20. N.

(1.) SABINA, a province of Italy, in the territories of the church; bounded on the N. by Umbria, on the eaſt by Abruzzo Ultra on the S. by the Campagna of Rome, and on the W. by the patrimony of St Peter. It is 22 miles in length, and almoſt as much in breadth; watered by ſeve-

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ral small rivers, and abounding in oil and wine. Magliano is the capital.

(2.) SABINA, Julia, a Roman lady, who married the emperor Adrian, by advice of Plotina, Trajan's widow. She is celebrated for her virtues, but was ill used by her husband, tho' she assisted in raising him to the empire. Some even say he poisoned her. She had been 38 years married to him when she died A. D. 138.

(1.) * SABINE. *n. s.* [*sabine*, Fr. *sabina*, Lat.] A plant.—*Sabine* or savin will make fine hedges. *Mortimer.*

(2.) SABINE, or SAVIN. See JUNIPERUS.

SABINES, } an ancient nation of Italy, rec-
SABINI, } koned among the ABORIGINES. Some however say they were originally a colony of Spartans, who settled in that part of Italy. Their territories were situated in the neighbourhood of Rome between the Nar and the Anio, and bounded on the N. by the Apennines and Umbria; E. by the dominions of the Æqui; S. by Latium, and W. by Etruria. Their chief cities were *Cures*, *Fidenæ*, *Cruſtumerium*, *Collatia*, *Corniculum*, *Nomentum* and *Reate*. The greateſt part of the neighbouring nations were deſcended from them; particularly the SABELLI, the SAMNITES, the *Campanians*, *Umbrians*, *Oſci*, *Æqui*, *Brutii*, *Hernici*, *Marſi*, &c. They had a high character for chaſtity and purity of morals; as well as for their ſkill in herbs, &c. Under their king TITUS TATIUS, they made war with the Romans under Romulus, on account of the rape of their virgins; but after ſeveral battles, the war was put an end to, by the women on whoſe account it was commenced, who by this time were attached to their Roman huſbands; a peace was concluded, the nations united, and Romulus and Tatius reigned jointly for 6 years over both nations, till Tatius was killed. (See ROME, § 5, 6.) After this they occaſionally revolted, but were all finally ſubdued and incorporated as Roman citizens about A. U. C. 373.

SABINUM, in ancient geography, a name given to the territories of the SABINES, but their preciſe limits we do not find exactly aſcertained. See the laſt article.

(1.) SABINUS, a native of Sparta, the leader and founder of the SABINES, to whom he gave name. He was deified after his death, and was invoked by Æneas. *Virg. Æn.* vii, 178.

(2.) SABINUS, Aulus, a Roman poet, contemporary and intimate with Ovid. He wrote elegies, and epiſtles from Æneas to Dido, from Hippolytus to Phædra, from Jaſon to Hypſipyle, from Demophoon to Phyllis, from Paris to Oenome, and from Ulyſſes to Penelope; but the 3 laſt are by ſome reckoned ſpurious.

(3.) SABINUS, Flavius, a brother of the emperor Veſpaſian, famed for his fidelity to Vitellius. He commanded the Roman armies 35 years, and governed Rome 12; but was killed in an inſurrection of the people.

(4.) SABINUS, Julius, a Roman commander, who proclaimed himſelf emperor, in oppoſition to Veſpaſian, but being defeated ſoon after, hid himſelf for 9 years in a cave, attended by his wife and 2 faithful domeſtics; but being diſcovered he was dragged before Veſpaſian, and by his order put to death, though much ſolicitation was made for him, and though his wife endeavoured to excite Veſpaſian's compaſſion, by ſhowing him the twins ſhe had born in the cave. But Veſpaſian had nothing of Cæſar's clemency.

(5.) SABINUS, Francis Floridus, a learned writer, who flouriſhed ſoon after the reſtoration of letters in Europe. His chief works are, *In Columniatores Plauti et aliorum linguæ Latinæ ſcriptorum apologia. Baſil*, 1540: and *Lectionum Succeſſivarum libri tres. Franc.* 1602, 8vo. He died in 1541.

(6.) SABINUS, George, a celebrated Latin poet, born in the electorate of Brandenburg in 1508. His poem, *Res geſtæ Cæſarum Germanorum*, ſpread his reputation all over Germany, and procured him the patronage of all the princes who had any regard for polite literature: he was made profeſſor of the belles lettres at Frankfort on the Oder, rector of the academy of Koningſburg, and counſellor to the elector of Brandenburg. He married two wives, the firſt was the eldeſt daughter of the famous reformer Melancthon. He died in 1561. His poems have been often printed.

(1.) SABIONCELLO, a peninſula of Dalmatia, in the republic of Raguſa, about 75 miles in circumference. It lies S. of the gulf of Narenta, and N. of the channel between the iſlands of Curzola and Melida.

(2.) SABIONCELLO, a town of Raguſa, on the above peninſula, 45 miles NW. of Raguſa. Lon. 17. 40. E. Lat. 43. 20. N.

(1.) SABIONETA, or } a ſtrong town of the
(1.) SABIONNETTA, } Italian republic, in the department of the Upper Po, diſtrict and territory of Cremona, and ci-devant duchy of Sabionnetta: with a caſtle, 20 miles E. of Cremona. Lon. 10. 30. E. Lat. 45. 0. N.

(2.) SABIONNETTA, a ci-devant duchy of Italy, in the Cremoneſe, bordering on Mantua, and included in the Italian republic, and dept. of the Upper Po. Sabionnetta was the capital.

(1.) SABIS, a river of Gallia Belgica, running into the Maeſe, at Namur. (*Cæſar de Bell.* ii. 16, and 18.) It is now called SAMBRE.

(2.) SABIS, a river of Carmania, which runs into the Gulf of Perſia. *Plin.*

(1.) * SABLE. *adj.* [Fr.] Black. A word uſed by heralds and poets.—

Sad ſucceeding night,
Who with her *ſable* mantle 'gan to ſhade
The face of earth. *Fairy Queen.*
With him inthron'd
Sat *ſable* veſted night. *Milton.*
Night, horrour, ſlaughter, with confuſion meet,
And in her *ſable* arms embrace the fleet. *Waller.*
Night, and all the ſtars that gild her ſable throne. *Dryden.*

(2.) * SABLE. *n. ſ.* [*zibella*, Lat.] Fur.—*Sables* worn of great perſonages, and brought out of Ruſſia, being the fur of a little beaſt of that name, eſteemed for the perfectneſs of the colour of the hairs, which are very black. Hence *ſable*, in heraldry, ſignifies the black colour in gentlemen's arms. *Peacham.*—He violently raught from his head his rich cap of *ſables*. *Knolles.*—

‡ Nor the dear purchaſe of the *ſable*'s tail. *Gay.*

(3.) SABLE, (§ 2.) in heraldry, ſignifies black and

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d in engraving is expreſſed by both horizontal d perpendicular lines croſſing each other. Sable itſelf ſignifies conſtancy, learning, and grief; d ancient heralds ſay, that when it is compound- with *Or*, it ſignifies Honour; *Argent*, Fame; *les*, Reſpect; *Azure*, Application; *Verd*, Com- t; and *Pur*, Auſterity. Alexander Niſbet, (p. ſays, that "the duke of Anjou, king of Sicily, er the loſs of that kingdom, appeared at a tour- nent in Germany all in black, with his ſhield that tincture, *ſemé de larmes*, i. e. ſprinkled h drops of water to repreſent tears, indicating that both his grief and loſs."

4.) SABLE, in zoology. See MUSTELA, N° -29. The chaſe of theſe animals, in the more barous times of the Ruſſian empire, was the ploy, or rather taſk, of the unhappy exiles Siberia. As that country is now become more pulous, the ſables have in a great meaſure quit- l it, and retired N. and E. to live in deſert fo- ts and mountains: they live near the banks of ers, or in the little iſlands in them; on this ac- unt they have, by ſome been ſuppoſed to be e Σαῦρος of Ariſtotle (*Hiſt. An. lib.* viii. *c.* 5.), ich he claſſes with the animals converſant a- ng waters. The hunters of ſables formed them- ves into troops, from 5 to 40 each: the laſt ſub- vided into leſſer parties, and each chooſes a lead- ; but one directs the whole: a ſmall covered at is provided for each party, loaded with pro- ſions, a dog and net for every two men, and a ſkil to bake their bread in: each party has alſo interpreter for the country they penetrate into. ery party then ſets out according to the courſe eir chief points out: they go againſt the ſtream the rivers drawing their boats up, till they ar- e in the hunting country; there they ſtop, build ts, and wait till the waters are frozen, and the ſon commences: before they begin the chace, eir leader aſſembles them, they unite in a pray- to the Almighty for ſucceſs, and then ſeparate; e firſt ſable they take is called *God's ſable*, and dedicated to the church. They then penetrate o the woods; mark the trees as they advance, at they may know their way back; and in their nting quarters form huts of trees, and bank up e ſnow round them: near theſe they lay their ps; then advance farther, and lay more traps, ll building new huts in every quarter, and re- rn ſucceſſively to every old one to viſit the traps d take out the game to ſkin it, which the chief the party alone muſt do: during this time they e ſupplied with proviſions by perſons who are ployed to bring it on ſledges, from the places the road, where they are obliged to form ma- zines, by reaſon of the impracticability of bring- g quantities through the rough country they uſt paſs. The traps are a ſort of pit-fall, with looſe board placed over it, baited with fiſh or ſh: when ſables grow ſcarce, the hunters trace em in the new-fallen ſnow to their holes; place eir nets at the entrance; and ſometimes wait ro or three days for the coming out of the ani- al: during which they are in danger of a failure their proviſions. The ſeaſon of chace being o- r, the hunters re-aſſemble, make a report to eir leader of the number of ſables each has ta- ken; make complaints of offenders againſt their regulations; puniſh delinquents; ſhare the booty; then continue at the head-quarters till the rivers are clear of ice; return home, and give to every church the dedicated furs.

(5.) SABLE, in geography, an ancient and po- pulous town of France, in the dept. of the Sarte, and ci-devant province of Maine, with a hand- ſome caſtle. It is ſeated on the Sarte, near ſome quarries of *black* marble, (whence the name,) 25 miles NE. of Angers, and 135 SW. of Paris. Lon. 0. 24. W. Lat. 47. 50. N.

(6.) SABLE, a barren iſland of N. America, 35 leagues, or 115 miles SE. of Cape Breton. Lon. 60. 0. W. Lat. 44. 15. N.

(7.) SABLE, a river of New York, which riſes in Herkemer county, near a branch of the Sagen- dago; and after running WSW. for ſeveral miles, turns gradually to the NW. and falls into the E. end of Lake Ontario.

(8.) SABLE, CAPE, the SW. point of the penin- ſula of Florida. Lon. 81. 52. W. Lat. 24. 57. N.

(9.) SABLE, CAPE, the moſt ſouthern or SW. province of Nova Scotia, in North America, near which is a fine cod-fiſhery. Lon. 65. 34. W. Lat. 43. 24. N.

(10.) SABLE, GREAT, a river of N. America, near the Saranac, which runs into Lake Cham- plain from the W. It is 60 yards broad, and has ſeveral remarkable cataracts, which fall about 200 feet deep, in ſeveral pitches over a rock, the great- eſt of which is 40 feet perpendicular. The water at the foot of this cataract is unfathomable.

(11.) SABLE ISLE, an iſland of Nova Scotia, ad- joined to CAPE SABLE, N° 9. The coaſts of both are moſt commodiouſly ſituated for fiſheries.

(12.) SABLE, LITTLE, a river of N. America, near the Great Sable, which runs into Lake Cham- plain.

(13.) SABLE TRADE, the trade carried on in the ſkins or furs of ſables; of which the following commercial hiſtory was tranſlated by Mr J. R. Forſter from a Ruſſian performance on that ſub- ject by Mr Muller. "*Sable*, *ſoble*, in Ruſſian; *zobel* in German. Their price varies from 1 l. to 10 l. Sterling, and above: fine and middling ſable ſkins are without bellies, and the coarſe ones are with them. Forty ſkins make a collection called ZIMMER. The fineſt ſables are ſold in pairs per- fectly ſimilar, and are dearer than ſingle ones of the ſame goodneſs; the blackeſt are reputed the beſt. Sables are in ſeaſon from Nov. to Feb.; for thoſe caught at any other time of the year are ſhort-haired, and then called *nedoſoboli*. The hair of ſables differs in length and quality: the long hairs, which reach far beyond the inferior ones, are called *oſ*; the more a ſkin has of ſuch long hairs, the blacker it is, and the more valuable is the fur; the very beſt have no other but thoſe long black hairs. *Motchka* is a technical term u- ſed in the Ruſſian fur trade, expreſſing the lower part of the long hairs; and ſometimes it compre- hends likewiſe the lower and ſhorter hairs. Be- low the long hairs are, in the greater part of them, ſome ſhorter hairs, called *podoſie*, i. e. under-oſ. Between the oſ and podoſie is a low woolly kind of hair called *podſada*. The character of ſable is, that

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that notwithſtanding the hair naturally lies from the head to the tail, yet it will lie equally in any direction as you ſtroke your hand over it. The various combinations of theſe characters, in regard to os, motchka, podolie, and podſida, make many ſpecial diviſions in the goodneſs of furs: beſides this, the furriers attend to the ſize, preferring always, *cæteris paribus*, the biggeſt, and thoſe that have the greateſt gloſs. The ſize depends upon the animal being a male or a female, the latter being always ſmaller. The gloſs vaniſhes in old furs: the freſh ones have a bloomy appearance; the dyed ſables always loſe their gloſs; become leſs uniform, whether the lower hairs have taken the dye or not. The Chineſe have a way of dyeing the ſables, ſo that the colour not only laſts, but the fur keeps its gloſs, and the criſped hairs only diſcover it. This is the reaſon that all the ſables of the beſt kind are carried to Ruſſia; the reſt go to China. The very beſt ſables come from the environs of Nertchitſk and Yakutſk; and this laſt diſtrict affords ſometimes ſables, of which one ſingle fur is often ſold at 60 or 70 rubies, 12l. or 14l. The bellies of ſables, which are ſold in pairs are about two fingers breadth, and are tied together by 40 pieces, which are ſold from 1l. to 2l. Sterling. Tails are ſold by the hundred. The very beſt ſable furs have their tails; but ordinary ſables are often cropped, and ſo ſold from 4l. to 8l. Sterling. The legs or feet of ſables are ſeldom ſold ſeparately; white ſables are rare, and no common merchandize, but bought only as curioſities: ſome are yellowiſh, and are bleached in the ſpring on the ſnow."

SABLES, or SABLES D'OLONNE, a commercial town of France, in the dept. of the Vendee, and ci-devant province of Poitou; with a harbour capable of containing veſſels of 150 tons. It is ſeated on the Bay of Biſcay, 31 miles W. of Lucon. Lon. 1. 36. W. Lat. 46. 30. N.

SABLESTAN. See ZABLESTAN.

(1.) * SABLIERE. *n. ſ.* [French.] 1. A ſand-pit. 2. [In carpentry.] A piece of timber as long, but not ſo thick, as a beam.

(2.) SABLIERE, Anthony De Rambouillet de la, a French poet, who died at Paris in 1680. His *Madrigals*, which are much celebrated, were publiſhed after his death by his ſon. His wife Heleſa, who was viſited by the wits of that age, has been immortalized by Fontaine, for an aſylum ſhe gave him in her houſe for 20 years.

SABOTA, or SABATHA. See SABATHA.

SABRACÆ, a powerful nation of India, in the time of Alexander the Great. *Q. Curt.* ix, 8.

SABRATA, an ancient ſea port town of Africa, near the Syrtes. It was a Roman colony. *Sil. Ital.* iii. 266. *Plin.* v. c. 4.

(1.)* SABRE. *n. ſ.* [*ſabre*, Fr. I ſuppoſe, of Turkiſh original.] A cymetar; a ſhort ſword with a convex edge; a falchion.—

Keen be my *ſabre*, and of proof my arms.
Dryden.

Seam'd o'er with wounds, which his own *ſabre* gave.
Pope.

2.) The SABRE has a very broad and heavy blade, thick at the back, and a little elevated or crooked towards the point. It is the ordinary weapon worn by the Turks, who are ſaid to be very expert in the uſe of it.

SABREMETTI, a river of Indoſtan, which waters the city of AMADABAT.

SABRINA, the ancient name of the SEVERN.

* SABULOSITY. *n. ſ.* [from *ſabulous.*] Grittineſs; ſandineſs.

* SABULOUS. *adj.* [*ſabulum*, Lat.] Gritty; ſandy.

SABURRA, in medicine, uſually denotes any collection of half putrid indigeſted matter in the ſtomach and inteſtines, by which the operation of digeſtion is impeded.

SABURRÆ, GRITTS, in the old ſyſtem of mineralogy, a genus of foſſils, found in minute maſſes, forming together a kind of powder, the ſeveral particles of which are of no determinate figure, nor have any tendency to the figure of cryſtal, but ſeem rudely broken fragments of larger maſſes not to be diſſolved or diſunited by water, but retaining their figure in it, and not cohering by means of it into a maſs; conſiderably opake, and in many ſpecies fermenting with acids; often mixed with heterogene matters, and not unfrequently taken in the coarſer ſtony and mineral or talline particles. Gritts are of various kinds, as, 1. The ſtony and ſparry gritts, of a bright greyiſh white colour. 2. The red ſtony gritts. 3. The green ſtony gritts, compoſed of homogeneous ſparry particles. 4. The yellow gritt, of which there is only one ſpecies. 5. The black and greyiſh gritts, compoſed of ſtony or talky particles.

SABUS, or SABINUS, the leader of the Sabines. See SABINUS, N° 1.

(1.) SAC, the LACTEAL. See ANATOMY, 429—432.

(2.) SAC, in geography, or GRANDE RIVIERE DU CUL DE SAC, a river of Hiſpaniola, which riſes in mount Selle, from two head waters; runs 36 miles in a ſemicircular courſe, and then running W. falls into the ſea, about 6 miles N. of Port au Prince.

SACÆ, an ancient people of Scythia, who inhabited the country E. of Bactriana and Sogdiana, N. of Mount Imaus. They lived in tents, and built no towns. *Ptol.* vi, 13. *Herod.* iii. c. 93.

SACÆA, a feaſt which the ancient Babylonians and other orientals held annually in honour of the deity Anaitis. The Sacæa were in the Eaſt what the SATURNALIA were at Rome, viz. a feaſt for the ſlaves. One of the ceremonies was to chuſe a priſoner condemned to death, and allow him the pleaſures and gratifications he could wiſh, before he was carried to execution.

SACALA, a territory, in the country of the Lesgow, on the S. and SE. of the foot of mount Aſormaſka, near the ſources of the Nile, containing ſeveral villages and pleaſant plains. See Nubia § 3.

SACANIA, a name given to that part of the Morea, in European Turkey, which lies between the Gulf of Lepanto, Engia, Napoli, and the iſthmus of Corinth.

SACATECOLULA, or LACATECOLULA, a town of Mexico, on the W. coaſt, 12 miles from the river Limpa. Near it is a volcano, of the ſame name.

* SACCADE

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.) * SACCADE. *n. f.* [Fr.] A violent check
rider gives his horſe, by drawing both the
i very ſuddenly: a correction uſed when the
e bears heavy on the hand. *Bailey.*

.) SACCADE, in the manege, is a correction
to make a horſe carry well; but it ought to
ſed diſcreetly, and but ſeldom.

ACCAI, a very ſtrong town of Japan, in the
of Niphon, famous for its fortified caſtles,
ſome temples, and elegant palaces, both in
city and ſuburbs. It is ſeated on the ſea coaſt,
has a good harbour, with a mountain on one
of it, which ſerves as a rampart. It is 360
s SW. of Jeddo. Lon. 134. 5. E. Lat. 35. 0.

ACCAS. See AMMONIUS.

ACCHARIFERA ARUNDO, *i. e.* the Sugar-
ng Reed, the old name of the SUGAR CANE.
SACCHARUM.

.) * SACCHARINE. *adj.* [*ſaccarum*, Latin.]
ing the taſte, or any other of the chief quali-
of ſugar.—Manna is an eſſential *ſaccharine* ſalt,
ating from the leaves of moſt plants. *Arbuth.*

.) SACCHARINE ACID. See ACID, SACCHA-
E; CHEMISTRY, *Index*; and OXALIC ACID.

ACCHAROMETER, *n. ſ.* the name given, by
Richardſon of Hull, to an inſtrument invented
him for aſcertaining the value of worts, and
ſtrength of different kinds of malt liquors. It
ifies a *meaſurer of ſweetneſs*; and is chiefly em-
yed as a meaſurer of the ſweetneſs of worts. It
merely an hydrometer contrived to aſcertain the
cific gravity of worts, or rather to compare the
ght of worts with that of equal quantities of
water employed in the brewery. The princi-
is as follows: The menſtruum or water, em-
yed by the brewer, becomes heavier or more
ſe by the addition of ſuch parts of the materi-
as have been diſſolved or extracted by, and
nce incorporated with it: the operation of
ling, and its ſubſequent cooling, ſtill adds to
denſity of it by evaporation; ſo that when
ſubmitted to the action of fermentation, it is
re denſe than at any other period. In paſſing
ough this operation, a remarkable alteration
kes place. The fluid no ſooner begins to fer-
ent than its denſity begins to diminiſh; and as
fermentation is more or leſs perfect, the fer-
ntable matter, becomes more or leſs attenua-
; and in lieu of every particle thus attenuated,
pirituous particle, of leſs denſity than water, is
oduced: ſo that when the liquor is again in a
te of quietude, it is ſo much ſpecifically lighter
n it was before, as the act of fermentation has
en capable of attenuating the component parts
its acquired denſity; and were it practicable to
enuate the whole, the liquor would become
hter or leſs denſe than water; becauſe the quan-
y of ſpirit produced from, and occupying the
ace of the fermentable matter, would diminiſh
e denſity of the water in a degree bearing ſome
oportion to that in which the latter had increa-
d it. From theſe facts, the reader, who is ac-
ainted with hydroſtatical principles, will be a-
e to conſtruct a ſaccharometer for himſelf. Brew-
, who are ſtrangers to theſe principles we refer
Mr Richardſon's book.

.) SACCHARUM, SUGAR, or the SUGAR CANE, in botany: A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the triandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 4th order, *Gramina*. There is no calyx, but a long down; the corolla is bivalved. There is but one ſpecies, viz. the

SACCHARUM OFFICINARUM, called by former botaniſts ARUNDO SACCHARIFERA. It is a native of Africa, the Eaſt Indies, and of Brazil; from whence it was introduced into our Weſt India iſlands ſoon after they were ſettled. The ſugar cane is the glory and the pride of thoſe iſlands. It amply rewards the induſtrious planter, enriches the Britiſh merchant, gives bread to thouſands of manufacturers and ſeamen, and brings an immenſe revenue to the crown. For the proceſs of making ſugar, ſee SUGAR. Sugar, formerly a luxury, is now become one of the neceſſaries of life. In crop time every negro on the plantations, and every animal, even the dogs, grow fat. This ſufficiently points out the nourihing and ſalutiferous qualities of ſugar. It has been alleged, that the eating of ſugar ſpoils the colour of, and corrupts, the teeth: this, however, is a miſtake, for no people on the earth have a finer ſet of teeth than the negroes in Jamaica. Dr Alſton, profeſſor of botany and materia medica at Edinburgh, endeavoured to obviate this vulgar opinion: he had a fine ſet of teeth, which he aſcribed ſolely to his eating great quantities of ſugar. Externally too it is often uſeful: mixed with the pulp of roaſted oranges, and applied to putrid or ill-diſpoſed ulcers, it proves a powerful corrector. Sir John Pringle aſcribes the extirpation of the peſtilence in Europe to the uſe of it in tea.

(3.) SACCHARUM SATURNI, or SUGAR OF LEAD, a chemical preparation of lead, now called *Acetite of Lead*, very uſeful for outward applications. See CHEMISTRY, and PHARMACY, *Indexes*. The famed *Goulard's extract*, or *vegeto-mineral water*, for the cure of ophthalmia, inflammatory ſores, &c. is a dilution of it. But inwardly taken, it would prove a violent poiſon. Dr Thomſon gives the following account of it in his *Syſtem of Chemiſtry*, Vol. iii. p. 45. "Acetous acid, as Vauquelin has ſhewn, does not attack lead in cloſe veſſels; but it occaſions its oxidation, when the lead is in contact both with the acid and the air, and the oxide is diſſolved as it forms. The ACETITE OF LEAD, which is produced by this ſolution, has been long known. It is mentioned by Iſaac Hollandus and Raymond Lully. It received formerly a great variety of names; ſuch as *ſugar of lead*, *ſugar of Saturn*, *ſalt of Saturn*, *vinegar of Saturn*, *extract of Saturn*, &c. The ſolution of lead in acetous acid was ſtrenuouſly recommended by Goulard, a ſurgeon of Montpelier, as an excellent application in caſes of inflammation. Hence it is often called *Goulard's Extract*. This ſalt is employed in conſiderable quantities by dyers and calico-printers. They mix it with alum, or with ſulphat of iron, and thus compoſe acetite of alumina or of iron according to the proceſs; ſalts which anſwer much better as mordants for fixing their colours, than alum or green vitriol. It is prepared in conſiderable quantities both in this country, and in Holland and France. The manufacturers diſtil their own acid in England and Holland

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land from sour beer, and in France from sour wine. The different processes have been described by Weber, Machy and Pontier. These may be reduced to two; either lead in the metallic state is exposed to the action of the acetous acid, or the oxides of lead are dissolved in it. In the first case, thin plates of lead are put into earthen vessels, along with acetous acid. The portion of the lead near the surface, as soon as it is covered with a coat of oxide, is removed to the bottom of the vessel, and new plates brought to the surface. These are incrusted in their turn and removed to the bottom, where the oxide is dissolved. This change of place is continued daily, till the acid has dissolved a sufficient quantity of lead. It is then filtered and concentrated by evaporation. As it cools, the acetite of lead precipitates in small crystals. Other manufacturers dissolve the white oxide of lead prepared by exposing the metal to the fumes of vinegar; or they use litharge in its stead; and the solution is evaporated till the salt crystallizes. This process is more expensive than the other. But native carbonat of lead, which is found abundantly in many places, might be employed with advantage instead of these artificial oxides. Acetite of lead is usually in the form of small crystals, which have a glossy appearance like satin, and are flat four-sided prisms, terminated by dihedral summits. Its taste is sweet, and somewhat astringent. Its specific gravity is 2'345. It is sparingly soluble in water, unless there be an excess of acid. When exposed to the air, it becomes yellow, but undergoes no farther change. Heat decomposes it. When distilled, there comes over an acid liquor, which is the acetous considerably altered; and the residuum, says Proust, often takes fire spontaneously, when exposed to the air. This salt is decomposed by all those acids and their compounds, which form with lead a salt nearly insoluble in water; as the sulphuric, phosphoric, muriatic, fluoric, oxalic, malic, &c."

(1.) SACCHI, Andrew, a celebrated painter, born at Rome in 1594. He was the disciple of Francis Albano, whom he afterwards surpassed in taste and correctness. He distinguished himself by his paintings in fresco; and a strong emulation subsisting between him and Peter de Cortona, they each arrived at a high degree of perfection. The works of Sacchi are finished with uncommon care and skill. He died in 1668.

(2.) SACCHI, Bartholomew. See PLATINA, N° 1.

SACCHINI, Anthony Mary Jasper, an eminent musician, born at Naples, in 1735. He displayed his abilities at different periods, in England, France, Germany and Holland, with success. His compositions are remarkable for taste and elegance. He died at Paris in 1786.

SACCHOLACTIC ACID, or the *Acid of sugar of milk*, as it was formerly called, is so named from *saccharum*, Lat. *sugar*, and *lac*, *milk*. It is also called MUCOUS ACID. The ingenious Dr Thomson, in his *Syst. of Chem.* vol. II. p. 126. thus describes it: It "may be obtained by the following process: Upon one part of gum arabic, or other similar gum, previously put into a retort, pour 2 parts of nitric acid. Apply a slight heat for a short time, till a little nitrous gas and carbonic acid gas have come over; then allow the mixture to cool. A white powder gradually precipitates, which may be easily separated by filtration. This powder is *mucous acid*. This acid was discovered by Scheele in 1780. After having obtained MUCIC ACID from sugar, he wished to examine, whether the sugar of milk would furnish the same product. Upon 4 oz. of pure sugar of milk finely powdered, he poured 12 oz. of diluted nitric acid, and put the mixture in a large glass retort, which he placed in a sand bath. A violent effervescence ensuing, he was obliged to remove the retort from the sand bath till the commotion ceased. He then continued the distillation till the mixture became yellow. As no crystals appeared in the liquor remaining in the retort, after standing 2 days, he repeated the distillation as before, with the addition of 8 oz. of nitric acid, and continued the operation till the yellow colour, which had disappeared on the addition of the nitrous acid, returned. The liquor in the retort contained a white powder, and when cold was thick. Eight ounces of water were added to dilute it. It was then filtrated, by which the white powder was separated; which, being edulcorated and dried, weighed 1 dr. The filtrated solution was evaporated to the consistence of a syrup, and again subjected to distillation, with 4 oz. of nitric acid as before; after which, the liquor when cold, was observed to contain many small, oblong, four sided crystals, together with some white powder. This powder being separated, the liquor was again distilled with same nitric acid as before; by which means the liquor was rendered capable of yielding crystals; and by one distillation more, with more nitric acid, the whole of the liquor was converted into crystals. These crystals, added together, weighed 5 drams; and were found, upon trial, to have the properties of the oxalic acid. Mr Scheele next examined the properties of the white powder, and found it to be an acid of a peculiar nature: he therefore called it the *acid of sugar of milk*. It was afterwards called SACCHOLACTIC acid by the French chemists. Fourcroy has lately given it the name of *mucous acid*, because it is obtained by treating gum arabic, and other mucilaginous substances with nitric acid. This last name deserves the preference, not only because it is shorter, but because it indicates more precisely the nature of the acid. Mr Hermstadt of Berlin has made similar experiments on sugar of milk at the same time with Scheele, and with similar results; but he concluded, that the white powder, which he obtained was nothing else than oxalat of lime with excess of acid: but his proofs are very far from establishing this, or even rendering it probable. The mucous acid must therefore be considered as a distinct acid, since it possesses peculiar properties.—It is under the form of a white grainy powder, with a slightly acid taste. Heat decomposes it. When distilled there comes over an acid liquor, which crystallises in needles on cooling, and red coloured acrid oil, carbonic acid gas, and carbonated hydrogen gas. There remains in the retort, a large proportion of charcoal. Scheele says it is soluble in 60 parts of its weight of boiling water; but Messl. Hermstadt and Morveau found that boiling water only dissolved one 80th part: it deposited

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ɔsited ¼ part on cooling in the form of cryſtals. ſolution has an acid taſte, and reddens the in- n of turnſole. Its ſpecific gravity, at the tem- ture of 53·7°, is 1·0015. The compounds h it forms with earths, alkalies, and metallic rs are denominated *Mucites* or SACCHOLATS." ext article.

ACCHOLAT, or MUCITE, *n. ſ.* A ſalt form- y the union of the Saccholactic or mucous with different baſes. "Theſe ſalts," (conti- Dr Thomſon,) are but very imperfectly m, no chemiſt having examined them except tle. The acid ſcarcely acts upon any of the la, but it combines with their oxides: it s ſalts almoſt inſoluble in water. When ed into the nitrates of ſilver, mercury, or lead, caſions a white precipitate. It produces no ge in the ſulphats of iron, copper, zinc, man- ſe, nor in the muriats of tin and mercury.

SACCHOLAT OF ALUMINA. See N° 3.

SACCHOLAT OF AMMONIA is a ſalt which ſ ſouriſh taſte. It loſes its baſe by a moderate , while the acid remains behind.

SACCHOLAT OF BARYTES, SACCHOLAT OF LIME, SACCHOLAT OF MAGNESIA, and of ALUMINA, are all inſoluble in water.

SACCHOLAT OF POTASS is a ſalt in the form ryſtals, ſoluble in 8 times their weight of boil- water.

SACCHOLAT OF SODA is the ſame, but ſolu- in 5 times its weight of boiling water.

ACCOGNAGO, a town of the Italian republic the department of the Upper Po; diſtrict ate territory of Lodi: ſeated on the Muzza, its influx into the Po.

ACCULUS, [Lat.] in anatomy, a diminutive ccus, ſignifies a little bag, and is applied to ſ parts of the body.

ACCUS, *n. ſ.* [Lat.] a ſack; whence SAC, and CULUS, in anatomy, for little bags.

ACER, *adj.* [Lat.] ſacred, or holy, was, in geo- hy, applied by the ſuperſtitious Romans to ames of ſeveral places: as,

SACER LUCUS, i. e. *the Holy Grove*, a wood mpania, on the bank of the Leris.

SACER MONS, i. e. *the Sacred Mount*. See ns, N° 2.

SACER PORTUS, i. e. *the Holy Harbour*, a ſea of Italy, near Prænisle, famous for a battle ght near it, between young Marius and M. ius, in which the former was defeated. (*Vell.* ii. c. 26. *Lucan.* ii. 134.) See ROME, § 30.

(.) * SACERDOTAL. *adj.* [*ſacerdotalis*, Lat.] ſtly; belonging to the prieſthood.—They have ers for the dead, in which functions they uſe rdotal garments. *Stillingfl.*—He fell violently a me without reſpect to my *ſacerdotal* orders. den's *Spaniſh Fryar.*—Behold the importance extent of the *ſacerdotal* commiſſion. *Atterbury.*

(.) SACERDOTAL OFFICE. See CLERGY and EST.

SACHEL. *n. ſ.* [*faculus*, Lat.] A ſmall ſack bag.

ACHEM, *n. ſ.* the chief of a tribe among the erican Indians. Dr Aſh defines it "a ruler; reat prince;" but the latter definition, at leaſt, veys an idea of a higher degree of power, than e tribes appear to grant their chiefs. It is chiefly, if not *only*, during war that the Sachem has any power.

SACHETTA, a town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Mincio, diſtrict and late duchy of Mantua, ſeated on the Mincio at its influx into the Po.

SACHEVERELL, Dr Henry, a famous clergyman of the Tory faction in the reign of queen Anne; who diſtinguiſhed himſelf by indecent and ſcurrilous ſermons and writings againſt the diſſenters and revolution principles. He owed his conſequence, however, to being indiſcreetly proſecuted by the houſe of lords for his aſſize ſermon at Derby, and his ſermon on 5th of Nov. at St Paul's in 1709; in which he aſſerted the doctrine of non-reſiſtance to government in its utmoſt extent; and reflected ſeverely on the act of toleration. The high and low church parties were then very violent; and Sacheverell's trial inflamed the high church party to dangerous riots and exceſſes: he was, however, ſuſpended for 3 years, and his ſermons burned by the common hangman. The Tories being in adminiſtration when his ſuſpenſion expired, he was freed with every mark of honour and public rejoicing; was ordered to preach before the commons on 29th of May, had the thanks of the houſe for his diſcourſe, and obtained the valuable rectory of St Andrew's Holborn.

SACHTLEVEN, Cornelius and Herman, two celebrated Dutch painters. Herman was the moſt eminent. He was born at Rotterdam, in 1609, and was the diſciple of Van Goyen. His pictures are rare and valuable. He died in 1685.

SACILE, a town of Maritime Auſtria, in the marquiſate of Treviſano. On the 13th March, 1797, an engagement took place near this town, between the French and Auſtrians; in which the former were victors, and took 100 priſoners.

(1.) * SACK. *n. ſ.* [שק Hebrew; σακκος; *ſaccus*, Lat. *ſæc*, Sax.—It is obſervable of this word, that it is found in all languages, and it is therefore conceived to be antediluvian.] 1. A bag; a pouch; commonly a large bag.—

Our *ſacks* ſhall be a mean to ſack the city.
Shak.

—Vaſtius cauſed the authors of that mutiny to be thruſt into *ſacks*, and caſt into the ſea. *Knolles.* 2. The meaſure of three buſhels. 3. A woman's looſe robe.

(2.) * SACK. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Storm of a town; pillage; plunder.—

If Saturn's ſon beſtows
The *ſack* of Troy, which he by promiſe owes,
Then ſhall the conqu'ring Greeks thy loſs reſtore.
Dryden.

2. A kind of ſweet wine, now brought chiefly from the Canaries. [*Sec*, French, of uncertain etymology; but derived by *Skinner*, after *Mandeſlo*, from *Xeque*, a city of *Morocco*. The *ſack* of *Shakeſpeare* is believed to be what is now called *Sherry*.] —Pleaſe you drink a cup of *ſack*. *Shakeſp.*—The butler hath great advantage to allure the maids with a glaſs of *ſack*. *Swift.*

(3.) SACK (§ 2, *def.* 2.) was a wine uſed by our anceſtors, which ſome have taken to be Rheniſh and ſome Canary wine. Venner, in his *Via Recta ad Vitam Longam*, printed in 1628, ſays, "that ſack, taken by itſelf, is very hot and very penetrative;

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tive; being taken with fugar, the heat is both fomewhat allayed, and the penetrative quality thereof alfo retarted." He adds, that Rhenifh, &c. decline after a year, but fack and the other ftronger wines are beft when they are 2 or 3 years old. It appears probable that fack was not a fweet wine, from its being taken with fugar, and that it did not receive its name from having a facchaine flavour, but from its being originally ftored in facks or borachios. It does not appear to have been a French wine, but a ftrong wine the production of a hot climate. Perhaps it was what is called dry mountain, or fome Spanifh wine of that kind. This is the more probable as Howell, in his French and Englifh Dictionary, 1650, tranflates fack by *vin d'Eſpagne, vin ſec.*

(4.) SACK OF COTTON WOOL, a quantity from one hundred and a half to four hundred weight.

(5.) SACK OF WOOL, a quantity of wool containing juft 22 ftone, and every ftone 14 lb. In Scotland, a fack is 24 ftone, each ftone containing 16 lb.

(6.) SACKS OF EARTH, in fortification, are canvas bags filled with earth. They are ufed in making retrenchments in haſte, to place on parapets, or the head of the breaches, &c. to repair them, when beaten down.

* *To* SACK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To put in bags.—

Now the great work is done, the corn is ground,
The gift is *ſack'd*. *Betterton.*

2. [From *ſacar*, Spanifh.] To take by ſtorm; to pillage; to plunder.—Edward Bruce *ſacked* and raifed all cities and corporate towns. *Spenſer.*—

I'll make thee ſtoop and bend thy knee,
Or *ſack* this country with a mutiny. *Shak.*
What armies conquer'd, periſh'd with thy ſword?
What cities *ſack'd*? *Fairfax.*
What barbarous invader *ſack'd* the land. *Denh.*

—The pope himſelf was ever after unfortunate, Rome being twice taken and *ſacked* in his reign. *South.*—When the Romans lay under the apprehenſions of ſeeing their city *ſacked* by a barbarous enemy, they would take care to beſtow ſuch of their riches this way as could beſt bear the water. *Addiſon.*

(1.)* SACKBUT. *n. ſ.* [*ſacabuche*, Spanifh; *ſambuca*, Lat. *ſambuque*, Fr.] A kind of pipe.—

The trumpets, *ſackbuts*, pſalteries and fife,
Make the ſun dance. *Shak. Coriolanus.*

(2.) *The* SACKBUT is a muſical inſtrument of the wind kind, being a ſort of trumpet, though different from the common trumpet both in form and ſize; it is fit to play a bafs, and is contrived to be drawn out or ſhortened, according to the tone required, whether grave or acute. The Italians call it TROMBONE, and the Latins *tuba ductilis*.

* SACKCLOTH. *n. ſ.* [*ſack* and *cloath*.] Cloath of which facks are made; coarſe cloath ſometimes worn in mortification.—Coarſe ſtuff made of goats hair, of a dark colour, worn by ſoldiers and mariners; and uſed as a habit among the Hebrews in times of mourning. Called *ſackcloth*, either becauſe facks were made of this ſort of ſtuff, or becauſe ſackcloths were ſtraight and cloſe like a ſack. *Calmet.* —

Thrice every week in aſhes ſhe did ſit,
And next her wrinkled ſkin rough *ſackcloth* wore
Thus with *ſackcloth* I inveſt my woe. *Sandys*
—Being clad in *ſackcloth*, he was to lie on the ground. *Aylifſe's Parergon.*

* SACKER. *n. ſ.* [from *ſack*.] One that takes town.

* SACKFUL. *n. ſ.* [*ſack* and *full*.] A full bag —Wood goes about with *ſackfuls* of droſs, odiouſly miſrepreſenting his prince's countenance *Swift.*

* SACKPOSSET. *n. ſ.* [*ſack* and *poſſet*.] A poſſet made of milk, ſack, and ſome other ingredients The burning ſtuff may fall into a diſh of ſack-poſſet. *Swift.*

(1.) SACKVILLE, Thomas, Lord Buckhurſt and earl of Dorſet, a ſtateſman and poet, the ſon of Richard Sackville, Eſq. of Buckhurſt, in Suſſex was born in 1536. He was ſent to Hart-hall Oxford, in the end of the reign of Edward VI whence he removed to Cambridge, where he took the degree of M. A. and thence to the Inner Temple; where he ſtudied the law, and was called to the bar. He commenced poet whilſt at the univerſities, and his juvenile productions were much admired. About the 4th year of queen Mary, he was a member of the houſe of commons. In 1557 he wrote a poem, entitled *The Induction*, or *The Mirror of Magiſtrates*; which was originally intended to comprehend all the unfortunate Great in the hiſtory of England; but this deſign was dropped. The Mirror of Magiſtrates is formed on a dramatic plan; in which the perſons are introduced ſpeaking. The Induction is written in the ſtyle of Spencer, who is ſuppoſed to have imitated its author. In 1561, his tragedy of *Gorboduc* was acted before Q. Eliſabeth by the gentlemen of the Inner Temple. This was the firſt tolerable tragedy in our language. The Companion to the Play-houſe tells us, that the 3 firſt acts were written by Mr Tho. Norton. Sir Philip Sidney compares its ſtyle to that of Seneca. Ryme highly in its commendation. Mr Spence publiſhed it in 1736, with a preface. It is the firſt Engliſh dramatic piece written in verſe. In the parliament of Elizabeth's reign, Mr Sackville was member for Suſſex, and for Bucks in the 2d. In the mean time he made the tour of France and Italy, and in 1566 was impriſoned at Rome, when his father died; by which he became poſſeſſed of a very conſiderable fortune. Having obtained his liberty, he returned to England; and, being knighted, was created Lord Buckhurſt. In 1568 he was ſent ambaſſador to France. In 1586, he was one of the commiſſioners appointed to try the unfortunate Mary queen of Scots; and was employed to report the confirmation of her ſentence, and to ſee it executed. In 1587, he went ambaſſador to the States General, in conſequence of the complaint againſt the earl of Leiceſter; who, diſliking his impartiality, prevailed on the queen to recal him, and confine him to his houſe. In this confinement he continued 10 months, when Leiceſter dying, he was reſtored to favour, and in 1589 was inſtalled knight of the garter: but the greateſt proof of the queen's partiality for him appeared in 1591, when ſhe cauſed him to be elected chan-

cellor

:llor of the univerſity of Oxford, in oppoſition her favourite Eſſex. In 1598, on the treaſurer urleigh's death, lord Buckhurſt ſucceeded him, id became in effect prime miniſter; and when, 1601, the earls of Eſſex and Southampton were ought to trial, he ſat as lord high ſteward. On e acceſſion of James I. he had the office of lord gh treaſurer confirmed to him for life, and was eated earl of Dorſet. He continued in high fa- ur with the king till his death; which happen- ſuddenly, on the 19th April, 1608, in the coun- -chamber at Whitehall. He was interred in eſtminſter abbey. He was a good poet, an able iniſter, and an honeſt man. From him is de- ended the preſent noble family of Dorſet.

(2.) SACKVILLE, Charles, earl of Dorſet, a ce- brated wit and poet, deſcended from the above, as born in 1637. He was one of the libertines king Charles II's court, and indulged in inexcu- ble exceſſes. But he openly diſcountenanced e violent meaſures of James II, and engaged rly for the prince of Orange, by whom he was ade lord chamberlain of the houſehold, and a ember of the privy-council. He died in 1706, d left ſeveral poetical pieces, which were pub- hed among the works of the minor poets, pub- hed in 1749.

(3.) SACKVILLE, in geography, a townſhip of ova Scotia, in Cumberland county, on the Che- ecto Baſin.

(1.) SACO, a river of the United States, one of e largeſt in Maine. Its head waters riſe in the hite Mountains, and, after uniting, wind into a E. courſe, and are joined by Great and Little SUPEE from the W. and *Cold River* from the N. ence, after running a S. courſe, it turns SSE., l then ſuddenly bends to the E., croſſes the te of Maine, and falls into the ſea, where it ms SACO BAY. It is navigable only for about niles up to SACO FALLS; but carries floats 50 es above them. In 1775, a new river burſt in- the Saco, and ſtill continues to fill it; a branch it is named *Ellis's River*.

(2.) SACO BAY. See § 1, above.

(3.) SACO FALLS, a cataract on the above river, ound which it is not navigable. Below the ca- ract its waters are divided by *Indian Iſland*; o- r which there is a poſt road, being connected th the continent by a bridge on each ſide. A at number of mills are erected here; to which s are floated down the Saco from 50 miles a- ve. Veſſels can come quite up to the mills to e in the lumber. Four millions feet of pine rds were annually ſawed at theſe mills before American War.

(1.) * SACRAMENT. *n. ſ.* [*ſacrament*, Fr. *ſa- mentum*, Lat.] 1. An oath; any ceremony pro- cing an obligation. 2. An outward and viſible n of an inward and ſpiritual grace.—As often as mention a *ſacrament*, it is improperly under- od; for in the writings of the ancient fathers articles which are peculiar to chriſtian faith, all ties of religion containing that which ſenſe or ural reaſon cannot of itſelf diſcern, are moſt mmonly named *ſacraments*; our reſtraint of the rd to ſome few principal divine ceremonies, ſorteth in every ſuch ceremony two things, the ſtance of the ceremony itſelf, which is viſible; and beſides that, ſomewhat elſe more ſecret, in re- ference whereunto we conceive that ceremony to be a *ſacrament*. *Hooker*. 3. The euchariſt; the holy communion.—

Ten thouſand French have ta'en the *ſacrament*
To rive their dangerous artillery
Upon no Chriſtian ſoul but Engliſh Talbot. *Shak.*
As we have ta'en the *ſacrament*,
We will unite the white roſe with the red. *Shak.*

—Before the famous battle of Creſſy, he ſpent the greateſt part of the night in prayer; and in the morning received the *ſacrament*, with his ſon, and the chief of his officers. *Addiſon*.

(2.) SACRAMENT is derived from the Latin *ſacramentum*, which ſignifies an oath, particularly the oath taken by ſoldiers to be true to their country and general. The words of it, according to Polybius, were, *obtemperaturus ſum et facturus quicquid mandabitur ab imperatoribus juxta vires*.—The word was adopted by the writers of the Latin church, and employed, perhaps with no great propriety, to denote thoſe ordinances of religion by which Chriſtians came under an obligation, equally ſacred with that of an oath, to obſerve their part of the covenant of grace, and in which they have the aſſurance of Chriſt that he will fulfil his part of it. Of ſacraments, in this ſenſe of the word, Proteſtant churches admit of but two; and it is not eaſy to conceive how a greater number can be made out from Scripture, if the definition of a ſacrament be juſt which is given by the church of England. By that church, the meaning of the word is declared to be "an outward and viſible ſign of an inward and ſpiritual grace given unto us, ordained by Chriſt himſelf as a means whereby we receive the ſame, and a pledge to aſſure us thereof." According to this definition, baptiſm and the Lord's Supper are certainly ſacraments; for each anſwers the definition in the fulleſt ſenſe of the words. (See BAPTISM and SUPPER OF THE LORD.) The Romaniſts, however, add to this number *confirmation*, *penance*, *extreme unction*, *ordination*, and *marriage*, holding in all ſeven ſacraments; but two of thoſe rites not being peculiar to the Chriſtian church cannot be *Chriſtian* ſacraments, in contradiſtinction to the ſacraments or obligations into which men of all religions enter. Marriage was inſtituted from the creation; (ſee MARRIAGE;) and PENANCE or REPENTANCE has a place in all religions which teach that God is merciful, and men fallible.—The external ſeverities impoſed upon penitents by the church of Rome (ſee PENANCE) may indeed be in ſome reſpects peculiar to the diſcipline of that church, though the penances of the Hindoos are certainly as rigid; but none of theſe ſeverities were ordained by Chriſt, as the pledge of an inward and ſpiritual grace; nor do they bring men under obligations analogous to the meaning of the word *ſacramentum*. Confirmation has a better title to the appellation, than any of the other five; though it certainly was not conſidered as ſuch by the earlieſt writers of the Chriſtian church, nor does it appear to have been ordained by Chriſt himſelf. (See CONFIRMATION.) Ordination is by many churches conſidered as a very important rite; but as it is not adminiſtered to *all* men, nor has any particular form appropriated to it in the New Teſtament,

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t cannot be conſidered as a Chriſtian ſacrament conferring grace neceſſary to ſalvation. Extreme unction is a rite which took its riſe from the miraculous powers of the primitive church, vainly claimed by the ſucceeding clergy. (See ORDINATION, § 2; and UNCTION.) Theſe conſiderations ſeem to have ſome weight with the Romiſh clergy themſelves; for they call the euchariſt, by way of eminence, the *holy ſacrament*. (See HOST, § 4.) Numerous as the ſacraments of the Romiſh church are, a ſect of Chriſtians ſprung up in England early in the 18th century who increaſed their number. The founder was a Dr Deacon of Mancheſter, where the remains of it ſubſiſted very lately, and probably ſtill do ſo. According to theſe men, every *rite* in the book called the *Apoſtolical Conſtitutions* was certainly in uſe among the apoſtles themſelves. Some, however, they make a diſtinction between the greater and the leſſer ſacraments. The greater ſacraments are baptiſm and the Lord's ſupper. The leſſer are no fewer than ten, viz. five belonging to baptiſm, *exorciſm, anointing with oil, the white garment, a taſte of milk and honey*, and *anointing with chriſm or ointment*. The other five are, *the ſign of the croſs, impoſition of hands, unction of the ſick, holy orders*, and *matrimony*. Of the nature of theſe leſſer ſacraments, we need give no account.—The ſect which taught them, if not extinguiſhed, is in its laſt wane. It has produced, however, one or two learned men; and its founder's *Full, True, and Comprehenſive View of Chriſtianity*, in two Catechiſms, is a work which the Chriſtian antiquary will read with pleaſure for information, and the philoſopher for the materials which it contains for meditation on the workings of the human mind. It was publiſhed in 8vo, in 1748.

(3.) SACRAMENT, CONGREGATION OF THE HOLY, a religious eſtabliſhment formed in France, whoſe founder was Arthemius, biſhop of Bethlehem, and which, in 1644, received an order from Urban VIII. to have always a number of eccleſiaſtics ready to exerciſe their miniſtry among pagan nations, wherever the pope, or congregation *de propaganda*, ſhould appoint.

(4.) SACRAMENT, St, in geography, the SW. ſettlement of the Portugueſe, in Brazil, on the S. bank of the Plata, oppoſite Buenos Ayres. It was taken by the Spaniards, in 1762, but reſtored at the peace, in 1763.

* SACRAMENTAL. *adj.* [*ſacramental*, Fr. from *ſacrament*.] Conſtituting a ſacrament; pertaining to a ſacrament.—To make complete the outward ſubſiſtence of a ſacrament, there is required an outward form, which form *ſacramental* elements receive from *ſacramental* words. *Hooker.*—The words of St Paul are plain; and whatever interpretation can be put upon them, it can only vary the way of the *ſacramental* efficacy. *Taylor.*

* SACRAMENTALLY. *adv.* [from *ſacramental*.] After the manner of a ſacrament.—My body is *ſacramentally* contained in this ſacrament of bread. *Hall.*—The law of circumciſion was meant by God *ſacramentally* to impreſs the duty of ſtrict purity. *Hammond.*

SACRAMENTARIANS, *n. ſ.* a general name given to all ſuch as have publiſhed or held erroneous doctrines of the ſacrament of the Lord's Supper. The term is chiefly applied among Roman Catholics, by way of reproach, to the Lutherans, Calviniſts, and other Proteſtants.

SACRAMENTARY, *n. ſ.* an ancient Roman church-book, which contains all the prayers and ceremonies practiſed at the celebration of the ſacraments. It was written by pope Gelaſius, and afterwards reviſed, corrected, and abridged, by St Gregory.

SACRANI, a people of Italy in Latium, who aſſiſted Turnus againſt Æneas. They were deſcended from the Pelaſgi. *Virg. Æn.* vii. v. 795.

SACRA QUERCU, Franciſcus and Thoma, Dr. See HOLYOAK.

SACRA VIA, a celebrated ſtreet of ancient Rome, where the treaty was made between Romulus and Tatius. It led from the amphitheatre to the capitol, through the temple of PEACE. *Liv.* i. 13.

SACRE, or SAKER, in ornithology, the name of a ſpecies of falcon, called by authors *falco ſacer*, and differently deſcribed by different authors; but by all agreed to be an extremely bold and ſtrong bird. It is a native of the northern regions of Europe; and a variety, called by ſome writers *ſpeckled partridge hawk*, is found at Hudſon's bay, North America.

(1.) * SACRED. *adj.* [*ſacre*, Fr. *ſagr*, Lat.

1. Immediately relating to God.—

Wolves ſhall ſucceed for teachers, grievous wolves,
Who all the *ſacred* myſteries of Heav'n
To their own vile advantages ſhall turn. *Milton.*
Before me lay the *ſacred* text,
The help, the balm of ſouls perplex'd. *Prior.*

2. Devoted to religious uſes; holy.—Thoſe who came to celebrate the ſabbath, made a conſcience of beſtowing themſelves for the honour of the moſt *ſacred* day. *Mace.*—

They with wine-off'rings pour'd and *ſacred* feaſt,
Shall ſpend their days with joy unblam'd. *Milton.*

This temple and his holy ark,
With all his *ſacred* things. *Milton.*

3. Dedicated; conſecrate; conſecrated: with *to.*—

O'er its eaſtern gate was rais'd above
A temple, *ſacred* to the queen of love. *Dryden.*

4. Relating to religion; theological.—

Smit with the love of *ſacred* ſong. *Milton.*

5. Entitled to reverence; awfully venerable.—

In thee concentring all their precious beams
Of *ſacred* influence. *Milton.*
Poet and ſaint, to thee alone were giv'n
The two moſt *ſacred* names of earth and heav'n. *Cowley.*

6. Inviolable, as if appropriated to ſome ſuperior being.—

The honour's *ſacred*, which he talks on now,
Suppoſing that I lack'd it. *Shakeſpeare.*
How hait thou yielded?
How to violate
The *ſacred* fruit? *Milton.*
Secrets of marriage ſtill are *ſacred* held. *Dryden.*

(2.) SACRED ELIXIR, *Elixir Sacrum.* See PHARMACY, § 194.

(3.) SACRED MAJESTY is applied to the crowned perſon

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ror and to the king of England; yet Loyſeau ys it is blaſphemy. See MAJESTY.

(4.) SACRED PERSONS. Not only kings, but ciates, and prieſts, are reckoned ſacred perſons; bots are only bleſſed.—The deaconhood, ſubaconhood, and prieſthood, are all ſacred orders, d are ſaid to impreſs a ſacred indelible charac-. The cuſtom of conſecrating kings with hoil is derived (ſays Gutlingius) from the Hews; among whom, he agrees with Grotius, it s never uſed but to kings who had not an evi- t right by ſucceſſion. He adds, that the Chriſs emperors never uſed it before Juſtin the nger; from whom he takes it to have paſſed the Goths, &c.

5.) SACRED PLACES. The ancients held a ce ſtruck with thunder as ſa d. In the civil , *ſacred place* chiefly denot s that where a ſon deceaſed has been interred. Churches are erally held as ſacred places by moſt ſects and ties of Chriſtians. The very *walls* are held red by Roman Catholics; and even, among ny Proteſtants, churches are *conſecrated*, and is *made ſacred*, ſo far at leaſt as human prayers produce *holineſs*.

6.) SACRED THINGS are things belonging to d and the church. Church lands, ornaments, c. are held ſacred.—The ſacred college is that the cardinals.

7.) SACRED TINCTURE. See PHARMACY, § 4.

* SACREDLY. *adv.* [from *ſacred*.] Inviola- religiouſly.—When God had manifeſted ſelf in the fleſh; how *ſacredly* did he preſerve privilege? *South*.

* SACREDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ſacred*.] The e of being ſacred; ſtate of being conſecrated eligious uſes; holineſs; ſanctity.—In the ſancy the cloud, and the oracular anſwers, were rogatives peculiar to the *ſacredneſs* of the place. h.—This inſinuates the *ſacredneſs* of power. *Strange*.

SACRIFICABLE. *adj.* [from *ſacrificor*, Lat.] able of being offered in ſacrifice.—Although ftha's vow run generally for the words, whatr ſhall come forth; yet might it be reſtrain- the ſenſe, to whatſoever was *ſacrificable*, juſtly ſubject to lawful immolation, and ſo ld not have ſacrificed either horſe or dog. *Brown*.

SACRIFICATOR. *n. ſ.* [*ſacrificateur*, Fr. *ſacrificus*, Lat.] Sacrificer; offerer of ſacri—Not only the ſubject of ſacrifice is queſtion- , but alſo the *ſacrificator*, which the picture es to be Jephtha. *Brown*.

SACRIFICATORY. *adj.* [from *ſacrificor*,] Offering ſacrifice.

.) * SACRIFICE. *n. ſ.* [*ſacrifice*, Fr. *ſacrifi-*, Lat.] 1. The act of offering to Heaven.— God will ordain religious rites
f *ſacrifice*. *Milton*.
he thing offered to Heaven, or immolated by ct of religion.—
Upon ſuch *ſacrifice*
he gods themſelves throw incenſe. *Shak*.
Make of your prayers one ſweet *ſacrifice*,
nd lift my ſoul to heav'n. *Shak*.
Moloch beſmear'd with blood
Of human *ſacrifice*. *Milton*.
My life if thou preſerv'ſt, my life
Thy *ſacrifice* ſhall be. *Addiſon*.

2. Any thing deſtroyed, or quitted for the ſake of ſomething elſe; as, he made a *ſacrifice* of his friendſhip to his intereſt. 4. Any thing deſtroyed.

(2.) *A* SACRIFICE is an offering made to God on an altar, by means of a regular miniſter, as an acknowledgment of his power, and a payment of homage. Sacrifices (though the term is ſometimes uſed to comprehend all the offerings made to God, or in any way devoted to his ſervice and honour) differ from mere oblations in this, that in a ſacrifice there is a real deſtruction or change of the thing offered; whereas an oblation is only a ſimple offering or gift, without any ſuch change at all: thus, all ſorts of tythes, and firſt fruits, and whatever of men's worldly ſubſtance is conſecrated to God, for the ſupport of his worſhip and the maintenance of his miniſters, are offerings or oblations: and theſe, under the Jewiſh law, were either of living creatures or other things: but ſacrifices, in the more peculiar ſenſe of the term, were either wholly or in part conſumed by fire. They have by divines been divided into bloody and unbloody. Bloody ſacrifices were made of living creatures; unbloody of the fruits of the earth. They have alſo been divided into *expiatory*, *impetratory*, and *euchariſtical*. The firſt kind were offered to obtain of God forgiveneſs of ſins; the ſecond, to procure ſome favour; and the third, to expreſs thankfulneſs for favours already received. Under one or other of theſe heads may all ſacrifices be arranged; though we are told, that the Egyptians had 666 different kinds, a number ſurpaſſing all credibility.

(3.) SACRIFICES, ARGUMENTS AND HYPOTHESES RESPECTING THE ORIGIN OF. Concerning the origin of ſacrifices, very various opinions have been held. By many, the Phœnicians are ſuppoſed to have been the authors of them; though Porphyry attributes their invention to the Egyptians. By modern deiſts, ſacrifices are ſaid to have had their origin in ſuperſtition, which operates much in the ſame way in every country. It is therefore weak, (ſay they,) to derive this practice from any particular people; ſince the ſame mode of reaſoning would lead various nations, without any intercourſe with each other, to entertain the ſame opinions reſpecting the nature of their gods, and the proper means of appeaſing their anger. Men of groſs conceptions imagine their deities to be like themſelves, covetous and cruel. They are accuſtomed to appeaſe an injured neighbour by a compoſition in money; and they endeavour to compound in the ſame manner with their gods, by rich offerings to their temples and to their prieſts. The moſt valuable property of a ſimple people is their cattle. Theſe offered in ſacrifice are ſuppoſed to be fed upon by the divinity, and are actually fed upon by his prieſts. If a crime is committed which requires the puniſhment of death, it is accounted perfectly fair to appeaſe the deity by offering one life for another; becauſe, by ſavages, puniſhment

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is considered as a debt for which a man may compound, and which one man may pay for another. Hence they believe, arose the notions of imputed guilt and vicarious atonement.—Had sacrifices never prevailed in the world but among such gross idolaters as worshipped departed heroes, who were supposed to retain in their state of deification all the passions and appetites of their mortal state, this account of the origin of that mode of worship would have been perfectly satisfactory. We admit, that such mean notions of their gods may have actually led far distant tribes, who could not derive any thing through the channel of tradition, to imagine that beings of human passions and appetites might be appeased or bribed by costly offerings. But we know from the most incontrovertible authority, that sacrifices of the three kinds that we have mentioned were in use among people who worshipped the true God, and who must have had very correct notions of his attributes. Now we think it impossible that such notions could have led any man to fancy that the taking away of the life of a harmless animal, or the burning of a cake or other fruits of the earth in the fire, would be acceptable to a Being self-existent, omnipotent, and omniscient, who can neither be injured by the crimes of his creatures, nor receive any accession of happiness from a thousand worlds. Sensible of the force of such reasoning as this, some persons of great name, who admit the authenticity of the Jewish and Christian sacrifices, and firmly rely on the atonement made by Christ, are yet unwilling to allow that sacrifices were originally instituted by God. Of this way of thinking were St Chrysostom, Spencer, Grotius, and Warburton, as were likewise the Jews Maimonides, R. Levi, Ben Gerson, and Abarbenel. The greater part of these writers maintain, that sacrifices were at first a human institution; and that God, to prevent their being offered to idols, introduced them into his service, though he did not approve of them as good in themselves, or as proper rites of worship. That the infinitely wise and good God should introduce into his service *improper* rites of worship, appears to us to be extremely improbable, that we wonder how such an opinion should ever have entered into the minds of such learned men. Warburton's theory of sacrifice is more plausible. According to this ingenious prelate, sacrifices had their origin in the sentiments of the human heart, and in the ancient mode of conversing by *action* in aid of *speech*. Gratitude to God for benefits received is natural to the mind of man, as well as his bounden duty. *Expiatory*, or *propitiatory* sacrifices had, he thinks, the same origin, and were contrived to express by action an invocation for the continuance of God's favour. "Expiatory sacrifices (he adds) were in their own nature as intelligible, and in practice as natural, as either of the other two. Here some chosen animal precious to the repenting criminal, who deprecates the *loss* who is to be appeased, was offered up and slain at the altar, an action which, in all tongues, speaks to this purpose:—'I confess my transgression at thy footstool, O my God! and with the deepest contrition implore thy pardon. And I own that I myself deserve the death which I now inflict on this animal.' (See *Divine Legation*, B. IX. C. 2.) The system of sacrifice, which his lordship thinks so well supported by the most early movements of simple nature, we admit to be ingenious, but by no means satisfactory. That mankind in the earlier ages of the world were accustomed to supply the deficiencies of their language by expressive gesticulations, we are not inclined to controvert; the custom still prevails among savage nations, or nations half civilized. His lordship, however, is of opinion, and we agree with him, that our first parents were instructed by God to make articulate sounds significant of ideas, notions, and things (see LANGUAGE, *Sect.* III.) and not left to fabricate a language for themselves. That this heaven-taught language would be at first copious, no man will suppose who thinks of the paucity of ideas which those who spoke it had to express: but when we consider its origin, we cannot doubt but that it was precise and perspicuous, and admirably adapted to all the real purposes of life. Among these purposes must surely be included the worship of God as the most important of all. Every sentiment therefore which enters into pious gratitude, invocation, confession, and supplication, the progenitors of mankind were immediately taught to clothe in words the most significant and unequivocal; but we know from Moses, that Cain and Abel, the eldest children of our first parents, worshipped God by the rites of sacrifice: and we cannot suppose that this practice occurred to *them* from their having to fabricate the language taught them by their sires, or to be under the necessity of denoting by action what they could not express by words. Of two chief observances in the Jewish ritual were the SABBATH and SACRIFICES. Though the distinction of weeks was well known over all the eastern world, the Hebrews, during their residence in Egypt, were probably very negligent in their observance of the Sabbath. To enforce a religious observance of that sacred day, it became necessary to inform them of the time and occasion of its first institution, that they might keep it holy in memory of the creation; but, in a country like Egypt, the people were in danger of bestowing sacrifices rather in too high than too low veneration, so that there was not the same necessity for mentioning explicitly the early institution of them. It was sufficient that they knew the divine institution of their own sacrifices, and the purposes for which they were offered. Besides this, there is reason to believe, that, to guard the Hebrews from the infections of the heathen, the rite of sacrificing was loaded with many additions and ceremonies at its 2d institution under Moses. But the bishop thinks that sacrifices had their origin in the light of natural reason. That ignorant pagans, adoring as gods departed heroes, who retained their sensual appetites, might naturally think of appealing such beings with the fat of beasts, and the perfumes of the altar, we have admitted; but that Cain and Abel, who knew that the God whom they adored has neither body, parts, nor passions; that he created and sustains the universe; and that from his very nature he must will the happiness of all his creatures

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uld be led by the light of natural reason to
k of appeasing him, or obtaining favours from
, by putting to death harmless animals, is a
tion which no arguments of his lordship can
read us to admit. Abel's sacrifice was ac-
ted, not because it proceeded from the move-
its of the human mind, but because it was ef-
d through *faith*. The light of natural rea-
however, does not generate faith, but science;
when it fails of that, its offspring is absurdi-
"Faith is the substance of things hoped for,
evidence of things not seen," and comes not
reasoning but by hearing. What things then
e they of which Abel had heard, for which
hoped, and in the faith of which he offered
rifice? Undoubtedly it was a restoration to
immortality which was forfeited by the trans-
ssion of his parents. Of such redemption an
cure intimation had been given to Adam, in
promise that the seed of the woman should
ise the head of the serpent; and it was doubt-
to impress upon his mind in more striking
ours the manner in which this was to be done,
t bloody sacrifices were first instituted. (See
OPHECY.) As long as such rites were thus un-
stood, they constituted a perfectly rational
rship, as they showed the people that the Wa-
of sin is death; but when men sunk into ido-
ry, and lost all hopes of a resurrection from the
d, the slaughtering of animals to appease their
ties was a practice grossly superstitious. It
ed in itself without pointing to any farther
l, and the grovelling worshippers believed, that
their sacrifices they purchased the favour of
r deities. When once this notion was enter-
ed, human sacrifices were soon introduced.
e § 6.) By the Jewish law, these abominable
rings were strictly forbidden, and the whole
al of sacrifice restored to its original purity.

4.) SACRIFICES, ENDS, OBJECTS, AND KINDS THE JEWISH. All Christian churches have, very lately, agreed in believing, that the Jew-sacrifices served, among other uses, for types the death of Christ and the Christian worship. e TYPE.) In this belief all sober Christians a- still, whilst many are of opinion that they re likewise federal rites, as they certainly were sidered by the ancient Romans. (*Liv.* 21, .) Of the various kinds of Jewish sacrifices, d the subordinate ends for which they were of-ed, a full account is given in the books of Mo-. When an Israelite offered a loaf or a cake, priest broke it in two parts; and setting aside t half which he reserved for himself, broke other into crumbs, poured oil, wine, incense, d salt upon it, and spread the whole upon the of the altar. If these offerings were accom-ied with the sacrifice of an animal, they were own upon the victim to be consumed along th it. If the offerings were of the ears of new n, they were parched at the fire, rubbed in the nd, and then offered to the priest in a vessel, o- which he poured oil, incense, wine, and salt, d then burnt it upon the altar, having first ta-n as much of it as of right belonged to himself. he principal sacrifices among the Hebrews con-ted of bullocks, sheep, and goats: but doves d turtles were accepted from those who were not able to bring the other: these animals were to be perfect, and without blemish. The rites of sacrificing were various, and are very minutely described in the books of Moses.

(5.) SACRIFICES, GRECIAN AND ROMAN. The manner of sacrificing among the Greeks and Romans was as follows: In the choice of the victim, they took care that it was without blemish or imperfection; its tail was not to be too small at the end; the tongue not black, nor the ears cleft; and that the bull had never been yoked. The victim being pitched upon, they gilt his forehead and horns, especially if a bull, heifer, or cow. The head they also adorned with a garland of flowers, a woollen infula or holy fillet, whence hung two rows of chaplets with twisted ribands; and on the middle of the body a kind of stole, pretty large, hung down on each side: the lesser victims were only adorned with garlands and bundles of flowers, together with white tufts or wreaths. The victims thus prepared, were brought before the altar; the lesser being driven to the place, and the greater led by an halter; when, if they made any struggle, or refused to go, the resistance was taken for an ill omen, and the sacrifice often delayed. The victim thus brought, was carefully examined, to see that there was no defect in it; then the priest, clad in his sacerdotal habit, and accompanied with the sacrificers and other attendants, and being washed and purified according to the ceremonies prescribed, turned to the right hand, and went round the altar, sprinkling it, and those who were present, with meal and holy water. Then the crier proclaimed with a loud voice, *Who is here?* To which the people replied, *Many and good.* The priest then having exhorted the people to join with him by saying, *Let us pray*, confessed his own unworthiness, acknowledging that he had been guilty of divers sins; for which he begged pardon of the gods, hoping that they would grant his requests, accept the oblations offered, and send them all health and happiness; and to this general form added petitions for such particular favours as were then desired. The priest then took a cup of wine; and having tasted it, caused his assistants to do the like; and then poured forth the remainder between the horns of the victim. Then the priest or the crier, or sometimes the most honourable person in the company, killed the beast, by knocking it down or cutting its throat. If the sacrifice was in honour of the celestial gods, the throat was turned up towards heaven, but if they sacrificed to the heroes or infernal gods, the victim was killed with its throat towards the ground. If by accident the beast escaped the stroke, leaped up after it, or expired with pain and difficulty, it was thought to be unacceptable to the gods. The beast being killed, the priest inspected its entrails, and made predictions from them. They then poured wine and frankincense into the fire, to increase the flame, and then laid the sacrifice on the altar; which in the primitive times was burnt whole to the gods, and thence called an HOLOCAUST; but in after-times, only part of the victim was consumed in the fire, and the remainder reserved for the sacrificers; the thighs, and sometimes the entrails,

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trails, being burnt to their honour, the company feasted upon the rest. During the sacrifice, the priest, and the person who gave the sacrifice, jointly prayed, laying their hand upon the altar. Sometimes they played upon musical instruments in the time of the sacrifice, and on some occasions they danced round the altar, singing sacred hymns in honour of the gods.

(6.) SACRIFICES, HUMAN, an abominable practice, about the origin of which different opinions have been formed. The true account seems to be that which we have given above, § 3. When men had indulged the fancy of bribing their gods by sacrifice, it was natural for them to think of enhancing the value of the *atonement* by the cost and rarity of the offering; and thus at last got to that which they conceived to be the most precious of all, a human sacrifice. "It was customary (says Sanchoniathon, *apud Euseb. præp. Evan. lib.* 4.) in ancient times, in great and public calamities, before things became incurable, for princes and magistrates to offer up in sacrifice to the avenging dæmons the dearest of their offspring." Sanchoniathon wrote of Phœnicia, but the practice prevailed in every nation under heaven of which we have received any ancient account. The Egyptians had it in the early part of their monarchy. The Cretans likewise had it, and retained it for a longer time. The nations of Arabia did the same. The people of Dumah, in particular, sacrificed every year a child, and buried it underneath an altar, which they made use of instead of an idol; for they did not admit of images. The Persians buried people alive. Herodotus tells us that Xerxes, entombed 12 persons quick under ground for the good of her soul. It would be endless to enumerate every city and province, where these dire practices obtained. The Cyprians, the Rhodians, the Phœcians, the Ionians, those of Chios, Lesbos, Tenedos, all had human sacrifices. The natives of the Tauric Chersonesus offered up to Diana every stranger whom chance threw upon their coast. Hence arose that just expostulation of Euripides in his *Iphigenia*, upon the inconsistency of the proceeding. The Pelasgi, in a time of scarcity, vowed the tenth of all that should be born to them for a sacrifice, to procure plenty. Aristomenes the Messenian slew 300 noble Lacedemonians, among whom was Theopompus the king of Sparta, at the altar of Jupiter at Ithome. The Lacedemonians did not fail to make ample returns, and offered the like victims to Mars. Their barbarous festival of the Diamastigosis is well known. (See DIAMASTIGOSIS.) Plutarchus, as quoted by Porphyry says, that of old every Grecian state made it a rule, before they marched against an enemy, to solicit a blessing on their undertakings by human victims. The Romans were accustomed to the like sacrifices. They both devoted themselves to the infernal gods, and constrained others to submit to the same horrid doom. Hence we read in Titus Livius, that, in the consulate of Æmilius Paulus and Terentius Varro, two Gauls, a man and a woman, and two Greeks were buried alive at Rome in the Ox-market. How true it was a sacrifice not originally of Roman institution; yet was often practised there, by public authority. Plutarch mentions a like instance a few years before, in the consulship of Flaminius and Furius. Caius Varius offered up his own daughter for a victim to the Dii Averruncі, to procure success in a war against the Cimbri; as we are informed by Dositheus, quoted by Clemens, and by Plutarch, who says that her name was *Calpurnia*. Marius was a man of a bloody disposition; and therefore murdered what was nearest and dearest to him, to counteract the fearful spells of the enemy, and out do them in their wicked machinery. Cicero mentioning this custom as common in Gaul, tells that it prevailed among the people even at the time he was writing; and Pliny says, that it had then, and not very long, been discouraged. For there was a law enacted, when Lentulus and Crassus were consuls, so late as A. U. C. 657, that there should be *no more* human sacrifices. They were, however, again renewed, though they became not so general. For Augustus Cæsar, when Perusia surrendered during the 2d triumvirate, offered up, upon the Ides of March, 300 persons of the equestrian and senatorial order, to the manes of his uncle Julius Cæsar. Even at Rome this custom was revived: and Porphyry affirms that in his time a man was every year sacrificed at the shrine of Jupiter Latialis. Heliogabalus offered similar victims to the Syrian deity which he introduced among the Romans. The same is said of Aurelian. The Gauls and Germans were so devoted to this shocking custom, that no transaction of any moment was transacted among them without the blood of men. They were offered up to Hesus, Taranis, Thautates, &c. These deities are mentioned by Lucan. The altars of these gods were generally situated in the depth of woods, that the gloom might add to the horror of the operation. The persons devoted were killed by the Druids, who presided at the sacrifice, and performed the cruel offices. Tacitus recitations the cruelty of the Hermundun, in a war with the Catti, wherein they had greatly the advantage; at the close of which they made a general sacrifice of all their prisoners. The remains of the legions under Varus suffered the same fate. There were many places destined for this purpose all over Gaul and Germany; but especially the woods of Arduenna, (now ARDENNES,) and the great Hercynian forest; a wild that extended above 30 days journey in length. The places set apart for this solemnity were held in the utmost reverence. Lucan mentions a grove of this sort near Massilia, which even the Roman soldiers were afraid to violate, though commanded by Cæsar. Claudian compliments Stilicho, that, among other advantages accruing to the Roman armies through his conduct, they could now venture into the awful forest of Hercynia, and follow the chace in those so much dreaded woods. These practices prevailed among all the nations of the north. The Massagetæ, the Scythians, the Getes, the Sarmatians, all the various nations upon the Baltic, particularly the Suevi and Scandinavians, held it as a fixed principle, that their security could not be obtained but at the expence of the lives of others. Their chief gods were THOR and WODEN, whom they thought they could never sufficiently glut with blood. They had

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many celebrated places of worſhip; eſpecin the iſland RUGEN, near the mouth of the ; and in Zeeland, and among the Semnond Naharvalli. But the moſt frequented was ſal; where there was every year a grand ſoty, which continued for 9 days, during which ſacrificed animals of all ſorts: but the moſt table and numerous victims were men. Of none were eſteemed ſo auſpicious a ſacris the prince of the country. When the lot r the king to die, it was received with uni- joy; as it once happened in the time of a e, when they caſt lots, and it fell to king bler to be the people's victim: and he was ingly put to death. Olaus Tretelger, anprince, was burnt alive to Woden. They ot ſpare their own children. Harold the ſon nild, ſlew two of his ſons to obtain (ſays egan) "ſuch a tempeſt at ſea, as ſhould break liperſe the ſhipping of Harold king of Den-." Saxo-Grammaticus mentions a like fact. ills the king Hiquin; and ſpeaks of the vicas two ve y hopeful young princes. An- king ſlew 9 ſons to prolong his own life. Bremenſis, ſpeaking of the awful grove at , where theſe horrid rites were celebrated, that there was not a ſingle tree but was reed, as if gifted with ſome portion of di- becauſe they were ſtained with gore and with human putrefaction. The ſame is obd by Scheiffer in his account of this place. manner in which the victims were ſlaughteras diverſe in different places. Some of the h nations chined them with a ſtroke of an The Celtæ placed the man who was to be d for a ſacrifice upon a block, or an altar, his breaſt upwards, and with a ſword ſtruck ly acroſs the ſternum; then tumbling him ground, from his agonies and convulſions, ll as from the effuſion of blood, they formed ment of future events. The Cimbri ripped the bowels; and from them they pretended ine. In Norway they beat men's brains out an ox-yoke. In Iceland, they daſhed them t an altar of ſtone. In many places they ed them with arrows. After they were they ſuſpended them upon the trees, and em to putrefy. At one time 70 carcaſes of rt were found in a wood of the Scevi. Dith. of Merſburg ſpeaks of a place called *Ledur* eland, where there were every year 99 perſacrificed to the god *Swantowite*. During bloody feſtivals a general joy prevailed, and nets were moſt royally ſerved. They fed, ſed, and gave a looſe to indulgence, which her times was not permitted. Their ſervants numerous, who attended during the term of feaſting, and partook of the banquet. But e cloſe of all, they were ſmothered in the pool, or otherwiſe made away with. On h Tacitus remarks, how great an awe this nſtance muſt neceſſarily infuſe into thoſe were not admitted to theſe myſteries. Theſe unts are handed down from a variety of au- in different ages; many of whom were na- of the countries which they deſcribe, and hich they ſeem ſtrongly attached. The like om prevailed to an exceſſive degree at Mexico, (ſee MEXICO, § 4—6; and MEXITLI,) and even under the mild government of the Peruvians; and in moſt parts of America. In Africa it is ſtill kept up; where, in the inland parts, they ſacrifice ſome of the captives taken in war to their fetiches, to ſecure their favour. Snelgrave was in the king of Dahomé's camp, after his inroad into Ardra and Whidaw; and ſays, that he was a witneſs to the cruelty of this prince, whom he ſaw ſacrifice multitudes to the deity of his nation. The ſame abominable worſhip is likewiſe practiſed in the iſlands viſited by Captain Cook, and others in the South Sea. It ſeems indeed to have prevailed in every country at ſome period, and undoubtedly had the origin we have aſſigned to it. Theſe human ſacrifices, if we except ſome few inſtances, conſiſted of perſons doomed by the chance of war, or aſſigned by lot, to be offered. But among the nations of Canaan, the victims were peculiarly choſen. Their own children, and whatever was neareſt and deareſt to them, were deemed the moſt worthy offering to their god. The Carthaginians, who were a colony from Tyre, carried with them the religion of their country, and inſtituted the ſame worſhip in the parts where they ſettled. It conſiſted in the adoration of ſeveral deities, but particularly of Kronus; to whom they offered human ſacrifices, and eſpecially children. If the parents were not at hand to make an immediate offer, the magiſtrates did not fail to make choice of what was moſt fair and promiſing. Upon a check being received in Sicily, Hamilcar laid hold of a boy, and offered him on the ſpot to Kronus; and at the ſame time drowned a number of prieſts, to appeaſe the deity of the ſea. The Carthaginians, upon a great defeat of their army by Agathocles, imputed their miſcarriages to the anger of this god, whoſe ſervices had been neglected; and ſeized at once 300 children of the prime nobility, and offered them for a ſacrifice; 300 more yielded themſelves voluntarily, and were put to death with the others. The neglect of which they accuſed themſelves, conſiſted in ſacrificing children purchaſed of parents among the poorer ſort, who reared them for that purpoſe, and not ſelecting the moſt promiſing, and the moſt honourable, as had been the cuſtom of old. In ſhort, there were particular children brought up for the altar, as ſheep for the ſhambles; and they were bought and butchered in the ſame manner. But this indiſcriminate way of proceeding was thought to have given offence. The Egyptians choſe the moſt handſome perſons to be ſacrificed. The Albanians pitched upon the beſt man of the community, and made him pay for the wickedneſs of the reſt. The Carthaginians choſe what they thought the moſt excellent, and at the ſame time the moſt dear to them; which made the lot fall heavy upon their children. Kronus, to whom theſe ſacrifices were exhibited, was an oriental deity, the god of light and fire; and therefore always worſhipped with ſome reference to that element. (See PHOENICIA.) This deity was the MOLOCH of the Tyrians and Canaanites, and the *Melech* of the eaſt; the great and principal god, the god of light, of whom fire was eſteemed a ſymbol; and at whoſe ſhrine, inſtead of vile victims

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times, they offered the blood of men. Such was the Kronus of the Greeks, and the Moloch of the Phœnicians: and nothing can appear more ſhocking than the ſacrifices of the Tyrians and Carthaginians, which they offered to this idol. In all emergencies of ſtate, and times of general calamity, they devoted what was moſt valuable for an offering to the god, and particularly to Moloch. But beſides theſe undetermined times of bloodſhed, they had particular feaſons every year, when children were choſen out of the moſt noble families. If a perſon had an only child, it was the more liable to be ſacrificed, as being eſteemed more acceptable to the deity, and more efficacious to the general good. Thoſe who were ſacrificed to Kronus were thrown into the arms of a molten idol, which ſtood in the midſt of a large fire, and was red hot. The arms of it were ſtretched out, with the hands turned upwards, as it were to receive them; yet ſloping downwards, ſo that they dropt from thence into a glowing furnace below. To other gods they were otherwiſe ſlaughtered often by the very hands of their parents. What can be more horrid to the imagination, than to ſuppoſe a father leading the deareſt of all his ſons to ſuch an infernal ſhrine? or a mother the moſt engaging and affectionate of her daughters, juſt riſing to maturity, to be ſlaughtered at the altar of Antaroth or Baal? Juſtin deſcribes this unnatural cuſtom very pathetically. Such was their blood zeal, that this was continually practiſed: and ſo much of natural affection ſtill left unextinguiſhed, as to render the ſcene ten times more ſhocking from the tenderneſs which they ſeemed to expreſs. They embraced their children with great fondneſs, and encouraged them in the gentleſt terms, that they might not be appalled at the ſight of the hellish proceſs; begging of them to ſubmit with chearfulneſs to this feſtival operation. If there was any appearance of a tear ſtarting, or a cry unawares eſcaping, the mother ſmothered it with her kiſſes, that there might not be any ſhow of backwardneſs or conſtraint, but the whole be a free-will offering. Theſe cruel endearments over, they ſtabbed them to the heart, or otherwiſe opened the ſluices of life; and with the blood warm, as it ran, beſmeared the altar and the grim viſage of the idol. Theſe were the cuſtoms which the Iſraelites learned of the people of Canaan, and for which they are upbraided by the Pſalmiſt, (cvi, 34—39.) Theſe cruel rites, practiſed in ſo many nations, made Plutarch doubt, "Whether it would not have been better for the Gaulſ, or for the Scythians, to have had no tradition or conception of any ſuperior beings, than to have formed to themſelves notions of gods who delighted in the blood of men; of gods, who eſteemed human victims the moſt acceptable and perfect ſacrifice? Would it not (ſays he) have been more eligible for the Carthaginians to have had the *atheiſt* Critias, or Diagoras, their lawgiver, at the commencement of their polity, and to have been taught, that there was neither god nor demon, than to have ſacrificed, in the manner they were wont, to the god, whom they adored?" "The mother, (he adds,) who ſacrificed her child, ſtood by, without any ſeeming ſenſe of what ſhe was loſing, and without uttering a groan. If ſhe did eſcape, ſhe loſt all the honour which ſhe propoſed to herſelf in the offering, and the child notwithſtanding ſlain. All the time of this ceremony, while the children were murdering, there was a noiſe of clarions and tabors ſounding before the idol, that the cries and ſhrieks of the victims might not be heard. "Tell me now (ſays Plutarch,) if the monſters of old, the Typhons and the giants, were to expel the gods, and rule the world in their ſtead; could they require a ſervice more horrid than theſe infernal rites of ſacrifices?"

(7.) SACRIFICES, ISLAND OF, an iſland on the W. coaſt of New Mexico, 12 miles from the iſle of Coiula.

(1.) * *To* SACRIFICE. *v. a.* [*ſacrifier*, Fr. *ſacrifico*, Lat.] 1. To offer to Heaven; to immolate as an atonement or propitiation: with *to*.—

Alarbus' limbs are lopt,
And intrails feed the *ſacrificing* fire.

This blood, like *ſacrificing* Abel's, cries
To me for juſtice. *Shakeſpeare's Richard III.*

—I *ſacrifice to* the Lord all that openeth the matrix, being males. *Ex.* xiii. 15.—

Men from the herd or flock
Of *ſacrificing* bullock, lamb, or kid.

2. To deſtroy or give up for the ſake of ſomething elſe: with *to*.—'Tis a ſad contemplation, to ſee ſhould *ſacrifice* the peace of the church to vain curioſity. *Decay of Piety.*—The great rule, To do as one would be done to, ſtands contrary to that intereſt men *ſacrifice* to when they break it. *Locke.*—

Syphax loves you, and would *ſacrifice*
His life, nay more, his honour, *to* your love.

—A great genius ſometimes *ſacrifices* both to *Dryden.* 3. To deſtroy; to kill. 4. To ſlaughter with rites.—

Condemn'd to *ſacrifice* his childiſh years
To babbling ign'rance, and *to* empty fears.

(2.) * *To* SACRIFICE. *v. n.* To make offering; to offer ſacrifice.—He that *ſacrificeth* of wrongfully gotten, his offering is ridiculous. *Eccluſ.* xxxiv. 18.—Let us go to *ſacrifice* to the Lord. *Ex.* iii. 18.—

Some miſchief is befallen
To that meek man who well had *ſacrificed*.

* SACRIFICER. *n. ſ.* [from *ſacrifice*.] One who offers ſacrifice; one that immolates.—

Let us be *ſacrificers*, but not butchers.
When ſome brawny *ſacrificer* knocks

Before an altar red, an ox'd ox.

—The prieſt is veiled after the manner of the Roman *ſacrificers*. *Addiſon.*

* SACRIFICIAL. *adj.* [from *ſacrifice*.] Performing ſacrifice; included in ſacrifice.—

Rain *ſacrificial* whirl'ring in his ears.

—Tertullian's obſervation upon theſe *ſacrificial* rites, is pertinent to this place. *Taylor.*

* SACRIFICK. *adj.* [*ſacrificus*, Lat.] Employed in ſacrifice.

(1.) * SACRILEGE. *n. ſ.* [*ſacrilege*, Fr. *ſacrilegium*, Lat.] The crime of appropriating to himſelf what is devoted to religion; the crime of robbing Heaven; the crime of violating or profaning things ſacred.—

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What *sacrilege* hath such a saint disgrac'd? *Sidney.*

The hid treasures in her sacred tomb
With *sacrilege* to dig. *Fairy Queen.*

—We see the vengeance of God upon some families, raised upon the ruins of churches, and enriched with the spoils of *sacrilege*. *South.*

(2.) SACRILEGE means also the crime of alienating to laymen, or common purposes, what was given to religious persons and pious uses.

* SACRILEGIOUS. *adj.* [*sacrilegus*, Lat. from *sacrilegium*.] Violating things sacred; polluted with the crime of sacrilege.—To *sacrilegious* perjury should I be betrayed, I should account it greater misery. *King Charles.*—

By vile hands to common use debas'd,
With *sacrilegious* taunt. *Prior.*

Still green with bays each ancient altar stands,
Above the reach of *sacrilegious* hands. *Pope.*

—Blasphemy is a malediction, and a *sacrilegious* detraction from the Godhead. *Aylisse.*

* SACRILEGIOUSLY. *adv.* [from *sacrilegious*.] With sacrilege.—It was for *sacrilegiously* pillaging and invading God's house. *South.*

* SACRING. *part.* [This is a particle of the French *sacrer*. The verb is not used in English.] Consecrating.—

I'll startle you,
Worse than the *sacring* bell. *Shak. Hen.* VIII.

—The *sacring* of the kings of France is the sign of their sovereign priesthood as well as kingdom. *Temple.*

(1.) * SACRIST. } *n. s.* [*sacristain*, French.]
(2.) * SACRISTAN. } He that has the care of the utensils or moveables of the church.—A *sacrist* or treasurer are not dignitaries in the church of common right, but only by custom. *Ayliffe's Parergon.*

(2.) SACRISTAN is the same with SEXTON.

(1.) * SACRISTY. *n. s.* [*sacristie*, Fr.] An apartment where the consecrated vessels or moveables of a church are reposited.—

A sconce that hung on high,
With tapers fill'd to light the *sacristy*. *Dryd.*

—A third apartment should be a kind of *sacristy* for altars. *Addison.*

(2.) SACRISTY is the same with VESTRY.

SACROBOSCO, Joannes De, or John Holywood, or Halifax, a celebrated mathematician of the 13th century, said by English biographers to have been born at Halifax in Yorkshire, but both Scots and Irish writers claim him as their countryman. After receiving his education at Oxford, he entered into orders, and went to Paris, where he died in 1256. He wrote 1. *De Sphæra Mundi*: 2. *De Anni Ratione*: 3. *De Algorismo*.

SACY, Lewis Isaac. See MAISTRE, N° 2.

* SAD. *adj.* [Of this word, so frequent in the language, the etymology is not known. It is probably a contraction of *sagged*, heavy, burthened, overwhelmed, from *To sag*, to load.] 1. Sorrowful; full of grief.—Do you think I shall not love a *sad* Pamela so well as a joyful? *Sidney.*—

One from *sad* dismay
Recomforted. *Milton.*

The hapless pair
Satin their *sad* discourse and various plaint. *Milt.*

Th' angelic guards ascended, mute and *sad*. *Milton.*

I now must change
Those notes to tragick; *sad* task! *Milton.*

With sails outspread we fly th' unequal strife;
Sad for their loss, but joyful of our life. *Pope.*

2. Habitually melancholy; heavy; gloomy; not gay; not cheerful.—It dissipateth those *sad* thoughts and sorrows, which the darkness both begetteth and maintaineth. *Raleigh.*—

See in her cell *sad* Eloisa spread. *Pope.*

3. Gloomy; shewing sorrow or anxiety by outward appearance.—Be not as the hypocrites of a *sad* countenance. *Matt.*—

Sky lour'd, and muttering thunder, some *sad* drops
Wept at completing of the mortal sin. *Milton.*

4. Serious; not light; not volatile; grave.—

He with utterance grave, and countenance *sad*,
From point to point discours'd. *Spenser.*

—The lady Katharine, a *sad* and religious woman. *Bacon.*—If it were an embassy of weight, choice was made of some *sad* person of known judgment and experience. *Bacon.*—

A *sad* wife valour is the brave complexion
That leads the van. *Herbert.*

5. Afflictive; calamitous.—

Tending to some relief of our extremes,
Or end, though sharp and *sad*, yet tolerable. *Milton.*

6. Bad; inconvenient; vexatious. A word of burlesque complaint.—These qualifications make him a *sad* husband. *Addison.* 7. Dark coloured. —Crystal, in its coarse pieces, is of a *sadder* hue than the powder of Venice glass. *Brown.*—I met him accidentally in London in *sad* coloured clothes. *Walton.*—Woad, or glastum, though of itself it dye but a blue, yet it is used to prepare cloth for green, and many of the *sadder* colours. *Boyle.*—Woad or wade is used by the dyers to lay the foundation of all *sad* colours. *Mort. Husb.* 8. Heavy; weighty; ponderous.—

His hand, more *sad* than lump of lead. *F. Q.*

9. Cohesive; not light; firm; close.—Chalky lands are naturally cold and *sad*. *Mort.*

SADDEL, [from *Sagairt*, Gael, *priest*, and *dail*, a *plain*, q. d. Priest's plain,] a parish of S. Kintyre in Argyllshire; on the E. coast of Kintyre, united with that of SKIPNESS, and both formerly united with those of KILLEAN and KILCALMONELL. The two united parishes extend 25 miles in length and about 2 in breadth. The surface is rough and hilly, fitter for pasture than tillage; but on the coast and in the valleys there are considerable fields of arable land, of a good soil and fertile. The ruinous abbey of Saddel, was a magnificent building, erected in 1160, by Somerled Lord of Kintyre and the Isles, for the Cistertian monk. It is 136 feet long, by 24 broad. The population, in 1792, was 1341; the decrease 28, since 1755. The roads are good. There are 7 large and 12 small rivers, which have 11 bridges over them. The herring fishery employs about 300 men. The herrings are reckoned uncommonly delicate. Relics of Danish forts are numerous. The most considerable is the castle of Aird at Carradell, on a high rock near the sea; 24 feet long and 72 broad.

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* *To* SADDEN. *v. a.* [from *sad.*] 1. To make sad; to make sorrowful. 2. To make melancholy; to make gloomy.—

Her gloomy presence *saddens* all the scene. *Pope.*

3. To make dark coloured. 4. To make heavy; to make cohesive.—Marl is binding, and *saddening* of land is the great prejudice it doth to clay lands. *Mortimer.*

SADDER, or SAADHI. See SAADHI.

(1.) * SADDLE. *n. s.* [*sadl*, Sax. *sadel*, Dutch.] The seat which is put upon the horse for the accommodation of the rider.—His horse hipped, with an old moth-eaten *saddle*. *Shak.*—The law made for apparel, and riding in *saddles*, after the English fashion, is penal only to Englishmen. *Davies.*—

One hung a pole-ax at his *saddle* bow. *Dryd.*

The vent'rous knight is from the *saddle* thrown. *Dryden.*

(2.) SADDLE, is by some derived from *Sadile*, Lat. *a Seat.*

(3.) *A* SADDLE FOR HUNTING, is composed of two bows, two bands, fore-bolsters, pannels, and saddle-straps; and the great saddle has, besides these parts, corks, hind-bolsters, and a trousse-quin. The pommel is common to both.

* *To* SADDLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To cover with a saddle.—I will *saddle* me an ass. 2 *Sam.*—

Rebels, by yielding, do like him, or worse,
Who *saddled* his own back to shame his horse. *Cleaveland.*

No man, sure, e'er left his house,
And *sadd'l'd* Bail with thoughts so wild,
To bring a midwife to his spouse,
Before he knew she was with child. *Prior.*

2. To load; to burthen.—

Resolved for sea, the slaves thy baggage pack,
Each *sadd'l'd* with his burden on his back. *Dryd.*

(1.) SADDLE-BACK, an island in Hudson's Bay. Lon. 68. 13. W. Lat. 67. 7. N.

(2.) SADDLE-BACK, a mountain of Cumberland, on the E. side of Lorton valley.

* SADDLEBACKED. *adj.* [*saddle* and *back.*] Horses, *saddlebacked*, have their backs low, and a raised head and neck. *Farrier.*

* SADDLEMAKER. } *n. s.* [from *saddle.*] One
* SADDLER. } whose trade is to make saddles.—

To pay the *saddler* for my mistress' crupper;
The *saddler* had it. *Shak.*

—The utmost exactness in these belongs to farriers, *saddlers*, and smiths. *Digby.*—The smith and the *saddler*'s journeyman ought to partake of your master's generosity. *Swift.*

SADDUCEES, a famous sect among the ancient Jews, which consisted of persons of great quality and opulence. Respecting their origin there are various opinions. Epiphanius, and others contend, that they took their rise from Dositheus a sectary of Samaria, and their name from the Hebrew word צדק *just*, from the great justice and equity which they showed in their actions; a derivation which neither suits the word *Sadducee* nor the general character of the sect. In the Jewish Talmud we are told, that the Sadducees derived their name from SADOC, or ZADOC, and that the sect arose about 260 years before Christ, in the time of Antigonus of Socho, president of the Sanhedrim at Jerusalem, and teacher of the law. He had often, in his lectures, taught his scholars, that they ought not to serve God as slaves do their masters, from the hopes of a reward, but merely out of filial love for his own sake; from which Sadoc and Baithus inferred that there were no rewards after this life. They therefore separated from their master, and taught that there was no resurrection nor future state. This new doctrine quickly spread, and gave rise to the sect of Sadducees, which in many respects resembled the EPICUREANS. Dr Prideaux thinks, that the Sadducees were at first no more than what the Karaites are now; that is, they would not receive the traditions of the elders, but stuck to the written word only; and the Pharisees being great promoters of those traditions, these two sects became opponents. See *Prideaux's Conn.* part. ii. 2. and 3. and see also PHARISEES and KARAITES. Afterwards the Sadducees imbibed other doctrines, which rendered them a sect truly impious; for they denied the resurrection of the dead, and the existence of angels, and of the spirits of souls of men departed. (Mat. xxii. 23. Acts xxiii. 8.) They held, that there is no spiritual being but God only; that as to man, this world is his all. They did not deny but that we had reasonable souls: but they maintained that these were mortal; and that what is said of the existence of angels, and of a future resurrection, is nothing but illusion. It is also said that they thought God corporeal, and that they rejected the prophecies. It is difficult to apprehend how they could deny the being of angels, and yet receive the books of Moses, where such frequent mention is made of angels, and of their appearances. The Sadducees observed the law themselves, and caused it to be observed by others, with the utmost rigour. They admitted of none of the traditions, explications, or modifications of the Pharisees; they kept only to the text of the law; and maintained that only what was written was to be observed. The Sadducees are accused of rejecting all the books of Scripture except those of Moses. But Scaliger vindicates them from this reproach, and observes, that they did not appear in Israel till after the canon was completed; and that if they had been to choose out of the canonical Scriptures, the Pentateuch was less favourable to them than any other book, since it often mentions angels and their apparitions. Besides, the Sadducees were present in the temple, where the books of the prophets were daily read, and were in the chief employments of the nation; many of them were even priests. Menasseh Ben Israel says expressly, that they did not reject the prophets, but that they explained them in a sense very different from that of the other Jews. Josephus assures us, that they denied destiny or fate; alleging, that these were only sounds void of sense, and that all the good or evil that happens to us is in consequence of the good or evil side we have taken, by the free choice of our will. They said also, that God was far removed from doing or knowing evil, and that man was the absolute master of his own actions. Yet it is certain they were not only tole-

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rated among the Jews, but were admitted to the high-priesthood itself. John Hyrcanus, high-priest, separated from the Pharisees, and went over to the sect of Sadoc; and gave strict command to the Jews, on pain of death, to receive the maxims of this sect. Aristobulus and Alexander Janæus, sons of Hyrcanus favoured the Sadducees; and Maimonides assures us, that under Alexander Jannæus, they possessed all the offices of the Sanhedrim, and that there only remained of the party of the Pharisees, Simon the son of Secra. Caiphas, who condemned Jesus Christ, was a Sadducee; (Acts, v. 17. iv. 1.) as well as Ananus the younger, who put to death St James. The modern Jews hold as heretics that small number of Sadducees that are among them. See *Serrar Trinitat. Menasse ben Israel, de Resurrect. mortuorum; Basnage's Hist. of the Jews*, and *Calmet't Dissert. upon the Sects of the Jews* before *the Commentary of St Mark*. The sect of the Sadducees was much reduced by the destruction of Jerusalem, and by the dispersion of the Jews; but it revived afterwards. At the beginning of the 3d century it was so formidable in Egypt, that Ammonius, Origen's master, wrote against them, or rather against the Jews, who tolerated the Sadducees, though they denied the fundamental points of their religion. The emperor Justinian mentions the Sadducees in one of his acts, banishes them out of his dominions, and condemns them to the severest punishment, as people that maintained theistical and impious tenets. Annus, or Ananus, disciple of Juda, son of Nachman, a famous rabbin of the 8th century, declared himself in favour of the Sadducees, and strenuously defended them, as did also, in the 12th century, Alpharag, a Spanish rabbin. This doctor wrote against the Pharisees, and maintained, that the purity of Judaism was only to be found among the Sadducees; that the traditions avowed by the Pharisees were useless; and that the ceremonies, which they had multiplied without end, were an insupportable yoke. The rabbi Abraham Ben David Talieri replied to Alpharag, and supported the sect of the Pharisees by two great arguments, that of their universality and that of their antiquity. He proved their antiquity by a succession from Adam down to 1167; and their universality, because the Pharisees are spread over all the world, and are found in all the synagogues. There are still Sadducees in Africa and in several other places.

SADJAKLU, a town of Turkey, on the borders of Phrygia, anciently called SAGALASSUS.

SADLEIR, Sir Ralph, an eminent English statesman, descended of an ancient family, seated at Hackney in Middlesex, where he was born in 1507. He was educated under Thomas Cromwell Earl of Essex, and married Margaret Mitchell, laundress to the Earl, in the belief that her husband Matthew Barre was dead; which rendered an act of Parliament (37 Hen. VIII.) necessary to legitimate his children. He became secretary to the Earl, and wrote many papers on State affairs; which pleasing K. Henry, he appointed him master of the great wardrobe: afterwards a privy councillor, and at last secretary of state. He also knighted him and sent him into Scotland, in 1540, as ambassador to James V. to propose a reformation of religion, and in 1543, to the States, to propose a marriage between Pr. Edward and the young queen of Scots; both of which embassies proved fruitless. Edward VI. made him treasurer for the army, and he distinguished himself by his valour so much at the battle of Musselburgh, Sept. 10, 1547, that he was made a knight banneret. In that battle, he took the Scots royal standard. During the reign of Mary, he resigned, and lived privately at his manor at Standon; but Elizabeth made him a privy councillor on her accession; and chancellor of Lancaster for life. In 1586, he was one of the commissioners on the trial of our Q. Mary. He died at Standon, March 30, 1587, aged 80: leaving 3 sons, 4 daughters, and 22 manors; with the character of a faithful friend to the reformation, and to his country.

(1.) SADLER, Anthony, D. D. an eminent English divine; born at Chilton, in Wiltshire, in 1610. He took his degree in 1665, and was appointed one of the king's chaplains by Charles II. He died in 1680.

(2.) SADLER, John, an English lawyer, descended from an ancient family in Shropshire; born in 1615; and educated at Cambridge, where he became eminent for his knowledge in the oriental languages. He removed to Lincoln's-Inn, where he made no small progress in the study of the law; and in 1644 was admitted one of the masters in chancery, and one of the two masters of requests. In 1649 he was chosen town-clerk of London, and published his *Rights of the Kingdom*. He was greatly esteemed by Oliver Cromwell, by whose special warrant he was continued a master in Chancery, when their number was reduced to six. By his interest the Jews obtained the privilege of building a synagogue in London. In 1658 he was made M. P. for Yarmouth; and in 1659 was appointed first commissioner under the great seal with Mr Taylor, Mr Whitelocke, and others, for the probate of wills. In 1660 he published his *Olbia*. Soon after the Restoration, he lost all his employments. In the fire of London in 1666, he was a great sufferer; after which he retired to his seat of Warmwell in Dorsetshire, where he died in 1674.

(3.) SADLER, John, an English dramatic writer. He studied at Emmanuel College, Cambridge; and, in 1640, published a play, with the singular title of *Masquerade de Ciel*.

(4.) SADLER, Thomas, an English poet, born in Shropshire; who published, at Salop, a volume of Poems in 1766.

SADLIER. See SADLEIR.

* SADLY. *adv.* [from *sad*.] 1. Sorrowfully; mournfully.—

With his spirit *sadly* I survive,
To mock the expectations of the world. *Shak.*
His own filial love; a *sadly* pleasing thought. *Dryden.*
He *sadly* suffers in their grief. *Dryden.*

2. Calamitously; miserably.—We may at present easily see, and one day *sadly* feel. *South.*

* SADNESS. *n. s.* [from *sad*.] 1. Sorrowfulness: mournfulness; dejection of mind.—

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The soul receives intelligence
By her near genius of the body's end,
And so imparts a *sadness* to the sense. *Daniel.*
Lest so severe and obstinate a *sadness*
Tempt a new vengeance. *Denham.*
—A passionate regret at sin, a grief and *sadness* of its memory, enter into God's roll of mourners. *Decay of Piety.* 2. Melancholy look.—
Dim *sadness* did not spare
Celestial visages. *Milton.*
3. Seriousness; sedate gravity.—If the subject be mournful, let every thing in it have a stroke of *sadness*. *Dryden.*

SADOC, or ZADOC, a famous Jewish rabbi, and founder of the sect of the SADDUCEES.

SADOLET, James, a polite and learned cardinal, born at Modena in 1477. Leo. X. made him and Peter Bembus his secretaries. Sadolet was soon after made Bp. of Carpentras, near Avignon. He was made a cardinal in 1536, by Paul III. and employed in several negociations and embassies. He died in 1547, not without the suspicion of poison, for corresponding too familiarly with the Protestants, and for testifying too much regard for some of their doctors. His works, which are in Latin, were collected in 1607 at Mentz, in one vol. 8vo. All his contemporaries spoke of him in the highest terms.

SADSBURY, a township of Pennsylvania, in Chester county.

SADURNI, St, a town of Spain, in the province of Catalonia: 13 m. WNW. of Barcelona.

SADUS, a river of ancient India.

SADYATTES, the son of Gyges, king of Lydia, father of Alyattes II. and grandfather of the famous CROESUS. He succeeded Ardysus II. about A. A. C 631; carried on a war against the Milesians for 6 years, and died in 619, in his 13th year.

SAEN, St, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Seine; 7½ miles SW. of Neufchatel.

SÆTABIS, an ancient town of Spain, near the Lucro, seated on a hill, famous for fine linen. *Sil. Ital.* iii, 373.

(1.) * SAFE. *adj.* [*sauf*, French; *salvus*, Latin.] 1. Free from danger.—
Our separated fortune
Shall keep us both the *safer*. *Shak. Macbeth.*
Virbius in th' Egerian grove,
Where then he liv'd obscure, but *safe* from Jove. *Dryden.*
2. Free from hurt.—Put your head into the mouth of a wolf, and when you've brought it out *safe* and sound, talk of a reward. *L'Estr.* 3. Conferring security.—To write the same things to you, to me is not grievous, but to you *safe* *Phil.* iii. 1.—
Ascend; I follow the *safe* guide, the path
Thou lead'st me. *Milton.*
Some smooth, or *safe* sequester'd bay. *Pope.*
4. No longer dangerous: reposited out of the power of doing harm. This is rather a ludicrous meaning.
Banquo's *safe*
——Ay, my good lord *safe* in a ditch: he lies
With twenty trenched gashes on his head. *Shak.*
Our great forbidder *safe*, with all his spies
About him. *Milton.*

(2.) * SAFE. *n. s.* [from the adjective.] A buttery; a pantry. *Ainsw.*

(1.) * SAFECONDUCT. *n. s.* [*saufconduit*, Fr.] 1. Convoy; guard through an enemy's country. 2. Pass; warrant to pass.—A trumpet was sent to sir William Waller, to desire a *safeconduct* for a gentleman. *Clarendon.*

(2.) SAFE-CONDUCT is a security given by a prince under the great seal, to a stranger for his *safe-coming* into and passing out of the realm; the form whereof is in *Reg. Orig.* 25. There are letters of safe-conduct which must be enrolled in chancery; and the persons to whom granted must have them ready to show; touching which there are several statutes. See PREROGATIVE.

(1.) * SAFEGUARD. *n. s.* [*safe* and *guard*. 1. Defence; protection; security.—Trust, that his mercy shall be our *safeguard*. *Hooker.*—
If you do fight in *safeguard* of your wives,
Your wives shall welcome home the conquerors. *Shakesp.*
—Cæsar, where dangers threatened on the one side, and the opinion that there should be in him little *safeguard* for his friends on the other, chose rather to venture upon extremities. *Raleigh.*—Great numbers, have become a protection and a *safeguard* to that altar, at which their ancestors minister. *Atterbury.*—
Thy sword, the *safeguard* of thy brother's throne,
Is now become the bulwark of thy own. *Granville.*
2. Convoy; guard through any interdicted road granted by the possessor. 3. Pass; warrant to pass.—
On *safeguard* he came to me. *Shakespeare.*
—A trumpet was sent to the earl of Essex for a *safeguard* or pass to two lords. *Clarendon.*

(2.) *A* SAFE-GUARD was a protection formerly granted to a stranger who feared violence from some of the king's subjects for seeking his right by course of law.

* *To* SAFEGUARD. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To guard; to protect.—
We have locks to *safeguard* necessaries. *Shakespeare.*

* SAFELY. *adv.* [from *safe*.] 1. In a safe manner; without danger.—Who is there that has the leisure and means to collect all the proofs as *safely* to conclude that he hath a clear and full view? *Locke.*—
All keep aloof, and *safely* shout around. *Dryden.*
2. Without hurt.—*Safely* quit her of her burden and with gentle travel. *Shak.*

* SAFENESS. *n. s.* [from *safe*.] Exemption from danger.—If a man should forebear his food or his business, till he had certainty of the event of what he was going about, he must starve and die disputing. *South.*

* SAFETY. *n. s.* [from *safe*.] 1. Freedom from danger.—
He hath a wisdom that doth guide his valour
To act in *safety*. *Shakespeare's Macbeth.*
2. Exemption from hurt.—
Shall she with *safety* reach her pristine seat,
Find her rest endless. *Prior.*
3. Preservation from hurt.—
Let not my jealousies be your dishonour,
But mine own *safeties*. *Shak. Macbeth.*
4. Custody; security from escape.
Deliver him to *safety*, and return. *Shak.*

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FI, or SAFIA. See SAFIA.

* SAFFLOW. *n. ſ.* A plant.—An herb all *aſſlew*, or baſtard ſaffron, dyers uſe for . *Mortimer's Huſbandry.*

SAFFLOW. See CARTHAMUS.

* SAFFRON. *adj.* Yellow; having the of ſaffron.—

d this companion, with the *ſaffron* face, l and feaſt it at my houſe to-day? *Shak.*

n as the white and red mixt finger'd dame gilt the mountains with her *ſaffron* flame, t my men to Circe's houſe. *Chap. Odyſſey.*

w when the roſy morn began to riſe, wav'd her *ſaffron* ſtreamer. *Dryden.*

* SAFFRON. *n. ſ.* [*ſafran*, French, from Arabick. It was yellow, according to in his Welſh dictionary. *Crocus*, Latin.] t. *Miller.*—

rind your bole and five or ſix ſhives of *ſaffron.* *Peacham.*

SAFFRON, in botany. See CROCUS, N° 2.

i principally cultivated in Cambridgeſhire, t of about 10 miles diameter. The great- t of this tract is an open level country, with cloſures; and the cuſtom is, to crop two and let the land lie fallow the third. Saf- generally planted upon fallow-ground, and, r things being alike, they prefer that which rn barley the year before. The ſaffron d in ſeld on above 3 acres, or leſs than one; ſhooting, the principal thing is, that it be ſpaced, the ſoil not poor, nor a very ſtiff but a temperate dry mould, ſuch as com- lies upon chalk, and is of an hazel colour; , if every thing elſe anſwers, the colour is garded. The ground being choſen, about ay or the beginning of April, it muſt be lly plowed, the furrows being drawn much t gether, and deeper if the ſoil will allow done for any kind of corn; and according- charge is greater. About five weeks after, any time in May, they lay between 20 and ds of dung upon each acre, and having it with great care, they plough it in as be- The ſhorteſt rotten dung is the beſt; and ners, ſpare no pains to make it good, being a proportionable return. About midſum- ey plow a third time, and between every t they leave a broad furrow, which ſerves s a boundary to the ſeveral parcels, and for ing the weeds into at the proper ſeaſon. me of planting is commonly in July. The ſtrument uſed at this time is a ſmall narrow commonly called a *ſpit ſhovel.* The me- thus. One man with his ſhovel raiſes about inches of earth, and throws it before him ſix or more inches. Two perſons, generally n, follow with roots, which they place in rtheſt edge of the trench made by the digger ut 3 inches from each other. As ſoon as gger, has gone once the breadth of the ridge, ins again at the other ſide; and, digging as covers the roots laſt ſet, which makes for another row of roots at the ſame diſtance the firſt. The only dexterity neceſſary in g is, to leave ſome part of the firſt ſtratum th untouched, to lie under the roots; and, ting, to place the roots directly upon their bottom. The quantity of roots planted on an acre is generally about 16 quarters, or 128 buſhels. From the time of planting till September, or ſometimes later, there is no more labour required; but at that time they begin to vegetate, and are ready to ſhow themſelves above ground, which may be known by digging up a few of the roots. The ground is then to be pared with a ſharp hoe, and the weeds raked into the furrows, otherwiſe they would hinder the growth of the ſaffron. In ſome time after, the flowers appear. They are gathered before they are full blown, as well as after, and the proper time for it is early in the morning. The owners of the ſaffron fields get together a ſufficient number of hands, who pull off the whole flowers, and throw them by handfuls into a baſket, and ſo continue till about 11 o'clock. Having then carried home the flowers, they immediately fall to picking out the ſtigmata or chives, and together with them a pretty large proportion of the ſtylus itſelf, or ſtring to which they are attached: the reſt of the flower they throw away. Next morning they return to the field, without regarding whether the weather be wet or dry; and ſo on daily, till the whole crop is gathered.—The next labour is to dry the chives on the kiln. The kiln is built upon a thick plank, that it may be moved from place to place. It is ſupported by 4 ſhort legs; the outſide conſiſts of 8 pieces of wood of 3 inches thick, in form of a quadrangular frame, about 12 inches ſquare at the bottom on the inſide, and 22 on the upper part; which laſt is likewiſe the perpendicular height of it. On the fore ſide is left a hole of about 8 inches ſquare, and 4 inches above the plank, through which the fire is put in; over all the reſt laths are laid pretty thick, cloſe to one another, and nailed to the frame. They are then plaſtered over on both ſides, as are alſo the planks at bottom, very thick, to ſerve for an hearth. Over the mouth is laid a hair-cloth, fixed to the edges of the kiln, and likewiſe two rollers or moveable pieces of wood, which are turned by wedges or ſcrews, to ſtretch the cloth. Inſtead of the hair-cloth, ſome people uſe a net-work or iron-wire, by which the ſaffron is ſooner dried, and with leſs fuel; but the difficulty of preſerving it from burning makes the hair-cloth preferred by the beſt judges. The kiln is placed in a light part of the houſe; and they begin with putting 5 or 6 ſheets of white paper on the hair-cloth, and upon theſe they lay out the wet ſaffron 2 or 3 inches thick. It is then covered with ſome other ſheets of paper, and over theſe lay a coarſe blanket 5 or 6 times doubled, or inſtead of this, a canvas pillow filled with ſtraw; and after the fire has been lighted for ſome time, the whole is covered with a board having a conſiderable weight upon it. At firſt they apply a pretty ſtrong heat, to make the chives *ſweat*, as they call it; and at this time a great deal of care is neceſſary to prevent burning. When it has been thus dried about an hour, they turn the cakes of ſaffron upſide down, putting on the coverings and weight as before. If no ſiniſter accident happens during theſe firſt two hours, the danger is over; and nothing more is requiſite but to keep up a very gentle fire for 24 hours, turning the cake every half hour. That fuel is beſt which yields leaſt

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leaſt ſmoke; for which reaſon charcoal is preferred. The quantity of ſaffron produced at a crop is uncertain. Sometimes 5 or 6 lb. of wet chives are got from one rood, ſometimes not above one or two; and ſometimes not ſo much as is ſufficient to defray the expence of gathering and drying. But it is always obſerved, that about 5 lb. of wet ſaffron go to make 1 lb. of dry for the firſt three weeks of the crop, and 6 lb. during the laſt week. When the heads are planted very thick, 8 lb. of dry ſaffron may at a medium be allowed to an acre for the firſt crop, and 24 lb. for the two remaining ones, the 3d being conſiderably larger than the 2d. To obtain the 2d and 3d crops, the hoeing, gathering, picking, &c. muſt be repeated; and about midſummer, after the 3d crop is gathered, the roots muſt all be taken up and tranſplanted. For taking up the roots, ſometimes the plough is uſed, and ſometimes a forked hoe; and then the ground is harrowed once or twice over. During all the time of plowing, harrowing, &c. 15 or more people will find work enough to follow and gather the heads as they are turned up. The roots are next to be carried to the houſe in ſacks, where they are cleaned and raſed. This labour conſiſts in cleaning the roots thoroughly from earth, decayed old pieces, involucra, or excreſcences, after which they become fit to be planted in new ground, or they may be kept for ſome time, without danger of ſpoiling. At a medium, 24 quarters of clean roots, fit to be planted, may be had from each acre. There ſometimes happens a remarkable change in the roots. As ſoon as they begin to ſhoot upwards, there are commonly 2 or 3 large tap-roots ſent forth from the ſide of the old one, which will run 2 or 3 inches into the ground. At the place where theſe bulbs firſt come out from, the old one will be formed ſometimes, though not always, and the tap-root then decays. The bulb increaſes in bigneſs, and at laſt falls quite off; which commonly happens in April. But often theſe tap-roots produce no bulbs, and remain barren for ever after. All ſuch roots therefore ſhould be thrown away in making a new plantation. This degeneracy of the roots is a diſeaſe for which no cure is as yet known. In purchaſing ſaffron, that kind ought to be choſen which has the broadeſt blades; this being the mark by which Engliſh ſaffron is diſtinguiſhed from the foreign. It ought to be of an orange or fiery-red colour, and to yield a dark yellow tincture. It ſhould be choſen freſh, not above a year old, in cloſe cakes, neither dry nor yet very moiſt, tough and firm in tearing, of the ſame colour within as without, and of a ſtrong, acrid, diffuſive ſmell.

(4.) SAFFRON, in the materia medica, is formed of the ſtigmata of the CROCUS OFFICINALIS, dried on a kiln, and preſſed together into cakes. Of this there are two kinds, the Engliſh and Spaniſh; of which the latter is by far the moſt eſteemed. This drug has been reckoned a very elegant and uſeful aromatic. Beſides the virtues it has in common with other ſubſtances of that claſs, it has been accounted one of the higheſt cordials, and is ſaid to exhilarate the ſpirits to ſuch a degree as, when taken in large doſes, to occaſion a kind of intoxication, immoderate mirth, and involuntary laughter. Saffron is particularly ſerviceable in hyſteric depreſſions proceeding from a cold cauſe or obſtruction of the uterine ſ tions, where other aromatics, even thoſe more generous kind, have little effect. S imparts the whole of its virtue and colour to tified ſpirit, proof ſpirit, wine, vinegar, and ter. A tincture drawn with vinegar loſes of its colour in keeping; the watery and tinctures are apt to grow ſour, and then colour alſo; that made in pure ſpirit perfection for many years.

(5.) * SAFFRON, BASTARD. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] A plant.—This plant agrees with tle in moſt of its characters; but the flo are deſtitute of down. It is cultivated many for dyers. It ſpreads into many ſ each producing a flower, which, when fully is pulled off, and dried, and it is the part ers uſe. *Miller.*

(6.) SAFFRON, BASTARD. See CARTH

(7.) SAFFRON, MEADOW. See COLCHI

(8.) SAFFRON, OF MARS. See CARBO *Index.*

SAFIA, or SAFFI, a commercial town ca, in Morocco, with a caſtle. The P were long in poſſeſſion of it, but left it It is ſurrounded by ſeveral eminences. L W. Lat. 32. 28. N.

(1.) * *To* SAG. *v. a.* To load; to bo

(2.) * *To* SAG. *v. n.* To hang heavy—

The mind I ſay by, and the heart I Shall never *ſag* with doubt.

* SAGACIOUS. *adj.* [*ſagax*, Lat.] of ſcent: with *of*.—

Sagacious of his quarry from ſo far. Nor wanted horns t' inſpire *ſagac*

2. Quick of thought; acute in making ries.—Only *ſagacious* heads light on thoſe vations. *Locke.*

* SAGACIOUSLY. *adv.* [from *ſagac* With quick ſcent. 2. With acuteneſs tion.

* SAGACIOUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ſ* The quality of being ſagacious.

* SAGACITY. *n. ſ.* [*ſagacité*, Fr. *ſ* Lat.] 1. Quickneſs of ſcent. 2. A diſcovery.—It requires too great a *ſag* vulgar minds to draw the line nicely betw tue and vice. *South.*—*Sagacity* finds out the mediate ideas. *Locke.*—They left a great the induſtry and *ſagacity* of after-ages. *L*

SAGADAHOCK, the old name of the NEBECK, in the United States, as well as of part of the diſtrict of Maine.

SAGALASSUS, an ancient town of Pi the borders of Phrygia; now called Sa *Liv.* 38. c. 15.

SAGALINULA. See AMUR.

SAGAMOND, a river of the United St the North-Weſtern Territory, which ri the head waters of the Roche; and after a S. by W. courſe, turns SSE. and falls Illinois, 135 miles from the Miſſiſippi. yards wide at its mouth, and is navigable for above 180 miles.

* SAGAMORE. *n. ſ.* 1. [Among the rican Indians.] A king or ſupreme ruler.

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juice of ſome unknown plant uſed in me-

AGAN, in ſcripture hiſtory, the ſuffragan
y of the Jewiſh high-prieſt. According
writers, he was only to officiate for him
was rendered incapable of attending the
hrough ſickneſs or legal uncleanneſs on
of expiation; or, according to others, he
ſiſt the high-prieſt in the care of the af-
he temple and the ſervice of the prieſts.

SAGAN, a town of Sileſia, and capital of
ality ſo named, belonging to prince Lob-
It is ſtrong and well built; has double
handſome caſtle, a priory of Auguſtine
and a Lutheran ſchool. It is ſeated on
s Bober and Queis, 67 miles NW. of
Lon. 15. 27. E. Lat. 51. 42. N.

NA, or } BAY, a bay of N. America,
NAUM, } on the SW. coaſt of Lake
about 80 miles long, and 20 broad. The
WAY Indians reſide on its banks.

PENUM, in pharmacy, &c. a gum-reſin
to us in two forms; the finer and purer
e granules or ſingle drops; the coarſer
maſſes compoſed of theſe drops of va-
s, cemented together by a matter of the
d. In either caſe, it is of a firm and com-
tance, conſiderably heavy, and of a red-
ur on the outſide, browniſh within, and
a many places with ſmall yellowiſh or
ſpecks. Its ſmell is ſtrong and diſagreea-
taſte acrid and unpleaſant. It is import-
Perſia and the Eaſt Indies. The plant
oduces it is ſuppoſed to be, as Dioſco-
s of the ferula kind, from the ſeeds and
s of the ſtalks ſometimes met with in the
t. Sagapenum is a very great attenuant,
and diſcutient. It is good in all diſor-
he breaſt occaſioned by a tough phlegm.
cuſſes tumors in the nervous parts, and
f in habitual head-achs, when almoſt all
e have failed. Its doſe is from ten grains
ruples; but it is now ſeldom given alone.
n found, however, to do great things in
in obſtructions of the viſcera, particu-
ſpleen; in nervous complaints; and even
ſies. It alſo promotes the menſes, and
e ſecundines; and is an ingredient in the
mithridate, and many other compoſitions
ops.

RIS, or SANGARIS, a river of Aſia, in
riſing from mount Didymus, and falling
Euxine.

TUCK, a river of Connecticut, which
Ridgefield townſhip, Fairfield county;
running SSE. falls into Long Iſland
nd forms the harbour of SAGATUCK.

GE, Alan René LE, an ingenious French
ter, born at Ruys, in Brittany, in 1667.
fine flow of imagination, was a com-
ter of the French and Spaniſh languages,
e ſeveral admired novels in imitation of
iſh authors. Theſe were, *The Bachelor*
nca, 2 vols 12mo; *New Adventures of*
ote, 2 vols 12mo; *The Devil on Two*
vols 12mo; and *Gil Blas*, 4 vols 12mo.
iced alſo ſome comedies, and other pie-
eaſantry; and died in 1747, in a houſe
near Paris, where he ſupported himſelf by writing.

(2.) SAGE, David LE, a French poet, born at Montpelier, and diſtinguiſhed by his genius and irregularities. A Collection of his "Gaſcon Sonnets, Elegies, Satires, and Epigrams," was publiſhed under the title of *The Follies of Le Sage*. He died about 1650.

(3.) SAGE, the rev. John, M. A. a celebrated Scottiſh writer, famous for his claſſical learning, was born, in 1652, in the pariſh of Creich, and county of Fife, where his aneeſtors had lived for 7 generations with great reſpect though with little property. His father was a captain in Lord Duffus's regiment, and fought for his king and country, when Monk ſtormed Dundee on the 30th of Aug. 1651. The iſſue of the civil wars, and the loyalty of captain Sage, left him nothing to beſtow upon his ſon but a liberal education, and his own principles of piety and virtue. In thoſe days the Latin language was taught in the parochial ſchools of Scotland with great ability, and at a ſmall expence. Young Sage having acquired a competent knowledge of that language, his father, without receiving from an ungrateful court any recompenſe for what he had loſt in the cauſe of royalty, was ſtill able to ſend him to the univerſity of St Andrew's, where, after the uſual ſtudies, he was admitted to the degree of M. A. During his reſidence in St Andrew's, he ſtudied the Greek and Roman authors, as well as logic, metaphyſics, and other branches of philoſophy. But the narrowneſs of his fortune compelled him to accept of the office of ſchoolmaſter in the pariſh of Bingry, in Fifeſhire, whence he was ſoon removed to Tippermuir, in Perthſhire. In theſe humble ſtations, though he wanted many of the neceſſaries, and almoſt all the comforts of life, he proſecuted his ſtudies with great ſucceſs; but unhappily imbibed the ſeeds of ſeveral diſeaſes which afflicted him through life, and ſhortened his days From this miſerable drudgery, he was relieved by Mr Drummond of Cultmalundie, who invited him to ſuperintend the education of his ſons, whom he accompanied firſt to the public ſchool at Perth, and afterwards to the univerſity of St Andrew's: At Perth he gained the friendſhip and eſteem of Dr Roſs, afterwards biſhop of Edinburgh; (See ROSS, N° 6.) and at St Andrew's of every man capable of properly eſtimating genius and learning. The education of his pupils was completed in 1684, when his friend Dr Roſs, who had been promoted from the parſonage of Perth to the profeſſorſhip of divinity in the univerſity, recommended him ſo effectually to his uncle, then Abp. of Glaſgow, that he was admitted into orders, and preſented to one of the churches in the city. He was then about 34 years of age, had ſtudied the Scriptures with great aſſiduity, was well acquainted with eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, and the writings of the ancient fathers; was thorough maſter of ſchool divinity, and the modern controverſies between the Romiſh and reformed churches, as well as between the Calviniſts and Remonſtrants. Mr Sage was, immediately on his admiſſion into orders, appointed clerk to the ſynod or preſbytery of Glaſgow; an office of great truſt and reſpectability. During

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the

the eſtabliſhment of epiſcopacy in Scotland, from the reſtoration till 1690, the authority of the biſhops, though they poſſeſſed the ſole power of ordination, was very limited in the government of the church. They did every thing with the conſent of the preſbyters over whom they preſided. Dioceſan ſynods were held at ſtated times for purpoſes of the ſame kind with thoſe which employ the meetings of preſbyteries at preſent, (ſee PRESBYTERIANS,) and the only prerogative which the biſhop enjoyed was to be permanent preſident, with a negative voice over the deliberations of the aſſembly. The acts of each ſynod, and ſometimes the charge delivered by the biſhop at the opening of it, were regiſtered in a book kept by the clerk, who was always one of the moſt eminent of the dioceſan clergy. Mr Sage continued in this office, diſcharging in Glaſgow all the duties of a clergyman, in ſuch a manner as endeared him to his flock, and gained him the eſteem even of the preſbyterians. While many of his brethren were trimmers in eccleſiaſtical as well as in civil politics, and from profeſſing to be republicans and preſbyterians, had commenced perſecutors of the party they had deſerted, he preſerved a uniform conſiſtency of conduct. He was an epiſcopalian and a royaliſt from conviction; but to perſecution he was at all times an enemy, whilſt he never tamely betrayed through fear what he thought it his duty to maintain. The conſequence was, that in the end of 1688 he was treated by the rabble, who in the weſtern counties of Scotland roſe againſt the friends of prelacy, with greater lenity than his more complying brethren. What they, without apprehenſion of their danger, were torn from their families by a lawleſs force, and many of them perſecuted in the cruelleſt manner, he was privately warned to withdraw from Glaſgow: So much was conſiſtency of conduct reſpected. Mr Sage retired to the metropolis, and carried with him the ſynodical book, which was afterwards demanded by the preſbytery of Glaſgow, but not recovered till, on the death of a nephew of Bp. Roſs, it was found in his poſſeſſion, and reſtored to the preſbytery. Mr Sage had detained it and given it to his friend Mr Roſs, from the fond hope that epiſcopacy would ſoon be re-eſtabliſhed in Scotland; and it was with a view to the reaching of that hope, that, on his leaving Glaſgow, he commenced a keen polemical writer. At Edinburgh he preached a while, till, refuſing to take the oaths of allegiance to the new government, he was obliged to retire for protection to the houſe of Sir William Bruce, ſheriff of Kinroſs, who approved his principles, and admired his virtue. Returning to Edinburgh, in 1695, he was obſerved, and obliged to abſcond. Yet he returned in 1696, when his friend Sir William Bruce was impriſoned as a ſuſpected perſon. He was ſoon forced to take refuge in the hills of Angus, under the name of *Jackſon*. After ſome time, Mr Sage found a ſafe retreat with the counteſs of Callender, who employed him to inſtruct her family as chaplain, and her ſons as tutor. He alſo employed his pen in defending his order, or in expoſing his oppreſſors. When the counteſs had no longer ſons to inſtruct, Sage accepted the invitation of Sir John Stuart of Garntully, who wanted a chaplain. With Sir John he continued till his maſter's learning recommended him to a higher ſtation. On the 25th Jan. 1705, he was conſecrated biſhop by Paterſon, Abp. of Glaſgow, Ramſay of Edinburgh, and Douglas, Bp. of Dunkeld. But in Nov. 1706, his health began to fail. After lingering for many months in Scotland, he went to the waters of Bath in 1709, without ſucceſs. At Bath and at London he remained a year, honoured by the great, and careſſed by the learned. Yet though preſſed to ſtay, he returned to Scotland to his native country, where he wiſhed to die. Though his body was debilitated, he enjoyed with undiminiſhed vigour of mind, in the proſecution of the works of Drummond of Hawthornden, to which the celebrated RUDDIMAN has added. Bp. Sage died at Edinburgh on the 14th of 1711, lamented by his friends, and feared by his adverſaries. His works are, 1. Two Letters concerning the Perſecution of the Epiſcopal Clergy in Scotland, Lond. 1689. 2. An Account of the late Eſtabliſhment of Preſbyterian Government by the Parliament of Scotland, in 1690. Lond. 1695. 3. The Fundamental Charter of Preſbytery, Lond. 1695. 4. The Principles of the Primitive Age with regard to Epiſcopal Power and Juriſdiction, Lond. 1695. 5. A Vindication of the Principles of the Cyprianick Age, Lond. 1701. 6. Remarks on the Letter from a Gentleman in the City, to a Miniſter in the Country, Mr David Williamſon's Sermon before the General Aſſembly, Edin. 1703. 7. A Brief Examination of ſome Things in Mr Meldrum's Sermon preached on the 16th of May 1703, concerning Toleration to thoſe of the Epiſcopal Perſuaſion, Edin. 1703. 8. The Reaſonableneſs of the Reſtoration of thoſe of the Epiſcopal Perſuaſion into, Edin. 1704. 9. The Life of Gavin Douglas, in 1710. 10. An Introduction to Drummond's Hiſtory of the Five Jameſes, Edin.

(4.) * SAGE. *adj.* [*ſage*, Fr. *ſagus*, Lat.] Wiſe; grave; prudent.—

O matron *ſage*, quoth ſhe, I hither come
For
Vane, young in years, but in *ſage* counſels old.
Can you expect that ſhe ſhould be ſo ſage
To rule her blood, and you not rule your rage?

(5.) * SAGE. *n. ſ.* [from the adjective.] A philoſopher; a man of gravity and wiſdom.—

Though you profeſs
Yourſelves ſuch *ſages*; yet know I not
At his birth a ſtar proclaims him ſuch
And guides the eaſtern *ſages*.
For ſo the holy *ſages* once did ſing.
Groves, where immortal *ſages* taught.

(6.) * SAGE. *n. ſ.* [*ſauge*, French; *ſalvia*, Latin.] A plant of which the ſchool of Salernum thought ſo highly, that they left this rule:

Cur moriatur homo cui ſalvia creſcit in horto?

—By the colour, figure, taſte, and ſmell, we have as clear ideas of *ſage* and hemlock, as we have of a circle. *Locke.*—

Marbled with *ſage* the hard'ning cheeſe they preſs'd.

(7.) SAGE, in botany. See SALVIA.

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) SAGE, INDIAN WILD. See SANTANA,
10.) SAGE OF JERUSALEM. See PHLOMIS,
.; and PULMONARIA.
.) SAGE, PORTUGAL. See PHLOMIS, N° 2.
.) SAGE, SEA-SIDE. See LANTANA, N° 2.
.) SAGE TREE. See PHLOMIS.
, 15.) SAGE, WILD, and WOOD. See TEU-
M.
SAGELY. *adv.* [from *sage*.] Wisely; pru-
ly.
GENDAGO, a river of New York, in Her-
r county.
GENE, a Ruſſian long meaſure, 500 of
h make a verſt; the ſagene is equal to ſeven
iſh feet.
SAGENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ſage*.] Gravity;
ence.
GENITE, *n. ſ.* a name given to the red
e of Titanium. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II.
. VII. *Order* XX. *Gen.* I.
GG, or SAGG HARBOUR, a poſt town and
of entry of New York, in Suffolk county,
E. coaſt of Long Iſland. It has a preſbyte-
church. The chief trade of Long Iſland is
ed on from this port: the exports, Sept. 30,
were 6762 dollars. It lies 107 miles E. of
York, and 202 from Philadelphia.
GINA, in botany, PEARL-WORT, a genus
e tetragynia order, belonging to the tetran-
claſs of plants; and in the natural method
ing under the 22d order, *Caryophylleæ*. The
is tetraphyllous; the petals four; the cap-
is unilocular, quadrivalved, and polyſper-
s.
GITTA, in aſtronomy, the *Arrow* or *Dart*,
ſtellation of the northern hemiſphere near
agle, and one of the 48 old aſteriſms. See
NOMY, § 548.
.) * SAGITTAL. *adj.* [from *ſagitta*, Lat. an
.] 1. Belonging to an arrow. 2. [In ana-
.] A ſuture ſo called from its reſemblance
arrow.—His wound was between the *ſagit-*
nd coronal ſutures to the bone. *Wiſeman.*
.) SAGITTAL SUTURE. See ANATOMY, §

SAGITTARIA, ARROW-HEAD, a genus of the
ndria order, belonging to the monœcia claſs
lants; and in the natural method ranking un-
the 5th order, *Tripetaloideæ*. The male ca-
triphyllous; the corolla tripetalous; the
ents generally about 24; the female calyx is
yllous; the corolla tripetalous; many piſtils;
many naked ſeeds. There are 4 ſpecies, of
ch the moſt remarkable is the
AGITTARIA SAGITTIFOLIA, growing natu-
in many parts of England. The root is
poſed of many ſtrong fibres, which ſtrike in-
he mud; the footſtalks of the leaves are in
th proportionable to the depth of the water
hich they grow; ſometimes almoſt a yard
; they are thick and fungous; the leaves,
ch float upon the water, are ſhaped like the
nt of an arrow, the two ears at their baſe
ading wide aſunder, and are very ſharp point-
The flowers are produced upon long ſtalks
ich riſe above the leaves, ſtanding in whorls
round them at the joints. They conſiſt of three broad white petals, with a cluſter of ſtamina in the middle, which have purple ſummits. There is always a bulb at the lower part of the root, growing in the ſolid earth beneath the mud. This bulb conſtitutes a conſiderable part of the food of the Chineſe; and upon that account they cultivate it. Horſes, goats, and ſwine, eat it; cows are not fond of it.

SAGITTARIUS, in aſtronomy, one of the 12 ſigns of the zodiac. See ASTRONOMY, § 548.

* SAGITTARY. *n. ſ.* [*ſagittarius*, Latin; *ſagittaire*, French.] A centaur; an animal half man half horſe, armed with a bow and quiver.—

The dreadful *ſagittary*
Appals our numbers. *Shak.*

(1.) * SAGO. *n. ſ.* A kind of eatable grain. *Bailey.*

(2.) SAGO is a ſimple brought from the Eaſt Indies, of conſiderable uſe in diet as a reſtorative. It is produced from a ſpecies of palm tree, (See CYCAS, N° 2.) growing ſpontaneouſly in the Eaſt Indies. The progreſs of its vegetation in the early ſtages is very ſlow. At firſt it is a mere ſhrub, thick ſet with thorns, which makes it difficult to come near it; but as ſoon as its ſtem is once formed, it riſes in a ſhort time to 30 feet, is about ſix feet in circumference, and imperceptibly loſes its thorns. Its ligneous bark is about an inch in thickneſs, and covers a multitude of long fibres; which, being interwoven one with another, enveiope a maſs of a gummy kind of meal. As ſoon as this tree is ripe, a whitiſh duſt, which tranſpires through the pores of the leaves, and adheres to their extremities, proclaims its maturity. The Malays then cut them down near the root, divide them into ſeveral ſections, which they ſplit into quarters: they then ſcoop out the maſs of mealy ſubſtance, which is enveloped by, and adheres to the fibres; they dilute it in pure water, and then paſs it through a ſtraining bag of fine cloth, to ſeparate it from the fibres. When this paſte has loſt part of its moiſture by evaporation, the Malays throw it into a kind of earthen veſſels, of different ſhapes, where they allow it to dry and harden. This paſte is wholeſome nouriſhing food, and preſerves for many years. The Indians eat it diluted with water, and ſometimes baked or boiled. Through a principle of humanity, they reſerve the fineſt part of this meal for the aged and infirm. A jelly is ſometimes made of it, which is white and of a delicious flavour. An inferior kind of ſago is made in the W. Indies from the pith of the areca. See ARECA, N° 2. Sago has been propoſed alſo to be made from potatoes. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

SAGRA, in ancient geography, a ſmall river of Italy, in the country of the Brutii; where 130,000 Crotoniatæ were routed by 10,000 Locrians and Rhegians. *Cic. de Nat. Deor.* ii. c. 2. *Strabo*, 6.

SAGREDO, John, a noble Venetian of an ancient family, who flouriſhed in the 17th century. He became procurator of St Mark, and was elected Doge of Venice, in 1675; but reſigned becauſe his election was not approved by the people. He was ſent ambaſſador to ſeveral European courts. In 1677, he publiſhed a *Hiſtory of the Ottoman*

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Empire; which is eſteemed a very faithful compilation.

SAGREZ, a ſtrong town of Portugal, in Algarva, with a fort and harbour; 4 miles from Cape St Vincent, and 135 S. of Liſbon. Lon. 9. 4. W. Lat. 37. 4. N.

SAGUANA, a bay in the NE. corner of the Gulf of Mexico, on the coaſt of Florida, with a great number of iſlands in it.

(1.) SAGUENAI, or } a large river of Canada,
(1.) SAGUENY, } which riſes from Lake St John, and after running E. above 100 miles, falls into the St Lawrence at Tadouſſac harbour. Its mouth is ¾ of a mile broad, and from 80 to 90 fathoms deep, but it is wider farther up. It is navigable by the largeſt veſſels 75 miles above its mouth.

(2.) SAGUENY, LITTLE, a river of Labrador, which runs S. and falls into the St Lawrence; E. of the Seven Iſles, and W. of Baſon river.

SAGUM, in Roman antiquity, a military habit, open from top to bottom, and uſually faſtened on the right ſhoulder with a buckle or claſp. It was not different in ſhape from the *chlamys* of the Greeks and the *paludamentum* of the generals. The only difference between them was, that the paludamentum was made of a richer ſtuff, was generally of a purple colour, and both longer and fuller than the ſagum.

SAGUNTUM, or } an ancient town of
SAGUNTUS, } Spain, now called *Morvedro*, where there are ſtill the ruins of a Roman amphitheatre. The new town is ſeated on a river called *Morvedro*, 15 miles N. of Valencia. It was taken by Lord Peterborough in 1706. Lon. 0. 10. E. Lat. 39. 38. N.

SAGUR, a town of Hindooſtan Proper, in the province of Malwa, near the river Bunnaſs, 87 miles NW. of Gurra, and 122 S. of Agra. Lon. 78. 53. E. Lat. 23. 45. N.

SAHAGUN, a town of Spain, in Leon, with a rich abbey; ſeated on the coaſt of a plain, fertile in corn, 17 miles from Placentia. Lon. 5. 23. W. Lat. 42. 33. N.

SAHARA, or ZAARA. See ZAARA.

SAI, a large town of Africa, on the banks of the Niger, or at leaſt very near it, which Mr Park ſays ſtrongly excited his curioſity. It is completely ſurrounded by two very deep trenches, about 200 yards from the walls. On the top of the trenches are a number of ſquare towers; and the whole has the appearance of a regular fortification. Inquiring into the origin of this entrenchment, he learned from two of the town's people the following particulars; which furniſh a mournful picture of the enormities of African wars: About 15 years before he viſited Sai, when the King of Bambarra deſolated Maniana, the Dooty of Sai had two ſons ſlain in battle, fighting in the king's cauſe. He had a 3d ſon living; and when the king demanded a further reinforcement of men, and this youth among the reſt, the Dooty refuſed to ſend him. This ſo enraged the king, that when he returned from Maniana, about the beginning of the rainy ſeaſon, and found the Dooty protected by the inhabitants, he ſat down before Sai with his army, and ſurrounded the town with trenches. After a ſiege of two months, the town's people became involved in all the horrors of famine; and whilſt the king's army were ſcaling their trenches, the miſerable inhabitants devoured the leaves and bark of the Bentang tree. Finding, however, that the beſieged would ſooner periſh than ſurrender, the king had recourſe to treachery. He promiſed, that if they would open the gates, no perſon ſhould be put to death, or ſuffer any injury, but the Dooty alone. The poor old man determined to ſacrifice himſelf, for the ſake of his fellow citizens, and immediately walked over to the king's army, where he was put to death. His ſon, in attempting to eſcape, was caught and maſſacred in the trenches; and the reſt of the people were carried away captives, and ſold as ſlaves to the different Negro traders. Lon. 3. 7. W. Lat. 14. 9. N.

SAIANES, a continuation of the *Altaic Chain*. See MOUNTAIN, § 8.

SAIB, *n. ſ.* a title among the princes in the Indies, ſynonymous with SULTAN. See TITLE.

* SAICK. *n. ſ.* [*ſaica*, Italian; *ſaique*, Fr.] Turkiſh veſſel proper for the carriage of merchandiſe. *Bailey.*

(1.) * SAID, *preterite* and *part. paſſ.* of *ſay*. Aforeſaid.—King John ſucceeded his *ſaid* brother. *Hale.* 2. Declared; ſhewed.

(2.) SAID, in geography, a town of Upper Egypt, ſeated on the Nile, 150 miles S. of Cairo. Others place it 200 miles N. of Cairo. It is ſuppoſed to be the ancient THEBES. Lon. 31. 22. Lat. 27. 32. N.

SAIDE, the modern name of Sidon. See SIDON.

(1.) * SAIL. *n. ſ.* [*ſegl*, Saxon; *ſeyl*, *ſeil*, Dutch.] 1. The expanded ſheet which catches the wind, and carries on the veſſel on the water.

He came too late; the ſhip was under ſail.

—They hoiſted up the main *ſail* to the wind. *Acts*, xxvii. 40.—

The galley born from view by riſing gales
She follow'd with her ſight and flying ſails.

2. [In poetry.] Wings.—

He cutting way
With his broad *ſails*, about him ſoared round. *Fairy Queen.*

3. A ſhip; a veſſel.—

A *ſail* arriv'd
From Pompey's ſon. *Addiſon.*

4. *Sail* is a collective word, noting the number of ſhips.—

A whole armado of collected *ſail*
Is ſcatter'd. *Shak.*

—It is written of Edgar, that he increaſed the fleet he found 2600 *ſail*. *Raleigh.*—

Nor ten years conflict, nor a thouſand *ſail*
Denham.

—He had promiſed to his army, who were diſcouraged at the ſight of Seleucus's fleet, conſiſting of 100 *ſail*, that at the end of the Summer they ſhould ſee a fleet of his of 500 *ſail*. *Arbuthnot.* 5. *To ſtrike* SAIL. To lower the ſails. They *ſtrake ſail*, and ſo were driven. *Acts*, xxvii. 17. 6. A proverbial phraſe for abating of pride or ſuperiority.—

Margaret

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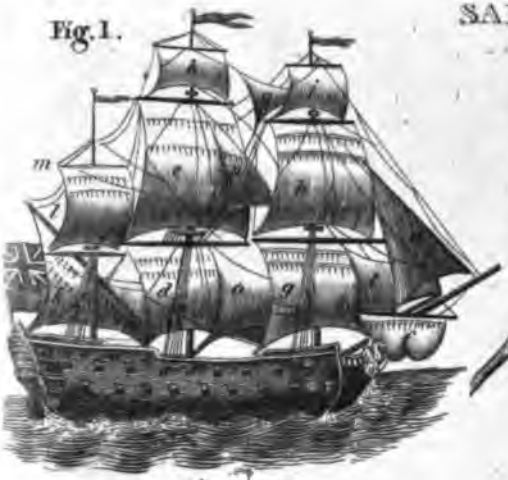
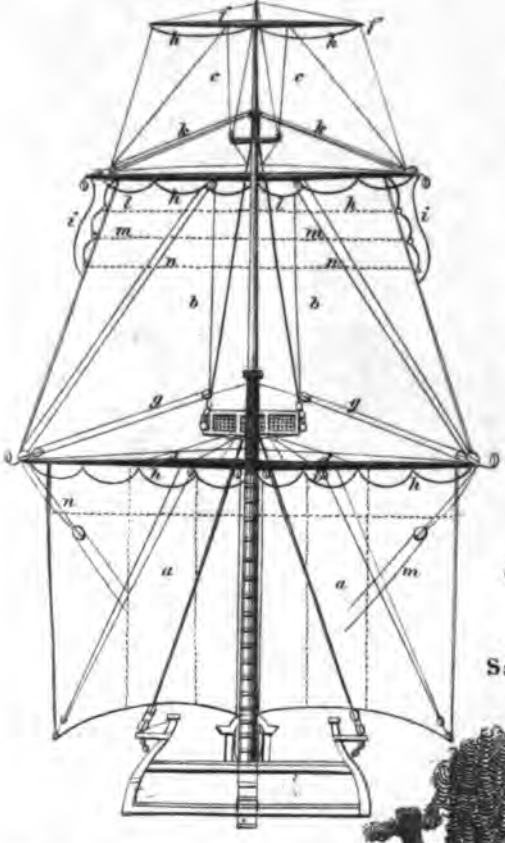
Fig. 1.



Sapindus Saponaria.

Fig. 2.



SCIURUS

Volans, or Flying Squirrel in a flying posture.

Sagitta or Sailing Squirrel.

Flying Squirrel in a sitting posture.

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Muſt *ſtrike* her *ſail*, and learn a while to ſerve,
Where kings command. *Shak.*

2.) *A* SAIL, in navigation, is an aſſemblage of ral breadths of canvas ſewed together by the , and edged round with cord, faſtened to the ds of a ſhip, to make it drive before the wind.

SHIP. The edges of the cloths, or pieces, which a ſail is compoſed, are generally ſewed ether with a double ſeam; and the whole is ted round at the edges with a cord, called the *rope*. Although the form of ſails is extremely ferent, they are all nevertheleſs triangular or drilateral figures; or in other words, their ſur- s are contained either between 3 or 4 ſides. : former of theſe are ſometimes ſpread by a l, as lateen-ſails; and otherwiſe by a ſtay, as -ſails, or by a maſt, as ſhoulder-of-mutton ; in all which caſes the foremoſt leech or edge tached to the ſaid yard, maſt, or ſtay, through- its whole length. The latter, or thoſe which four-ſided, are either extended by yards, as principal ſails of a ſhip; or by yards and ms, as the ſtudding-ſails, drivers, ring-ſails, all thoſe ſails which are ſet occaſionally; or affs and booms, as the main-ſails of ſloops and antines.

) SAIL (§ 1, *def.* 3.) is alſo a name applied to veſſel beheld at a diſtance under ſail.

) SAILS, PRINCIPAL, OF A SHIP, (*Plate* 303. 1.) are the courſes or lower ſails *a*; the top- , which are next in order above the courſes; the top-gallant ſails *c*, which are expanded a- : the top-ſails. The COURSES are the main- fore-ſail, and mizen, main ſtay-ſail, fore ſtay- and mizen ſtay-ſail: but more particularly three firſt. The main-ſtay ſail is rarely uſed pt in ſmall veſſels. In all *quadrangular* ſails upper edge is called the *head*; the ſides or s are called *leeches*; and the bottom or lower is termed the *foot*. If the head is parallel to oot, the two lower corners are denominated , and the upper corners earings. In all *triau-* ſails, and in thoſe four-ſided ſails wherein ead is not parallel to the foot, the fore moſt r at the foot is called the *tack*, and the after corner the *clue*; the foremoſt perpendicular ing edge is called the *fore-leech*, and the moſt the *after-leech*. The heads of all four- ſails, and the fore leeches of laten-ſails, are ed to their reſpective yard or gaff by a num- f ſmall cords called *ro-bands*; and the extre- s are tied to the yard-arms, or to the peek of aff, by earings. The *ſtay-ſails* are extended ays between the maſts, whereon they are or down occaſionally, as a curtain ſlides nd, and their lower parts are ſtretched tack and ſheet. The clues of a top-ſail out to the extremities of the lower yard, large ropes called the *top-ſail ſheets*; and of the top-gallant ſails are in like manner upon the top-ſail yard-arms, as exhibit- . 2. The *ſtudding-ſails* are ſet beyond the or ſkirts of the main-ſail and fore-ſail, or top-ſails or top-gallant ſails of a ſhip. Their and lower edges are accordingly extended run out beyond the extremities of the for this purpoſe. Thoſe ſails, however, are ſet in favourable winds and moderate wea- ther. All ſails derive their names from the maſt- yard, or ſtay, upon which they are extended. Thus the principal ſail extended upon the main- maſt is called the *main-ſail*, *d*; the next above, which ſtands upon the main-top maſt, is termed the *main-top ſail*, *e*; and the higheſt, which is ſpread acroſs the main-top-gallant maſt, is named the *main-top-gallant ſail*, *f*. In the ſame manner there is the *fore ſail*, *g*; the *fore top-ſail*, *h*; and the *fore top-gallant-ſail*, *i*; the mizen, *k*; the mizen top-ſail, *l*; and mizen top-gallant-ſail, *m*. Thus alſo there is the main-ſtay-ſail, *o*; main-top- maſt ſtay-ſail, *p*; and main-top-gallant ſtay-ſail, *q*; with a middle ſtay-ſail which ſtands between the two laſt. *N. B.* All theſe ſtay-ſails are between the main and fore maſts. The ſtay-ſails between the main-maſt and mizen-maſt are the mizen ſtay- ſail, *r*; and the mizen top-maſt ſtay-ſail, *s*; and ſometimes a mizen top-gallant ſtay-ſail above the latter. The ſtay-ſails between the foremaſt and the bow-ſprit are the fore ſtay-ſail, *t*; the fore top- maſt ſtay-ſail, *u*; and the jib, *x*. There is beſides two ſquare ſails extended by yards under the bow- ſprit, one of which is called the *ſprit-ſail*, *y*; and the other the *ſprit-ſail top-ſail*, *z*. The ſtudding- ſails being extended upon the different yards of the main-maſt and fore-maſt, are likewiſe named according to their ſtations, the *lower*, *top-maſt*, or *top-gallant ſtudding ſails*. The ropes by which the lower yards of a ſhip are hoiſted up to their pro- per height on the maſts, are called the *jears*. In all other ſails the ropes employed for this purpoſe are called *haliards*. The principal ſails are then expanded by haliards, ſheets, and bowlines; ex- cept the courſes, which are always ſtretched out below by a tack and ſheet. They are drawn up together, or truſſed up, by bunt-lines, clue-lines, *d d*; leech-lines, *e e*; reef-tackles, *f f*; ſlab-line, *g*; and ſpiling-lines. As the bunt-lines and leech- lines paſs on the other ſide of the ſail, they are ex- preſſed by the dotted lines in the figure. The courſes, top-ſails, and top-gallant ſails, are wheel- ed about the maſt, ſo as to ſuit the various direc- tions of the wind by braces. The higher ſtudding ſails, and in general all the ſtay-ſails, are drawn down, ſo as to be furled, or taken in, by down- hauls. Some experienced ſail-makers contend, that it would be of much advantage if many of the ſails of ſhips were made of equal magnitude; in which caſe, when neceſſity required it, they could be interchangeably uſed. For example, as the mizen top-ſail is now made nearly as large as the main-top-gallant ſail, it would be eaſy to make the yards, maſts, and ſails ſo as mutually to ſuit each other. The ſame may be ſaid of the main and fore top-ſails, of the main and fore top-gallant ſails, and of the mizen top-gallant ſail, and main fore-royal. The main-ſail and fore-ſail might alſo, with reſpect to their head, be made alike; but as the former has a gore at the leech, and a larger gore at the foot for clearing it of the gallows, boats, &c. which the latter has not, there might be more difficulty in arranging them. The diffi- culty, however, ſeems not inſurmountable. Theſe alterations would be extremely uſeful in caſe of loſing ſails by ſtreſs of weather. Fewer ſails would be thus neceſſary, leſs room would be required to ſtow them, and there would be leſs danger of con-

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fuſion in taking them out. But the utility of theſe alterations will be more felt in the merchant-ſervice than in the navy, which has always a large ſtore of ſpare ſails, and ſufficient room to ſtow them in order. Thus, too, ſpare yards and maſts might be conſiderably reduced in number, and yet any caſual damages more eaſily repaired at ſea. Top-maſt ſtudding ſails are occaſionally ſubſtituted for awnings, and might, by a very little attention in planning the rigging of a ſhip, be ſo contrived as to anſwer both purpoſes. See SHIP-BUILDING.

(5.) SAILS, TERMS USED RESPECTING:

i. SAIL, TO MAKE, is to ſpread an additional quantity of ſail, ſo as to increaſe the ſhip's velocity.

ii. SAIL, TO SET, is to unfurl and expand the ſails upon their reſpective yards and ſtays, in order to begin the action of ſailing.

iii. SAIL, TO SHORTEN, is to reduce or take in part of the ſails, with an intention to diminiſh the ſhip's velocity.

iv. SAIL, TO STRIKE, is to lower it ſuddenly. This is particularly uſed in ſaluting or doing homage to a ſuperior force, or to one whom the law of nations acknowledges as ſuperior in certain regions. Thus all foreign veſſels ſtrike to a Britiſh man of war in the Britiſh ſeas.

(1.) * *To* SAIL. *v. a.* 1. To paſs by means of ſails.—

A thouſand ſhips were mann'd to *ſail* the ſea.
Dryden.

Sailing the ſpaces of the boundleſs deep,
To Ariconium precious fruits arriv'd. *Phillips.*

2. To fly through.—

Sublime ſhe *ſails*
Th' aerial ſpace. *Pope.*

(2.) * *To* SAIL. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To be moved by the wind with ſails.—I ſhall not mention any thing of the *ſailing* waggons. *Mort.* 2. To paſs by ſea.—When *ſailing* was now dangerous, Paul admoniſhed them. *Acts.* 3. To ſwim.—

Little dolphins, when they *ſail*
In the vaſt ſhadow of the Britiſh whale. *Dryd.*

4. To paſs ſmoothly along.—

A winged meſſenger from heav'n,
When he beſtrides the lazy-pacing clouds,
And *ſails* upon the boſom of the air. *Shak.*

* SAILER. *n. ſ.* [*ſailor* is more uſual, *ſailer* more analogical; from *ſail*.] A ſeaman; one who practiſes or underſtands navigation.—They had many times men of other countries that were no *ſailors*. *Bacon.*—

Flagging ſails on heartleſs *ſailors* fall, *Dryd.*

—Young Pompy built a fleet of large ſhips, and had good *ſailors*. *Arbuthnot.*—

Lo! deſcends the *ſailer* train. *Pope's Odyſſ.*

(1.) SAILING, *part. n. ſ.* the movement by which a veſſel is wafted along the ſurface of the water, by the action of the wind upon her ſails. When a ſhip changes her ſtate of reſt into that of motion, as in advancing out of a harbour, or from her ſtation at anchor, ſhe acquires her motion very gradually, as a body which arrives not at a certain velocity till after a frequent repetition of the action of its weight. The firſt impreſſion of the wind greatly affects the velocity, becauſe the reſiſtance of the water might deſtroy it; ſince the velocity being but ſmall at firſt, the reſiſtance of the water which depends on it will be very feeble: but as the ſhip increaſes her motion, the force of the wind on the ſails will be diminiſhed; whereas, on the contrary, the reſiſtance of the water on the bow will accumulate in proportion to the velocity with which the veſſel advances. Thus the reception of the degrees of force, which the action of the ſails adds to the motion of the ſhip, is perpetually decreaſing; whilſt, on the contrary, the new degrees added to the effort of reſiſtance on the bow are always augmenting. The velocity is then accelerated in proportion as the quantity added is greater than that which is ſubtracted; but when the two powers become equal; when the impreſſion of the wind on the ſails has loſt ſo much of its force, as only to act in proportion to the oppoſite impulſe of reſiſtance on the bow, the ſhip will then acquire no additional velocity, but continue to ſail with a conſtant uniform motion. The great weight of the ſhip may then prevent her from acquiring her greateſt velocity; but when ſhe has attained it, ſhe will advance by her own intrinſic motion, without gaining any new degree of velocity, or leſſening what ſhe has acquire. She moves then by her own proper force *in vacuo*, without being afterwards affected either to the effort of the wind on the ſails, or the reſiſtance of the water on the bow. If at any time the impulſion of the water on the bow ſhould deſtroy any part of the velocity, the effort of the wind on the ſails will revive it, ſo that the motion will continue the ſame. It muſt, however, be obſerved, that this ſtate will only ſubſiſt when the two powers act upon each other in direct oppoſition; otherwiſe they will mutually deſtroy one another. The whole theory of working ſhips depends on this counter action, and the perfection of ſailing which ſhould ſubſiſt between the effort of the wind and the impulſion of the water. The art of ſailing is produced by a judicious arrangement of the ſails to the direction of the wind. Accordingly the various modes of ſailing are derived from the different degrees and ſituations of the ſails with regard to the courſe of the veſſel. See SEAMANSHIP. To illuſtrate this obſervation by examples, the plan of a number of ſhips proceeding on various courſes are repreſented by fig. 3. which exhibits the 32 points of the compaſs, of which C is the centre; the direction of the wind, which is northerly, being expreſſed by the arrow. As has been obſerved in the article CLOSE-HAULED, that a ſhip in that ſituation will ſail nearly within ſix points of the wind. Thus the ſhips B and C are cloſe-hauled; the former being on the larboard tack, ſteering ENE. and the latter on the ſtarboard-tack, ſailing WNW. with their yards properly braced obliquely, as ſuitable to that manner of ſailing. The line of battle on the larboard tack would accordingly be expreſſed by CB, and that on the ſtarboard by C*y*. When a ſhip is not cloſe-hauled, nor ſteering afore the wind, ſhe is in general ſaid to be ſailing large. The relation of the wind to her courſe is preciſely determined by the number of points between the latter and the courſe cloſe-hauled. Thus the ſhips *x* and *z* have the wind one point large, the former ſteering E. *b* N. and the latter W. *b* N. The yards remain almoſt in the ſame poſition as in B and *y*; the bowlines and ſheets of the ſails being only a little ſlacker.

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eneil. The ſhips *d* and *u* have the wind two ts large, the one ſteering E. and the other W. nis manner of ſailing, however, the wind is : particularly ſaid to be upon the beam, as ; at right angles with the keel, and coinciding the poſition of the ſhip's beams. The yards iow more acroſs the ſhip, the bowlines are off, and the ſheets more relaxed; ſo that the : of the wind being applied nearer to the line e ſhip's courſe, her velocity is greatly aug- ed. In *e* and *t* the ſhips have the wind three s large, or one point abaft the beam, the e of the former being E. *b* S. and that of the W. *b* S. The ſheets are ſtill more flowing, ngle which the yards make with the keel fur- duminiſhed, and the courſe accelerated in ortion. The ſhips *f* and *ſ*, the firſt of which ESE. and the ſecond WSW. have the wind points large, or two points abaft the beam. and *r* the wind is five points large, or three s abaft the beam, the former ſailing SE. *b* E. he latter SW. *b* W. In both theſe ſituations heets are ſtill farther ſlackened, and the yards et more athwart the ſhip's length in propor- as the wind approaches the quarter. The , *b* and *q*, ſteering SE. and SW. have the ſix points large, or more properly on the ter; which is conſidered as the moſt favoura- nner of ſailing, becauſe all the ſails co-operate reaſe the ſhip's velocity: whereas, when the l's right aft, as in the ſhip *m*, it is evident the wind in its paſſage to the foremoſt ſails e intercepted by thoſe which are farther aft. n the wind is on the quarter, the fore-tack is ght to the cat-head; and the main-tack being ff, the weather-clue of the main-ſail is hoiſted the yard, in order to let the wind paſs freely fore-ſail; and the yards are diſpoſed ſo as ke an angle of about two points, or nearly with the keel. The ſhips *i* and *p*, of which mer ſails SE. *b* S. and the latter SW. *b* S. id to have the wind three points on the lar- l or ſtarboard quarter: and thoſe expreſſed and *o*, two points; as ſteering SSE. and in both which poſitions the yards make an angle of 16°, or about a point and an with the ſhip's length. When the wind is nt on the quarter, as in the ſhips *l* and *n*, courſes are S. *b* E. and S. *b* W. the ſituation yards and ſails is very little different from ſt mentioned; the angle which they make the keel being ſomewhat leſs than a point, e ſtay-ſails being rendered of very little ſer-

The ſhip *m* ſails right afore the wind, or the wind right aft. In this poſition the yards id at right angles with the ſhip's length: the ils being entirely uſeleſs, are hauled down; he main-ſail is drawn up in the brails, that re-ſail may operate; a meaſure which confi- ly facilitates the ſteerage, or effort of the

As the wind is then intercepted by the top-ſail and main-top-gallant-ſail, in its paſ- o the fore-top-ſail and fore-top-gallant-ſail, latter are by conſequence entirely becalmed; ught therefore be furled, to prevent their be- tted by flapping againſt the maſt, but that effort contributes greatly to prevent the ſhip broaching-to, when ſhe deviates from her courſe to the right or left thereof. Thus all the different methods of ſailing may be divided into 4, viz. cloſe-hauled, large, quartering, and afore the wind; all which relate to the direction of the wind with regard to the ſhip's courſe, and the arrangement of the ſails.

(2.) SAILING alſo implies a particular mode of navigation, formed on the principles, and regulated by the laws of trigonometry. Hence the diſtinctions into *Plane*, *Parallel*, *Middle Latitude*, *Mercator's*, *Oblique*, *and Great Circle Sailing*. See NAVIGATION, *Part* II. *Sect.* I—VI.

SAILLANT, in heraldry. See SALIANT, § 1, and 2.

SAIL-MAKING, *n. ſ.* the art of making ſails. See SAIL, and SHIP-BUILDING.

(1.) * SAILOR. See SAILER.

(2.) SAILOR. See MARINER and SEAMAN.

* SAILYARD. *n. ſ.* [*ſail* and *yard*.] The pole on which the ſail is extended.—

With glance ſo ſwift the ſubtle lightning paſt,
As ſplit the *ſailyards*. *Dryden.*

* SAIM. *n. ſ.* [*ſaime*, Italian.] Lard. It ſtill denotes this in Scotland: as ſwine's *ſaim*.

(1.) * SAIN. [a participle; obſolete; from *ſay*.] Said.—Some obſcure precedence, that hath tofore been *ſain*. *Shak.*

(2.) SAIN, or CHAOURI, a ſmall coin of Perſia, of which four make one Abagi. See ABAGI.

(1.) * SAINFOIN. *n. ſ.* [*ſainfoin*, Fr. *medica*.] A kind of herb.

(2.) SAINFOIN. See HEDYSARUM, and RURAL ECONOMY, *Part* II. *Sect.* IV.

(1.) * SAINT. *n. ſ.* [*ſaint*, Fr. *ſanctus*, Latin.] A perſon eminent for piety and virtue.—

To thee be worſhip and thy *ſaints* for aye.
Shak.

She will not ſtay the ſiege of loving terms,
Nor ope her lap to *ſaint*-ſeducing gold. *Shak.*

Seem a *ſaint*, when moſt I play the devil.
Shak.

—An hypocrite may imitate a *ſaint* in all other particulars. *Addiſon.*

Saints may learn to pray. *Granville.*

The *ſaint* ſuſtain'd it, but the woman dy'd.
Pope.

(2.) SAINT, is generally applied by us to the apoſtles and other holy perſons mentioned in Scripture. But the Romaniſts make its application much more extenſive. (See BEATIFICATION, § 2; and CANONIZATION, § 2.) It would ſeem that in the firſt ages every biſhop in his own dioceſe was wont to declare what perſons were to be honoured as ſaints by his people. Hence St Cyprian, about the middle of the third century, B. 3. *ep.* 6. requires that he be informed of thoſe who ſhould die in priſon for the faith, that ſo he might make mention of them in the holy ſacrifice with the martyrs, and might honour them afterwards on the anniverſary day of their happy death. It was thus that St Laurence, St Ambroſe, St Auguſtine, St Baſil, and many others, appear to have been canonized by cuſtom and univerſal perſuaſion. In thoſe ages none were reckoned ſaints but the apoſtles, the martyrs, and very eminent confeſſors, whoſe ſanctity was notorious everywhere. Afterwards canonizations were performed in provincial ſynods under the direction

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rection of the metropolitan. It was thus that St Isidore of Seville was canonized in the 7th century, by the 8th council of Toledo, 14 years after his death. This manner of canonization continued occasionally down to the 12th century. The last instance of a saint canonized in that way, is that of St Walter abbot of Pontoise, who was declared a saint by the archbishop of Rouen in 1153. In the 12th century, to prevent mistakes in so delicate a matter, Pope Alexander III. judged it proper to reserve this declaration to the holy see of Rome exclusively; and decreed that no one should for the future be honoured by the church as a saint, without the express approbation of the pope. Since that time the canonization of saints has been carried on in the form of a process; and there is at Rome a congregation of cardinals, called the *congregation of holy rites*, who are assisted by several divines under the name of *consultors*, who examine such matters, and prepare them for the decision of his holiness. When therefore any potentate, province, city, or religious body, think fit, they apply to the pope for the canonization of any person. The first juridical step in this business must be taken by the bishop in whose diocese the person for whom the application is made had lived and died, who by his own authority calls witnesses to attest the opinion of the holiness, the virtues, and miracles, of the person in question. This is succeeded by a tedious process of inquiry into the character of the deceased. Commissioners summon witnesses, take depositions, and collect letters and other writings of the venerable man, and get all the intelligence they can concerning him, and the opinion generally entertained of him. Their report is considered by the congregation, and every part of it discussed by the consultors, when the congregation determines whether or not they can permit the process to go on. If it be allowed to proceed, a cardinal, who is called *ponent*, undertakes to be the principal agent in that affair. There is also a distinguished ecclesiastic called the *promoter of the holy faith*, who is sworn to make all reasonable *objections* to the proofs adduced in favour of the canonization. If the decision be favourable, then the proofs of miracles are permitted to be brought forward; when two miracles must be verified to the satisfaction of the congregation, both as to the reality of the facts, and as to their having been above the power of nature. If the decision on this comes out likewise favourable, then the whole is laid before the pope, and what divines he chooses. When the pope is resolved to give his approbation, he issues a bull, first of *beatification*, by which the person is declared *blessed*, and afterwards another of *sanctification*, by which the name of *saint* is given him. These bulls are published in St Peter's church with great solemnity. After his canonization, his name is inserted in the Martyrology, or catalogue of saints, of which a portion is read every day in the choir at the divine office. A day is also appointed for an yearly commemoration of him. His name may be mentioned in the public church service, and his intercession with God besought. His relics may be enshrined, &c. The affair of a canonization is necessarily very expensive, because so many persons must be employed about it: so many journeys must be made; so many writings for and against it must be drawn out. The expence altogether amounts to about 25,000 Roman crowns, or 6000 l. Sterling. But it is generally contrived to canonize 2 or 3 at a time, by which means the particular expence of each is very much lessened, the solemnity being common. Several authors have written on canonization, particularly Prosper Lambertini, afterwards pope under the name of Benedict XIV. who had held the office of *promoter of the faith* for many years. He published on it a large work in several volumes, folio, of which there is an abridgment in French. See POPE, POPERY, &c.

SAINT, in geography, makes a part of the names of a great number of places, most of which are taken notice of, in the order of the alphabet, under the second part of the name following Saint. The following, however, having been omitted in that order, are here inserted, as well as several biographical articles in the same predicament:

(3.) SAINT ABB'S HEAD, a promontory of Scotland, in Berwickshire; on the coast of the parish of Coldingham. It was so named from St Ebba, who founded a monastery here. (See EBBA, ST.) The princess and abbess was such a zealot for chastity, that hearing the Danes were going to invade the coast of Scotland, she proposed to her nuns, and they all agreed, to preserve their chastity at the expence of their beauty, by cutting off their noses! The pope, by way of contrast, to this virtuous zeal of the ladies, granted an indulgence of the opposite nature to the monks of St Abb's, by allowing them the use of women, at certain seasons, *purgandis renis*. His charter to the canons on this subject is said to be still preserved in the cathedral of Durham. (*Sir John Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* xii. 58.) There are relics of the ancient chapel, built by St Ebba on the top of the promontory. It is the S. extremity of the Firth of Forth. Lon. 1. 56. W. Lat. 55. 55. N.

(4.) SAINT ALDEGONDE, Philip de Marix, Lord of MONT, a learned writer, born at Brabant in 1538. He was master of the Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and many of the living languages. When the Spaniards oppressed the Netherlands, he retired into Germany, and was made member of the ecclesiastical council at Heidelberg. In 1577 he returned to Brussels, and wrote in favour of liberty and the reformation. In 1575 he was sent as one of the deputies from the States to crave the protection of Q. Elizabeth. He was also sent to France to offer the sovereignty of the provinces to the D. of Alençon. He published *Mercurius Romanum*, or the *Romish Hive*, a humorous piece on the absurdities of the Church of Rome. He died at Leyden, in 1598.

(5.) SAINT ANDREW'S, a parish of Scotland, in Fifeshire, united with that of ST LEONARD'S. The united parishes form a parallelogram, nearly of about 10 miles long from E. to W. and four broad. Through its whole length there is an acclivity from N. to S. forming with little interruption one large corn field, in which are found all the varieties of soil, clay, loam, sand, &c. All these fields produce good crops, except one small spot of bent, near the sea coast, and a large tract

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ıaſture ground NW. of the city. The air is and ſharp, being much expoſed to the E. 1. The Eden is the chief river. The coaſt inds with cod, and other fiſh; but haddocks, ierly plentiful, ſeldom viſit it. The total po- tion of the town and pariſhes in 1793, was ; the decreaſe 255, ſince 1755. A very po- kind of free-ſtone is dug from the rocks on coaſt. For the antiquities, caſtle, trade, uni- ty, &c. of St Andrews, ſee ANDREWS, ST, -7.

ii.) ST ANDREW'S, a pariſh of Scotland, in county of Orkney, and preſbytery of Kirk- , united to that of *Dear-neſs*. The popula- of both, in 1755, was 1650; and in 1795, ; decreaſe 315, ſince 1755.

iii.) ST ANDREWS, LHANBRYD, or more erly St Andrews *and* Lhanbryd, (but the ab- ty of cuſtom has thrown out the conjunc- and put a *comma* in its place,) a pariſh of land, in Elginſhire; conſiſting of theſe two hes, united before the reformation, and ex- ing 4 miles in length from N. to S. and 3 in dth from W. to E.; beſides a hill about a diſtant, disjoined by a ſtrip of the pariſh of . The ſurface is plain, with a few low hills. ſoil is ſandy, but fertile; the air ſalubrious. re are 3 ſmall lakes and a mineral ſpring. Lossie runs through it. The population, in was 777; increaſe 87, ſince 1755. The ber of horſes was 252; ſheep, 1060; and cattle, 750. Grain, eatable roots, the whole of cultivated BRASSICA, the ordinary fruits, almoſt every tree known in Scotland, are l. The rev. W. Leſlie ſuggeſts as the means nefiting this pariſh, the country and the e iſland, a bridge over the Spey, a market rn, and a canal through Loch Spynie from mouth to within a mile of Elgin.

9.) ST ANNE, an iſland and ſea port town America, on the coaſt of Cape Breton.

—12.) ST ANNE, 3 iſlands on the coaſt of , in the bay of St Louis de Maragnan.

.) ST ANNE, a town in the iſle of Panay, 9 from Iloilo.

.) ST ANNE'S HILL, a town of England, in re, near Devizes: with a fair Aug. 6.

.) ST AULAIRE, Francis, marquis of, an e- French poet, born in the Limouſin, about He lived to the age of near 100, and wrote excellent poems at 90. In 1706, he was ad- a member of the French Academy. He 1742.

ST BARTHOLOMEW, one of the Virgin belonging to Denmark, formerly to Swe- It is about 32 miles ſquare, and produces cotton that grows in the W. Indies. It n by the Britiſh under Adm. Duckworth, ut. Gen. Trigge, on the 20th March, 1801. eſtored at the peace in 1801-2.

ST BOSWELL'S. See BOSWELL'S, ST.

ST CANICE, a town of Ireland, in the of Kilkenny and province of Leinſter.

ST CATHERINE, a Portugueſe iſland in the ea, near the coaſt of Brazil, which was vi- La Perouſe. Its breadth from E. to W. two leagues; and it is ſeparated from the main land by a channel only 200 toiſes broad. On the point which ſtretches furtheſt into this channel is ſituated the city of *Noſtra Senora del Deſtero*, the capital of the government, and the place of reſidence of the governor. It contains at moſt 3000 ſouls, and about 400 houſes. Its appearance is exceedingly pleaſant. According to Frezier's account, this iſland ſerved, in 1712, as a retreat to vagabonds, who made their eſcape from different parts of the Brazils; who were only nominal ſubjects of Portugal, and who acknowledged no authority whatever. The country is ſo fertile, that they were able to ſubſiſt without any ſuccour from the neighbouring colonies: and they were ſo deſtitute of money that they could neither tempt the cupidity of the governor general of the Brazils, nor inſpire him with any deſire of ſubduing them. The ſhips that touched at the iſland gave them in exchange for their proviſions clothes and ſhirts, of which they were in the utmoſt want. It was not till about 1740 that the court of Liſbon eſtabliſhed a regular government in the iſland of St Catherine, and the parts of the continent adjacent. This government extends 60 leagues N. and S. from the river San Franciſco to Rio Grande; its population being about 20,000 ſouls. The ſoil is exceedingly fertile, and produces all ſorts of fruit, vegetables, and corn, almoſt ſpontaneouſly. It is covered with trees of everlaſting green; but they are ſo interwoven with briars and creeping plants, that it is impoſſible to get through the foreſts otherwiſe than by opening a path with a hatchet. Danger is beſides to be apprehended from ſnakes, whoſe bite is mortal. The habitations, both on the iſland and continent, are all cloſe to the ſea ſide. The woods that ſurround them are delightfully fragrant, owing to the great number of orange trees and other odoriferous trees and ſhrubs that they contain. But, notwithſtanding all theſe advantages, the country is very poor, and totally deſtitute of manufactured commodities, ſo that the peaſants are almoſt naked. Their ſoil, which is very fit for the cultivation of ſugar, remains unproductive for the want of culture. The whale fiſhery is very ſucceſsful; but it is the property of the crown, and is farmed by a company at Liſbon, which has three conſiderable eſtabliſhments upon the coaſt. Every year they kill about 400 whales; the produce of which, as well oil as ſpermaceti, is ſent to Liſbon by the Janeiro. The inhabitants are idle ſpectators of this fiſhery, from which they derive not the ſmalleſt advantage. La Perouſe gives a very amiable picture, however, of their hoſpitality to ſtrangers: and found this iſland to lie between 27° 19′ 10″ and 27° 49′ Lat. N. and its moſt northerly point to be in 49° 49′ Lon. W. of Paris.

(20.) ST CECILIA. See CECILIA, and MUSIC, *Hiſt.* § 50.

(21.) ST CUTHBERT'S, or WEST CHURCH, a pariſh of Scotland, in Mid Lothian, comprehending the ſuburbs of Edinburgh, on the S. W. and N. ſides of the town. The total population, as ſtated by William Creech, Eſq. in 1792, was 32,944: the increaſe 20,753, ſince 1755. In this enumeration were included the inhabitants of the villages of Lauriſton, Toilcroſs, Caſtlebarns, Foun-

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fain-Bridge, Water of Leith, Stockbridge, Silver Mills, Canonmills, Broughton, Leith Walk, and the West Church Charity Work-house.

(22.) St Decuman's, a town of England, in Somersetshire: with a fair, Aug. 21.

(23.) St Denis, or } Charles De, Lord of St
(23.) St Evremond, } Evremont, a celebrated French writer, born at St Denys le Gast in Lower Normandy in 1613, was designed for the law, but soon quitted that, and was made an ensign before he was 16. A military life did not hinder him from cultivating literature; and he signalized himself by his politeness and wit as much as by his bravery. The king made him a maréschal de camp, and gave him a pension of 3000 livres per annum. He served under the duke of Candale in the war of Guienne; and in Flanders till the suspension of arms between France and Spain: he afterwards accompanied cardinal Mazarine when he went to conclude the peace with Don Lewis de Haro, the king of Spain's first minister. He wrote a long letter to the marquis de Crequi, of this negociation; in which he showed, that the cardinal had sacrificed the honour of France to his own private interest, and railed him in a very satirical manner. This letter, falling into the hands of the cardinal's creatures some time after his death, was represented as a state crime, and he was obliged to fly to Holland. Having many friends in England, he came over, and was received with great respect, by several persons of distinction. King Charles II. gave him a pension of 300 l. a-year. He had a great desire to return to his native country; and, after the peace of Nimeguen, wrote a letter to Lewis XIV, asking leave, but in vain. Upon the death of king Charles, he lost his pension, though K. James II. had shown himself extremely kind to him. K. William, who had known him in Holland, gave him substantial marks of his favour. He died of a strangury in 1703, aged 90: and was interred in Westminster abbey, where a monument is erected to his memory. His behaviour was engaging, his humour cheerful, and he had a strong disposition to satire; he professed the Romish religion, in which he was born; but at the bottom was certainly a freethinker. Notwithstanding the strong desire he had to return to his native country, yet when this leave was signified to him unexpectedly in the decline of his life, he replied, that the infirmities of age did not permit him to leave a country where he lived agreeably. There have been many editions of his works: but the best is that of Amsterdam in 1726, in 5 vols 12mo, to which is prefixed his life by Dr Des Maizeaux; who has also given an accurate English translation of them, in 3 vols 8vo.

(24.) St Faith's. See Faith's, St.

(25.) St George. See Giorgio, St, N° 1.

(26.) St George, Fort. See Madras.

(27.) St Harmon, a town of S. Wales, in Radnorshire; with a fair, Aug. 15.

(28.) St Hermine, a town of France in the dep. of the Vendee: 7 miles NE. of Luçon, and 11 NW. of Fontenay.

(29.) St Hermogenes, an island in the N. Pacific Ocean. Lon. 152. 0. W. Lat. 58. 20. N.

(30.) St Hernin, a town of France, in the dep. of Finisterre: 4½ miles SW. of Carhaix.

(31—35.) St Hilaire, 5 towns of France: 1. in the dep. of Allier, 9 miles N. of Montmarault: 2. in that of Aude, 6 miles NE. of Limoux: 3. in that of the Channel, 9 miles SE. of Mortain: 4. in that of Paris, 7½ miles SE. of Paris: 5. in that of the Vendee, 6 miles E. of Fontenay.

(36.) St Hubert, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Forets, and ci-devant duchy of Luxemburg; seated in the forest of Ardennes, on the Homme. It was anciently called *Andagium*, or *Andinum*. It is 25 miles NW. of Arlon, and 40 of Luxemburg.

(37.) St Ja, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Sesia, and late lordship of Vercelli; on the Naviglio; with 5 churches. It was destroyed in 1206, but soon rebuilt. It is 11 miles W. of Vercelli, and 18 E. of Ivrea.

(38—40.) St Jacob, 3 towns of Germany: 1. in Stiria, 7 miles W. of Friedberg: 2. in Stiria, 8 miles NE. of Marburg: 3. in Tyrol, 8 miles S. of Landeck.

(41.) St Jacobini, a town of Naples, in the Capitanata: 3 miles SW. of Termola.

(42.) St Januarius. See Januarius.

(43.) St Jaques, a town of the Helvetic republic, in Basil, on the Birs, one mile E. of Basil. In 1444, a bloody battle happened near it between the French under the dauphin, son of Charles VII. and 1400 Swiss, who were all killed except 16, but slaughtered 8000 of the French.

(44.) St Ibars, a town of France, in the dep. of Arriege: 24 miles WNW. of Mirepoix.

(45.) St Ildephonso, a town of Spain. St Ildefonso, St. At this town a treaty of peace was signed between Charles IV. K. of Spain, and the French republic, on the 4th of Aug. 1796.

(46.) St John, Henry, Lord Viscount Bolingbroke, an eminent statesman and philosopher, descended from an ancient and noble family, was born about the year 1672. He had a liberal education; and when he left the university, was considered as a person of uncommon quickness, but with great parts, he had great passions, these hurried him into many indiscretions. Contrary to the inclinations of his family, he contracted Tory connections; and gained such influence in the House of Commons, that in 1704 he was appointed secretary of war and of the marine. He was closely united in all political measures with Mr Harley: when, therefore, that gentleman was removed from the seals in 1707, Mr St John resigned; and in 1710, when Mr Harley was made chancellor of the exchequer, he was made secretary of state. In 1712 he was created Baron St John of Lediard-Tregoze in Wiltshire, and viscount Bolingbroke. But being overlooked, in the bestowal of vacant ribbons of the order of the Garter, he renounced the friendship of Harley, earl of Oxford, and made his court to the Whigs. Nevertheless, on the accession of George I. the seals were taken from him; and hearing that he was to be pursued to the scaffold, for his conduct in regard to the treaty of Utrecht, he withdrew to France. Here he accepted an invitation to enter into the Pretender's service, and accepted

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is secretary: but the year 1715 was scarcely
ed, when, though he was attainted of high
n at home, the seals and papers of his office
taken from him; the Pretender and his par-
using him of neglect, incapacity, and treach-
Such a complication of disappointments
rn into a state of reflection, that produced
dio philosophica, which he wrote under the
Reflections upon exile; and in 1716, drew
indication of his conduct, in the form of
ter to Sir William Wyndham. His first lady
dead, he espoused a niece of Madam MAIN-
N, and widow of the Marquis de Villette,
whom he had a very large fortune. In 1723
ng being prevailed on to grant him a free
n, he returned to England; but was by no
satisfied to remain a mere titular lord, ex-
d from the house of peers. This stigma con-
his enmity to Sir Robert Walpole, to whom
ributed his not receiving the full extent of
ng's clemency: hence he distinguished him-
a multitude of political writings, till 1735;
finding the door finally shut against him, he
ed to France. In this retreat he began his
: of *Letters on the study and use of History*, for
se of Lord Combury, to whom they are ad-
d. Upon the death of his father, who lived
very old, he settled at Battersea, the ancient
f his family, where he passed the remainder
life in philosophical dignity. Pope and Swift
fully adored him; and the former received
him the materials for his *Essay on Man*.—He
in 1751, and left his MSS. to Mr Mallet, who
shed them with his former printed works, in
s 4to: they are also printed in 8vo.

.) St JOHN, one of the VIRGIN ISLANDS,
ging to Denmark. It lies near the island of
homas. LAVANGO, *Cam*, and WITCH islands,
ependant upon it. It was taken by the Bri-
under admiral Duckworth, and Lieut. Gen.
ge, on the 28th March, 1801. Lat. 18. 20. N.

.) St JOHNSTOWN. See PERTH, N° 3.

.) * St JOHN'S WORT. *n. s.* [*hypericum*.] A

.) St JOHN'S WORT. See HYPERICUM.

.) St KINOSA, an island in the Grecian Ar-
lago. Lon. 44. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 36. 53. N.

.) St KIRLING, a town of Germany, in
ia: 4 miles W. of Closter Neuburg.

.) St LAUTHAIN, a town of France, in the
of the Jura: 3 miles WSW. of Poligny.

.) St LEGER, a town of France, in the dep.
Seine and Oise: 8 miles SW. of Paris.

, i.) St LEONARD'S, a parish of Fifeshire, u-
with that of St ANDREWS. (See N° 5, i.)
onsists of a few districts in different quarters of
own and suburbs of St Andrews, with two
s in the country, 3 miles from the city. In
, it contained 385 inhabitants; of these 115
in the suburbs, called *Argyle*, and 50 in the
ntry.

6, ii.) St LEONARD'S, a town in the above
sh, which, in 1793, contained 220 inhabitants.

7.) St LIVRADE, a town of France, in the
of Lot and Garonne: 12 miles N. of Agen.

8.) St LLORENS, a town of Spain, in the
. of Catalonia: 9 miles N. of Solsona.

(59.) St LOWERS, a town of France, in the dep.
of the Orne: 18 miles NE. of Alençon.

(60.) St LOUBES, a town of France, in the dep.
of Gironde: 12 miles NE. of Bourdeaux.

(61.) St LOUBOUER, a town of France, in the
dep. of Landes: 17 miles NE. of Orthez.

(62.) St LUPICIEN, a town of France, in the
dep. of the Jura: 3 miles W. of St Claude.

(63.) St LYS, a town of France, in the dep. of
Upper Garonne: 12 miles SE. of Toulouse.

(64.) St MACAIRE, a town of France, in the
dep. of Gironde: 14 miles SE. of Bourdeaux.

(65.) St MADOIS, or St MADOES, a parish of
Perthshire, on the N. bank of the Tay, in the W.
extremity of the Carse of Gowrie, comprehending
an extent of one mile square. The air is healthy;
the soil a deep clay on the low grounds, and a
rich loam on the high, both fertile, producing
good crops of all the usual grain and green crops.
A considerable quantity of wheat and barley is
exported. The population, in 1791, was 300;
increase 111 since 1755. *Pitfour*, an elegant castel-
lated Gothic building, the seat of Mr Richardson,
is in the parish. There is also a large stone, which
gives name to a village called *Hawkstone*, and
which tradition says is the stone on which the
brave John Hay's hawk alighted, after it had per-
formed its flight round the land given to him in
reward of his and his sons exploits at the battle of
Luncarty. See SCOTLAND.

(66.) St MAGEIRE, a town of France, in the
dep. of Gironde; 6 miles SE. of Cadillac.

(67.) St MAIXENT, a town of France, in the
dep. of the Sarte; with an ancient castle, containing
about 5000 citizens; 6 miles S. of Ferte Bernard.

(68—71.) St MARCEL, 4 towns of France: 1.
in the dep. of Ardeche, 24 miles S. of Privas: 2.
in that of Indre, 2 miles N. of Argenton: 3. in
that of the Mouths of the Rhone, 5 miles E. of
Marseilles: 4. in that of Saone and Loire, 3 miles
SE. of Chalons.

(72, 73.) St MARCELLIN, 2 towns of France:
1. in the dep. of Isere, 13½ miles NE. of Romans:
2. in that of the Rhone and Loire, 9 miles SSE.
of Montbrison.

(74.) St MARTHE. See SAINTE MARTHE.

(75.) St MARTIN, an island of the W. Indies
belonging to Denmark, near St Bartholomew. It
was taken by the British, under Adm. Duckworth,
and Lieut. Gen. Trigge, on the 24th March, 1801.
See N° 16, and THOMAS, St.

(76.) St MARTIN'S, a parish of Perthshire, uni-
ted with that of CAMBUSMICHAEL above 100
years ago; situated on the N. bank of the Tay, and
extending 4 miles to the E. by one in breadth.
The united parish is 5 miles N. of Perth, and 7
W. of Coupar in Angus. It is considerably eleva-
ted above the Tay, and the surface, though not
hilly, is diversified by ascents and declivities, and
in several places ornamented with plantations of
Scots firs, and coppice woods. The soil is a
black mould on a till bottom, and near the river
on a gravel. The air is salubrious. There are
vestiges of a Roman road from BERTHA through
a part of this parish, running E. past Berry Hills.
The population, in 1793, was about 1000; in-
crease 83 since 1755. Agriculture is much impro-

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ved, inclosures prevail, and good crops of the useful grain and roots are raised. The chief manufacture is flax. Limestone, marl, and free-stone around.

(77.) St Medar, a town of France, in the dep. of Dordogne: 12 miles SE. of Mucidan.

(78.) St Miklos, a town of Transylvania; 12 miles NNW. of Medies.

(79.) St Mirona, an island in the N. Pacific Ocean. Lon. 208. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 62. 35. N.

(80, i.) St Monance, a parish of Scotland, in Fifeshire, between Ely and Pittenweem; called *Abercrombie* before 1646: about 1½ miles long from S. to N. and one mile broad from W. to E. The land rises suddenly from the coast of the Frith of Forth, but to no great height. The surface is beautiful; the soil light loam, friable and fertile. The coast is flat and rocky, consisting of iron-stone and free stone, and affording plenty of sea weeds for kelp. The climate is mild, dry and temperate, except when the E. wind blows. The coast is frequented by seatails, quails, partridges, plovers, woodcocks, cuckoos, swallows, martins, &c. Agriculture is improved, and all the usual crops are raised. The population, in 1792, was 832; increase 52, since 1755. The parish church is part of an old convent, seated on a rock projecting into the Frith, on the W. of the town. It had been a magnificent Gothic pile of hewn stone, in the form of a cross, with a square steeple. The walls of the S. and N. branches remain, but want the roof. Of the W. there is no relic. The E. branch serves for a church.

(81, ii.) St Monance, a town in the above parish, seated on a triangular spot, on the Frith of Forth, with a tolerable harbour, from 18 to 20 feet deep. Being protected from the NE. N. and NW. winds, it is mild even in winter; but the entrance is narrow, between rocks. It was formerly a considerable fishing town. It lies 9 miles S. of St Andrews.

(82.) St More, a town of France, in the dep. of Yonne; 9 miles NW. of Avalon, and 15 SE. of Auxerre.

(83.) St Morel, a town of France, in the dep. of Ardennes: 4½ miles S. of Vouziers.

(84.) St Moritz, or } a town of the Helvetic
(84.) St Morizzo, } republic, in the country of the Grisons, in Upper Engadina, famous for a mineral spring; the waters of which were used with success in 1697, by Victor Amadeus, D. of Savoy. They are esteemed the most salubrious in all Switzerland, and superior even to those of Pyrmount in Germany. St Moritz lies 25 miles NNE. of Chiavenna.

(85.) St Mungo. See Kentigern.

86.) St Mungo, a parish of Dumfries-shire, in Annandale, 4 miles square, and 6 from the Solway Frith, anciently called *Castle Mark*; comprehending above 4,000 acres. It is surrounded on the E. and W. by high hills, but the surface is level, excepting a few eminences, on one of which are relics of a rectangular camp. The climate is moist: the soil is mostly a rich and fertile loam; the sides of the hills are stony. It is watered by the Annan and the Milk, and the banks of the latter abound with natural wood. There are also several thriving plantations, particularly about Castle-Milk, the residence of R. Lidderdale Esq. The population, in 1792, was 640; increase 159, since 1755. Husbandry is improved, and the usual crops are raised, but multures and thirlages prevail.

(87.) St Mungo's Hill, a hill in Aberdeenshire, in the parish of Huntly, which has several volcanic appearances; with a lake on its top, supposed to have been the crater.

(88.) St Mungo's Island. See Munn. N° 1.

(89—91.) St Nazaire, 3 towns of France: 1. in the dep. of Drome, 7 miles E. of Romans: 2. in that of the Lower Loire, 12 miles WSW. of Savenay: 3. in that of the Var, 3 miles W. of Toulon.

(92.) St Neomaye, a town of France, in the dep. of the Two Sevres: 9 miles NE. of Niort.

(93.) St Ninian, a town of England, in Northumberland: with a fair, Sept. 27.

(94.) St Oluf, a town of Sweden, in the province of Skonen: 23 miles S. of Christianstad.

(95—97.) St Ouen, 3 towns of France: 1. in the dep. of Indre and Loire: 4 miles N. of Amboise: 2. in that of Marne, 12 miles SSW. of Vitry: 3. in that of Paris, 4 miles N. of Paris.

(98.) St Owen, a town on the W. coast of the isle of Jersey: 6 miles WNW. of St Helier.

(99.) St Owen's Bay, a bay of Jersey, on the coast of the above town.

(100.) St Pardoux, a town of France, in the dep. of the Two Sevres: 5 miles SSW. of Partenay.

(101.) St Pargoire, a town of France, in the dep. of Herault; 6 miles NE. of Pezenas.

(102.) St Pois, a town of France in the dep. of the Channel; 12 miles ENE. of Avranches.

(103, i.) St Pol, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais: 34 miles N. of Abbeville.

(104, ii.) St Pol de Leon, a town of France, in the dep. of Finisterre; 37 miles NE. of Brest.

(105.) St Prest, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure and Loire; 6 miles N. of Chartres.

(106.) St Prex, or } a town of the Helvetic
(106.) St Prez, } public, in the canton of Berne; on the N. coast of the lake of Geneva: 9 miles SW. of Lausan.

(107.) St Priest, a town of France, in the dep. of the Here; 6 miles SE. of Lyons.

(108.) St Privat, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Loire: 9 miles SW. of Puy.

(109, 110.) St Prix, two towns of France: 1. in the dep. of Seine and Oise, 10 miles N. of Paris. 2. in that of the Yonne, 4½ miles SSE. of Auxerre, and 15 SW. of Tonnere.

(111, 112.) St Quentin, 2 towns of France: 1. in the dep. of Gard, 3 miles N. of Uzes, and 15 S. of Pont St Esprit: 2. in that of Isere, 12 miles NE. of St Marcellin, and 10½ NW. of Grenoble.

(113.) St Quirico, a town of Italy, in Etruria, 8 miles WSW. of Pulciano.

(114.) St Regolo, a town of Etruria, 9 miles E. of Legborn.

(115.) St Remedio, a town of Germany, in the Tyrolese: 13 miles SW. of Bolzano.

(116.) St Remo, a town of the Genoese republic, with a good harbour on the coast of the Mediterranean. Its suburbs abound with lemon, pomegranate, olive, and other fine fruit-trees and

excellent oil is made from the olives. In 5, it was bombarded by the British fleet. It miles ENE. of Ventimiglia.

117, 118.) ST ROMAIN, 2 towns of France: 1. dep. of the Charente; 3 miles NW. of Aube- e: 2. in that of the Lower Seine; 7½ miles E. Montivilliers, and 15 W. of Caudebec.

119.) ST ROMAON, a town of Portugal, in the v. of Beira: 20 miles SSE. of Vifeu.

120.) SAINTS, in geography. See SAINTES.

121.) SAINTS, PILLAR, in church history. See STORY, *Part* II. *Sect.* VI.

To SAINT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To num- among saints; to reckon among saints by a ihe decree; to canonize.—Are not the princi- s of thofe wretches ſtill owned, and their per- s *fainted*? *South.*—A large hoſpital, erected by oemaker, who has been beatified, though ne- *fainted*. *Addiſon.*—

Love's victim then, tho' now a *fainted* maid. *Pope.*

SAINTA, a large lake, ſituated partly in the dish province of Savolax, and partly in the ſſian government of Viborg: above 200 miles g, and full of mountainous iſlands. The river ſſa communicates between it and lake Ladoga.

SAINTARA, a town of Aſia, in Thibet: 58 m NNE. of Oramtchi Hotun.

SAINTED. *adj.* [from *ſaint*.] 1. Holy; pi- ; virtuous.—

Thy royal father
Was a moſt *fainted* king. *Shak.*

Holy; ſacred.—

I hold you as a thing enſkied and *fainted*, by your renouncement. *Shak.*

Amongſt the enthroned gods on *fainted* Imis. *Milton.*

1.) SAINTE MARTHE, Charles, or Carolus SAINTHANUS, M. D. ſon of Gaucher Sainte rthe, an eloquent and learned French writer, n in 1512. He was much patroniſed by Mar- et Q. of Navarre, and the ducheſs of Vendome. that queen's death he made a funeral oration Latin, which was publiſhed. He wrote other ms, in Latin and French; and died in 1555.

2.) SAINTE MARTHE, Scevola, nephew of the , was born at Loudun, in 1536. He early ac- red the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages, became famous as a lawyer, orator, poet, and orian. He was alſo a zealous patriot, and a ly friend. He was much employed under ry III. and IV. In 1579, he was governor of ers and treaſurer. In 1593 and 94, he was ndant of finances in the army, and reduced ers under Henry IV. He publiſhed, 1. *La ange de la Ville de Poictiers*; 1573: 2. *Opera tica*; *Lat. et Gall.* 1575: 3. *Gallorum doctrina ium Elogia*; 1598: and 4. his chief work, *lotrophia, ſeu de Puerorum educatione* dedi- to Henry III: 1584. It went through 10 tions during his life, and has been often re- ted. He died in 1623; leaving ſeveral ſons. N° 3—3.

3.) SAINTE MARTHE, Abel, eldeſt ſon of Sce- a, was born at Loudun, in 1570; and cultiva- like him Latin and French poetry. His poems e printed along with his father's in 1632, 4to; n XIII. gave him a penſion; made him a counſellor of ſtate; and in 1627, made him his librarian, and ſome other offices. He publiſhed *Opuſcula Varia*, at Poictiers, in 8vo, 1645. He died in 1652.

(4, 5.) SAINTE MARTHE, Scevola and Lewis, the 2d and 3d ſons of Scevola, were twin brothers, born in 1571, and of the ſame temper, genius and ſtudies, except that Scevola continued a layman and married, while Lewis put on the eccleſiaſtical habit. They lived together in the moſt perfect union, and were employed in the ſame literary labours. They were both counſellors to the king, and hiſtoriographers of France. They equally diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their learning, and compoſed in conjunction the celebrated work *Gallia Chriſtiana*. Scevola died in 1650, and Lewis in 1656; but they were both interred in the ſame grave at St Severin.

(6.) SAINTE MARTHE, Abel, the ſon of Abel, (N° 3.) was born in 1630, and was alſo eminent for his learning. He ſucceeded his father as librarian at Fountainbleau; and in that character preſented to Lewis XIV. in 1668, *Un Diſcours pour le retabliſſement de cette Bibliotheque*. He died in 1706.

(7—10.) SAINTE MARTHE, Abel Lewis, Claude, Denis, and Peter-Scevola, were other four learned writers, of the ſame family, who diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their various publications.

SAINTENY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel: 4½ miles SW. of Carentan, and 15 NNE. of Coutances.

(1.) SAINTES, an ancient and conſiderable city of France, in the dep. of Lower Charente, and late capital of the ci-devant province of Saintonge. Before the revolution it was a biſhop's ſee. It contained likewiſe ſeveral convents, a Jeſuits college, and an abbey remarkable for its ſteeple, built with ſmall ſtones, which admit the light. The caſtle is ſeated on a rock, and is reckoned impregnable. This city was a Roman colony; and thoſe conquerors of the world, who poliſhed the nations they ſubdued, have left behind them ſome traces of their magnificence. In a hollow valley between two mountains, and almoſt adjoining to one of the ſuburbs, are the ruins of the amphitheatre. Though now in the laſt ſtage of decay, its appearance is auguſt and venerable. In ſome parts, ſcarce any of the arches are to be ſeen; but the eaſt end is ſtill in a great degree of preſervation. From its ſituation in a valley, and from the ruins of an aqueduct which conveyed water to the town from 9 miles diſtance, it has been ſuppoſed that Naumachiæ were repreſented in it. A triumphal arch, on which is an inſcription in Roman letters, merits attention. It was erected to GERMANICUS, on the news of his death, ſo univerſally lamented throughout the empire. The Charente ſurrounds this city, in the form of a horſe-ſhoe. It has alſo a tower, ſaid to have been built as early as 600 by Charlemagne. It is of an enormous magnitude, both as to height and circumference. Saintes is ſeated on an eminence, 37 miles SE. of Rochelle, and 262 SSW. of Paris. Lon. 0. 34. W. Lat. 45. 45. N.

(2.) SAINTES, three of the Leeward Caribbee Iſlands, 9 miles from Guadaloupe. They form a triangle, and have a tolerable harbour. Thirty Frenchmen were ſent thither in 1648, but were

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ſoon driven away by exceſſive drought, which dried up their only ſpring before they had time to make any reſervoirs. A 2d attempt was made in 1652, and laſting plantations were eſtabliſhed, which now yield 50,000 weight of coffee, and 10..000 of cotton.

SAINTFIELD, a town of Ireland, in the county of Down, and province of Uiſter; famous for its linen manufactures.

SAINTFOIN, in botany, a ſpecies of hedyſarum. See HEDYSARUM; and RURAL ECONOMY, *Part* II. *Sect.* IV.

* SAINTLIKE. *adj.* [*ſaint* and *like.*] 1. Suiting a ſaint; becoming a ſaint.—

The ſame ill habits, the ſame follies too,
Gloſs'd over only with a *ſaintlike* ſhow. *Dryd.*

2. Reſembling a ſaint.—The king, whom catholicks count a *ſaintlike* and immaculate prince, was taken away in the flower of his age. *Bacon.*

* SAINTLY. *adj.* [from *ſaint.*] Like a ſaint; becoming a ſaint.—

Him whom thy wrongs, with *ſaintly* patience born,
Made famous in a land and times obſcure. *Milt.*

SAINTONGE, a ci-devant province of France, which was bounded on the E. by Angoumois and Perigord, on the N. by Poitou, and the territory of Aunis; on the W. by the ocean; and on the S. by Bourdelois and Giron; about 62 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The Charente runs through the middle of it, and renders it one of the fineſt and moſt fertile provinces in France, abounding in all ſorts of corn and fruits; and they make the beſt ſalt here in Europe. It now forms, with the ci-devant province of Aunis, the department of the Lower Charente.

SAINTRAILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot and Garonne: 5 miles NW. of Nerac.

* SAINTSHIP. *n. ſ.* [from *ſaint.*] The character or qualities of a ſaint.—He that thinks his *ſaintſhip* licenſes him to cenſures, is to be looked on not only as a rebel, but an uſurper. *Decay of Piety.*—This favours ſomething ranker than the tenets of the fifth monarchy, and of ſovereignty founded upon *ſaintſhip*. *South.*—

The devil was piqu'd ſuch *ſaintſhip* to behold,
And long'd to tempt him. *Pope.*

SAINVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure and Loire; 13½ miles N. of Janville, and 15 E. of Chartres.

SAIPACHZELL, a town of Germany, in imperial Auſtria; 6 miles SW. of Wells.

SAIPOUR, a town of Hindooſtan, in Benares; in the diſtrict of Singrowla: 55 miles S. of Mirzapour, and 68 S. of Benares.

SAIQUE. See SAICK.

SAIRE. See ZAIRE.

SAISAR, a town of Perſia, in Irak: 78 miles NW. of Amadan.

SAISSAC, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aude: 12 miles NW. of Carcaſſone.

SAISSANDEN, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Bambouk.

SAISSANS, a town of France, in the dep. of the Gers: 3 miles N. of Maſſeube.

SAITELBACH, a river of Germany, in Suabia: which runs into the Fils, near Kuchen in Ulm.

SAITO, a river of Italy, in Naples; which runs into the Sea, 5 miles E. of Squillace.

SAIZY, a town of France, in the dep. of Saone and Loire: 10 m. E. of Autun, and 9 W. of Charo

SAK, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Volga; 12 miles above Samara, in Simbirſk.

SAKAN, a river of Perſia, which runs into the Perſian Gulf, near Bender Rigk.

SAKARA, a town of Egypt, 5 miles W. of the Nile, and 14 SSW. of Cairo.

SAKARIA, a river of Aſiatic Turkey; which runs into the Black Sea; 54 miles W. of Iregri

* SAKE. *n. ſ.* [*ſac*, Saxon; *ſacke*, Dutch.] Final cauſe; end; purpoſe.—

Thou neither do'ſt perſuade me to ſeek wea
For empire's *ſake*, nor empire to affect
For glory's *ſake*. Mi
—The prophane perſon ſins only for ſins *Tillotſon.*—

Proud of the ravage that her beauties mak
Delights in wounds, and kills for killing's
Garth.

2. Account; regard to any perſon or thing.—Would I were young for your *ſake!* Sha
The general ſo likes your muſick, that he de
you, for love's *ſake*, to make no more noiſe
it. *Shak.*

(1.) * SAKER. *n. ſ.* [*Saker* originally ſignifi an hawk, the pieces of artillery being often de minated from birds of prey.]—

The cannon, blunderbuſs, and *ſaker*,
He was th' inventor of, and maker. Hudib
—According to obſervations made with our her majeſty's *ſakers*, and a very accurate pen lum chronometer, a bullet, at its firſt diſcha flies 510 yards in five half ſeconds, which is m in a little above 17 half ſeconds. *Derham.*

(2.) SAKER. See SACRE.

* SAKERET. *n. ſ.* [from *ſaker.*] The nam a ſaker-hawk.—This kind of hawk is chie next after the falcon and gyr-falcon. *Bail*

SAKIE, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in Irak: 80 miles NW. of Baſſora.

SAKIES, a river of Canada, which runs lake Michigan, in Lon. 86. 45. W. Lat. 43.

SAKIT, a town of Egypt, on the W. bank the Nile: 8 miles NE. of Aſhmunien.

SAKMARA, a river of Ruſſia, which runs i the Ural; near Orenburg.

SAKRADAWENDRA, one of the Ceylon deities, who commands and governs all the and formerly anſwered the prayers of his w ſhippers; but according to the fabulous acco which is given of him, the golden chair, on wh he ſat, and the foot of which was made of that was ſoftened by their prayers and tears, ſunk downward, ſo that he could take notice their requeſts and relieve them, being diſpoſed among the poor, they no longer derive any be fit from him, or pay him any reverence. S BUDUN.

SAKRAN, a river of Perſia, which runs i the Perſian Gulph, near Bender Rigk.

(1.) * SAL. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] Salt. A word often u in pharmacy.—Acids will help its paſſing off; *ſal* prunel. *Floyer.*—*Sal* gem is ſo called from breaking frequently into gem-like ſquares. It d

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not in property from the common ſalt of the ſprings, or that of the ſea, when all are equal- ure. *Woodward.*—*Sal* Ammoniack is found in Ammonia, as mentioned by the ancients, from whence it had its name. *Woodward.*

.) Sal. See Salt.

.) Sal, in geography, a town of Arabia De- ; 20 miles NE. of Jamama.

.) Sal, a river of Mexico.

.) Sal, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the , oppoſite Kotcheloviſkaia; 20 miles ENE. of erkaſk.

.) Sal, or Salt, an iſland of Africa, one of Cape de Verd Islands, ſo called from its erous ſalt ponds, where the water, which o- ows part of it frequently, cryſtallizes into a tiful ſalt. This uſeful commodity is the chief ral production of the iſland; which moſt au- s repreſent as ſo barren, as to be incapable of ucing any thing but a few inconſiderable bs. Dampier ſaw hardly a blade of graſs, and, imals, only a few ſmall goats, which bore all narks of ſtarvation: Yet Davity affirms, that, ithſtanding the apparent barrenneſs of the d, it is inhabited by incredible numbers of s, ſeveral aſſes, a few ſmall horſes, and a vaſt ty of ſea fowls. And La Croix ſays, that a ious number of tortoiſes lay their eggs on land, which alone would maintain a great ber of inhabitants. Lon. 21. 59. W. Lat. 16. N.

.) Sal, a lake of N. America; in Lon. 92. 30. 50. 25. N.

) Sal admirabile. See Chemistry, *In-* and *Vocab.* I.

) Sal Alembroth. See Alembroth, and mistry, *Vocab.* I.

.) Sal Ammoniac. See Chemistry, *Index*, r Ammoniac, and Sal; alſo *Vocab.* I. & II.

.) Sal Ammoniac, Native. This ſalt, ac- ng to Mongou, is met with in the form of an eſcence on the ſurface of the earth, or adhe- n powder to rocks. Sometimes, as in Perſia he country of the Kalmucks, it is found as as ſtone. It is met with of different colours, y, black, green, and red, in the neighbour- of volcanoes, in the caverns or grottoes of uoli, and in the mineral lakes of Tuſcany, as a in ſome mountains of Tartary and Thibet. olfaterra, near Naples, it is found in the cre- , of a yellowiſh colour, like common ſal am- ac more than once ſublimed.

.) Sal de duobus. See Chemistry, *Voc.* I.

.) Sal Enixum of Paracelſus, the caput uum of ſpirit of nitre with oil of vitriol; or remains in the retort, after diſtilling this ſpi- It is w ite, and of a pleaſant acid taſte.

.) Sal Gem. See Chemistry, *Vocab.* I.

.) Sal Glauberi. See Chemistry, *Index*, Glauber.

.) Sal Kali. See Salsola, N° 3.

.) Sal Microcosmicus. See Chemistry.

.) Sal Polychrestum. See Chemistry, . I. under Salt; and Polychrest, § 2.

.) Sal Prunellæ, a preparation of ſaltpetre flowers of brimſtone.

.) Sal Saturni. See Chemistry, § 867; Saccharum, N° 2.

(21.) Sal Sedativus. See Borax, § IH. and Chemistry, *Vocab.* I. This ſalt is now called *Boracic Acid.*

(22.) Sal Vegetabilis. See Chemistry, *Index*, at Vegetable.

(23.) Sal Volatilis. See Chemistry, *Index*, at Volatile.

(1.) SALA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Tombuctoo: 170 miles NE. of Tombuctou.

(2.) Sala, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Tanaro, late principality of Piedmont, and ci-devant duchy of Aoſta: 11 m. W. of Aoſta.

(3.) Sala, another town of the French empire, in the ci-devant duchy of Parma, for that tho is annexed to the overgrown empire: 3 miles SSW. of Parma.

(4.) Sala, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra; 15 miles N. of Policaſtro.

(5.) Sala, or Salberg, a town of Sweden, in Weſtmania; built by Guſtavus Adolphus, in 1624; near a ſilver mine, and medicinal ſpring. It was burnt in 1736. It is ſeated on the river Salha; 30 miles W. of Upſal, and 50 NW. of Stockholm. Lon. 17. 45. E. Lat. 59. 50. N.

SALABIA Bay, a bay on the E. coaſt of Dominica; one mile S. of Pagua Point.

SALACIA, in botany, a genus of the tryginia order, belonging to the gynandria claſs of plants. The calyx is quinquefid; the corollla quinquepetalous; the antheræ ſitting on the top or the germ.

* SALACIOUS. *adj.* [*ſolax*, Lat. *jalace*, Fr.] Luſtful; lecherous.—

One more *ſalacious*, rich, and old,
Out-bids, and buys her. *Dryden's Juvenal.*

Feed him with herbs
Of generous warmth, and of *ſalacious* kind. *Dryd.*
—Animals ſpleened, grow extremely *ſalacious*. *Arbuthnot.*

* SALACIOUSLY. *adv.* [from *ſalacious.*] Lecherouſly; luſtfully.

* SALACITY. *n. ſ.* [*ſalacitas*, Lat. from *ſalacious.*] Luſt; lechery.—Immoderate *ſalacity* and exceſs of venery is ſuppoſed to ſhorten the lives of cocks. *Brown.*—A corroſive acrimony in the ſeminal lympha produces *ſalacity*. *Floyer.*

(1.) * SALAD. *n. ſ.* [*ſalade*, Fr. *ſalaet*, Germ.] Food of raw herbs. It has been always pronounced familiarly *ſallet.*—I climbed into this garden to pick a *ſalad*. *Speak.*—

My *ſalad* days,
When I was green in judgment. *Shak.*

You have, to rectify your palate,
An olive, capers, or ſome better *ſalad*. *Ben Jo.*
Some coarſe cold *ſalad* is before thee ſet;
Fall on. *Dryden's Perſius.*

—The happy old Coricyan's fruits and *ſalads*, on which he lived contented, were all of his own growth. *Dryden.*—Leaves, eaten raw, are termed *ſalad*: if boiled they become potherbs; and ſome of thoſe plants which are potherbs in one family, are *ſalad* in another. *Watts.*

(2.) Salad. See Sallet.

(1.) SALADA, a river of S. America, in Chili, which runs into the S. Pacific Ocean; in Lat. 26. 10. S.

(2.) Salada, an iſland of N. America; whoſe NE. point lies in Lon. 64. 12. W. and Lat. 10. 59. N.

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SALADIN, a famous ſultan of Egypt, equally renowned as a warrior and legiſlator. He ſupported himſelf by his valour, and the influence of his amiable character, againſt the united efforts of the chief Chriſtian potentates of Europe, who carried on the moſt unjuſt wars againſt him, under the falſe appellation of *Holy Wars*. See CROISADE, § 4; and EGYPT, § 17 & 18.

SALAGNAC, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Vienne, 4½ miles S. of Limoges.

SALAGNA, a ſea port of Mexico, on the W. coaſt, near St Jago, 24 miles from the valley of Colima. It has two good harbours, called *Calletas*; that on the NW. is ſafe in all winds.

SALAHICH. See SALEHICH.

SALAIGNAC. See SALIGNAC.

SALAKA, a ſeaport town of Africa, in Nubia, on the W. coaſt of the Red Sea. Lon. 54. 20. E. Lat. 20. 42. N.

(1.) SALAMANCA, an ancient, large, rich, and populous city of Spain, in the kingdom of Leon, ſituated on the river Tormes, about 75 miles W. of Madrid. It is ſaid to have been founded by Teucer the ſon of Telamon, who called it *Salamis* or *Salamantica*, in memory of the ancient Salamis. Here is an univerſity, the greateſt in Spain, and perhaps inferior to none in the whole world, in reſpect at leaſt to its revenues, buildings, number of ſcholars, and maſters. Here are alſo many grand and magnificent palaces, ſquares, convents, churches, colleges, chapels, and hoſpitals. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Compoſtella, and has a yearly revenue of 1000 ducats. A Roman way leads from hence to Merida and Seville, and there is an old Roman bridge over the river. Of the colleges in the univerſity, 4 are appropriated to young men of quality; and near it is an infirmary for poor ſick ſcholars. Lon. 6. 10. W. Lat. 41. 0. N.

(2.) SALAMANCA DE BACALAR, a flouriſhing town of Mexico, in Yucatan, on the E. ſide of the iſthmus, which joins the peninſula to the continent: 150 miles S. of Merida, and 140 S. of Campeachy. Lon. 90. 30. W. Lat. 17. 2. N.

(1.) * SALAMANDER. *n. ſ.* [*ſalamander*, Fr. *ſalamandra*, Lat.] An animal ſuppoſed to live in the fire, and imagined to be very poiſonous. *Ambroſe Parey* has a picture of the ſalamander, with a receipt for her bite; but there is no ſuch creature, the name being now given to a poor harmleſs inſect.—The *ſalamander* liveth in the fire, and hath force alſo to extinguiſh it. *Bacon's Nat. Hiſt.*—According to this hypotheſis, the whole lunar world is a torrid zone, and may be ſuppoſed uninhabitable, except they are *ſalamanders* which dwell therein. *Glanville.*—Whereas it is commonly ſaid that a *ſalamander* extinguiſheth fire, we have found by experience, that on hot coals it dieth immediately. *Brown.*—The artiſt was ſo encompaſſed with fire and ſmoke, that one would have thought nothing but a *ſalamander* could have been ſafe in ſuch a ſituation. *Guardian.*

(2.) SALAMANDER. See LACERTA, N° 13 & 19.

(1.) SALAMANDER'S HAIR. See AMIANTHUS.

(2.) * SALAMANDER'S HAIR. } *n. ſ.* A kind of
(2.) * SALAMANDER'S WOOL. } aſbeſtos, or mineral flax.—There may be ſuch candles as are made of *ſalamander's wool*, being a kind of mineral, which whiteneth in the burning, and conſumeth not. *Bacon.*—Of Engliſh talc; the coarſer ſort is called plaiſter or parget; the finer, ſpun earth flax, or *ſalamander's hair*. *Woodward.*

* SALAMANDRINE. *adj.* (from *ſalamander*) Reſembling a ſalamander.—Laying it into a pan of burning coals, we obſerved a certain *ſalamandrine* quality, that made it capable of living in the midſt of fire, without being conſumed or ſcorched. *Spectator.*

SALAMANIE, a river of the United States, in the North-Weſtern Territory, which riſes by two head-waters, which unite about 35 miles above its mouth, and falls into the Wabaſh, about 80 miles below its ſource.

SALAMINA. } See SALAMIS, N° 1 & 3.
SALAMINIA. }

SALAMINIAN, *adj.* Of, or belonging to, SALAMIS.

(1.) SALAMIS, or SALAMINA, an iſland of the Archipelago, in the Sinus Saronicus, on the coaſt of Attica, oppoſite to Eleuſis; famous for the battle between the Greek and Perſian fleets. In the council of war held among the Perſian the commanders were for engaging, becauſe they knew this to be moſt agreeable to the king. Artemiſia was the only perſon who oppoſed this reſolution. She was queen of Halicarnaſſus, and followed Xerxes in this war with five ſhips, the beſt equipped of any in the fleet, except thoſe of the Sidonians. She diſtinguiſhed herſelf on all occaſions by her ſingular courage, and ſtill more by her prudence and conduct. She repreſented in the council of war, the dangerous conſequences of engaging a people that were far more expert in maritime affairs than the Perſians; alleging, that the loſs of a battle at ſea would be attended with the ruin of their army; whereas, by protracting the war, and advancing into the heart of Greece, they would create jealouſies and diviſions among their enemies, who would ſeparate to defend his own country; and that the king might thus make himſelf maſter of Greece. This prudent advice was not followed, but an engagement reſolved upon. Xerxes, to encourage his men, ordered a throne to be erected on the top of an eminence, whence he might ſafely behold whatever paſſed; having ſeveral ſcribes about him, to write down the names of ſuch as ſhould ſignalize themſelves. The approach of the Perſian fleet, and the news that a ſtrong detachment from the army was marching againſt Cleombrotus, who had poſſeſſed the iſthmus, ſtruck ſuch terror into the Peloponneſians, that they could not be prevailed upon to ſtay any longer at Salamis. Themiſtocles, being of this, privately diſpatched a truſty friend to the Perſian commanders, informing them of the intended flight; and exhorting them to ſurround of their fleet round the iſland, to prevent their eſcape. The ſame meſſenger aſſured Xerxes, that Themiſtocles deſigned to join the Perſians, as ſoon as the battle began, with all the Athenian fleet. The king, giving credit to all this, immediately cauſed a ſtrong ſquadron to ſail round the iſland in the night to cut off the enemy's flight. But the next morning, as the Peloponneſians were preparing to ſet ſail, they found themſelves encompaſſed on all ſides by the Perſian fleet; and were

ſt their will obliged to remain in the ſtraits of
mis, and expoſe themſelves to the ſame dangers
their allies. The Grecian fleet conſiſted of
ſail, that of the Perſians of 2000 and upwards.
miſtocles avoided the engagement till a certain
l, which roſe regularly every day at the ſame
, and which was entirely contrary to the ene-
began to blow. As ſoon as this wind blew,
ve the ſignal for battle. The Perſians ad-
ed with great reſolution, but the wind blow-
directly in their faces, and the largeneſs and
ber of their ſhips embarraſſing them in a place
ait and narrow, their courage failed; which
Greeks obſerving, uſed ſuch efforts, that,
ting into the Perſian fleet, they entirely diſ-
red them; ſome flying towards Phalarus,
e their army lay encamped; others ſaving
ſelves in the harbours of the neighbouring
ds. The Ionians were the firſt who fled. But
emiſia diſtinguiſhed herſelf, her ſhips being
aſt that fled: which Xerxes obſerving, cried
that the men behaved like women, and the
en with the courage and intrepidity of men.
Athenians offered a reward of 10,000 drachmas
y one that ſhould take her alive: but ſhe got
of the ſhips, and arrived ſafe on the coaſt of
. In this engagement, which was one of the
memorable recorded in hiſtory, the Grecians
o ſhips; and the Perſians 200, beſides many
that were taken, with all the men and am-
tion they carried. The iſland of Salamis was
mtly called SCIRAS and *Cenchrea*. It is now
d *Colouri*. It is of a very irregular ſhape; it
reckoned 70 or 80 ſtadia, *i. e.* 8 or 10 miles
, reaching W. as far as the mountains called
ta or *The Horns*. Pauſanias ſays, that on one
of this iſland ſtood in his time a temple of Di-
and on the other a trophy for a victory ob-
d by Themiſtocles, together with the temple
enchreus, or Cychreus, the ſite of which is
thought to be occupied by the church of St
olas.

.) SALAMIS, the capital of the above iſland.
city was demoliſhed by the Athenians, be-
in the war with Caſſander it ſurrendered to
Macedonians, from diſaffection. In the 2d
ury, when it was viſited by Pauſanias, ſome
of the Agora or market-place remained, with
ple and image of Ajax; and not far from the
was ſhown a ſtone, on which, they related,
mon ſat to view the Salaminian ſhips on their
rture to join the Grecian fleet at Aulis. The
may ſtill be traced, and were about 4 miles
rcumference. The level ſpace within them
now covered with green corn. The port is
ed with mud, and was partly dry. Among
ſcattered marbles are ſome with inſcriptions.
is of great antiquity, before the introduction
e Ionic alphabet. On another, near the port,
ame of Solon occurs. This renowned law-
r was a native of Salamis, and a ſtatue of him
erected in the market-place, with one hand
red by his veſt, the modeſt attitude in which
as accuſtomed to addreſs the people of A-
ns. An inſcription on black marble was alſo
ed in 1676 near the ruin of a temple, probab-
at of Ajax. The iſland of Salamis is now in-
ted by a few Albanians, who till the ground.
Their village is called *Ampelaki*, i. e. *the Vineyard*, and is at a diſtance from the port, ſtanding more inland. In the church are marble fragments and ſome inſcriptions. Lon. 34. 0. E. Lat. 37. 32. N.

(3.) SALAMIS, SALAMINA, or SALAMINIA, an ancient town of Cyprus on the SE. coaſt. It was built by Teucer, and ſo named by him from the iſland, (N° 1.) from which he had been baniſhed, about A. A. C. 1270. His deſcendants continued maſters of it for above 800 years. It was deſtroyed by an earthquake, but rebuilt in the 4th century, and called CONSTANTIA. It is now called SALINA.

(4.) SALAMIS, in the mythology, a daughter of the river god Aſopus, by the nymph Methone. Neptune became enamoured of her, and carried her to the iſland afterwards named from her, (N° 1.) where ſhe bore him a ſon, named *Cenchreus*.

SALAMONE, a promontory of the iſle of Candia, on the E. end; 16 miles E. of Settia.

SALANAKEM, a town of Sclavonia, famous for a victory obtained by the Prince of Baden over the Turks, in 1691; and for another, in 1716. It is ſeated on the Danube, 20 miles NW. of Belgrade, and 25 SE. of Peterwaradin. Lon. 20. 53. E. Lat. 45. 14. N.

SALANCHE, or } a town of the French em-
SALANCHES, } pire, in the department of Mont Blanc, and ci-devant duchy of Savoy, late capital of Upper Faucigny. It is ſeated in a mountainous country, on a rivulet, which runs into the Arve; and contains about 4000 citizens, who, beſides a weekly market, carry on a conſiderable traffic in horſes, black cattle, cheeſe, woollen ſtuffs, iron works, &c. It lies 12 miles N. of Cluſes, 25 E. of Annecy, and 31 SE. of Geneva.

SALANDRA, a town of Naples, in the province of Baſilicata: 22 miles SE. of Acerenza.

SALANIE, a town of Egypt, one mile W. of Damietta.

SALANKEMEN. See SALANAKEM.

SALAPIA, or } in ancient geography, a town
SALAPIÆ, } of Italy, in Apulia; to which Hannibal retired after the battle of Cannæ. It was afterwards taken from him by Marcellus. Its ruins are now called SALPE. *Lucan.* v. 377. *Val. Max.* iii, 8. *Plin.* iii, 11.

SALAPINA PALUS, a lake of Apulia, near the above town, now uſed for making ſalt, which its waters abound with, and which, being near the coaſt, is eaſily conveyed in ſmall boats on board of large veſſels.

SALARANO, a town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Olona, diſtrict and late duchy of Milan, ſeated on the Lambro: 5 miles WSW. of Lodi, and 15 SE. of Milan. Lon. 9. 22. E. Lat. 42. 44. N.

SALARIO, Andrew, an eminent Italian painter, born at Milan, in 1487. He was a diſciple of the celebrated Leonard Da Vinci. He died at Florence in 1559, aged 77.

SALARIUM. See SALARY, § 2.

SALARS, a town of France, in the department of the Aveiron; 7¼ miles SE. of Rhodez.

(1.) * SALARY. *n. ſ.* [*ſalaire*, Fr. *ſalarium*, Lat.] 1. Salarium, or *ſalary*, is derived from *ſal. Arbuth.* 2. Stated hire; annual or periodical payment.—This is hire and *ſalary*, not revenge. *Shak.*—Seve-

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be proved within three years of the date of
ait article, by one witness, and the creditor's
, and oath in supplement. After three
, they can only be proved by the oath or
of the debtor. A merchant's books are in all
good evidence against him.

.) SALE, George, a learned English author,
did much service to the republic of letters;
ardly any memoir is preserved of him. He
principal hand in the *Universal History*, and
piled all the Oriental Part of it. He was al-
gaged in other important literary labours;
his chief work is *The Koran*, commonly cal-
the *Alcoran* of Mahomet, which he translated
English immediately from the original Ara-
; and enriched with explanatory notes from
most approved commentators; and to which
refixed a preliminary Discourse: Lond. 4to
. (See ALCORAN, KORAN, MAHOMETAN-
, &c.) Mr Sale died in 1736.

.) SALE, in geography, a lake of Persia, in
province of Farsistan: 9 miles E. of Schiras.

.) SALE, a river of Prussia, which runs into
Drusen: 6 miles W. of Holland.

North and South River, the former of which has a bridge, to Beverley, 1500 feet long; but the best harbour, and chief place of trade is on South River. In 1790, it contained 728 houses, 7921 citizens, and 7 churches; viz. 5 for congregationalists, one for episcopalians, and one for Quakers. It has also an elegant court-house built in 1786; and a bank incorporated in 1792. This town was first settled in 1628; and, in 1692, was remarkable for the delusion, that gave rise to the persecution of the unfortunate women supposed to be witches. It is now remarkable for the industry of its inhabitants, who carry on a great trade to Europe, Africa, the W. Indies and the other States. The annual exports, in Sept. 1794, amounted to 1,452,412 dollars. A manufactory of duck and sail-cloth is also prosecuted with energy. The harbour has a fort and citadel. Salem lies 19 miles NE. of Boston, and 366 NE. by N. of Philadelphia. Lon. 71. 39. W. Lat. 42. 16. N.

(5.) SALEM, a county of New Jersey, 21 miles long, and 19 broad; bounded on the N. by Gloucester County, E. by Cumberland, S. and SW. by Delaware Bay, and W. by the river Delaware. It is divided into 9 townships; viz. Salem, Mannington, Elfingborough, Pittsgrove, Pinegrove, Upper and Lower Penn's Neck, Upper and Lower Alloway Creeks. In 1795, it contained 10,265 citizens, and 172 slaves. The land is fertile, in corn, wheat, flax, &c.

(6.) SALEM, the capital of the above county, is seated on a branch of the Salem, 3½ miles above its influx into Delaware Bay. It has a court-house and 3 churches, for Baptists, Quakers, and Methodists. It lies 37 miles SSW. of Philadelphia. Lon. 75. 32. W. Lat. 39. 37. N.

(7.) SALEM, a river of New Jersey, which rises in the above county, (N° 5.) passes on the N. of the town (N° 6.) and falls into Delaware Bay, above Reedy Island. It is navigable by boats for several miles.

(8.) SALEM, a town of New York, the capital of Washington county. It has a court-house and a Presbyterian church. In 1795, it contained 2,164 citizens, 386 electors, and 22 slaves.

(9.) SALEM, a township of New York, in W. Chester county, containing 1453 inhabitants in 1795; of whom 202 were electors and 19 slaves.

(10.) SALEM, a post town of N. Carolina, in Stokes county, seated on the W. bank of Wack creek. It was first settled in 1766, by the Moravians. It is regularly laid out, and has a paper mill, where much paper is manufactured. It is 35 miles NE. by N. of Salisbury, 176 W. by S. of Halifax, and 531 SW. by S. of Philadelphia. Lon. 5. 0. W. of that city. Lat. 36. 8. N.

(11.) SALEM, a town of N. Carolina, the capital of Surrey county, in Salisbury district. It is the chief settlement of the Moravians in N. Carolina. It lies 170 miles W. of Edenton. Lon. 80. 21. W. Lat. 36. 2. N.

(12.) SALEM, a Moravian town in the North Western Territory, seated on the N. branch of the Monongahela; 5 miles from Gnadenhutten, on the opposite bank of the river, and 78 W. of Pittsburg. On Sept. 3d 1788, Congress granted

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(4.) SALE, in geography, a lake of Perſia, in
provence of Farſiſtan: 9 miles E. of Schiras.

(5.) SALE, a river of Pruſſia, which runs into
Frauenburg: 6 miles W. of Holland.

LEABLE. *adj.* [from *ſale*.] Venſible; fit
ketable.—I can impute this general
of *ſaleable* things to no cauſe ſooner
iſman's want of vent and money.
vent is made quicker or ſlower, as
ſs quantities of any *ſaleable* commo-
out of the courſe of trade. *Locke.*
BLENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ſaleable*.] The
ſaleable.
BLY. *adv.* [from *ſaleable*.] In a ſale-
.
ROUS. *adj.* [*ſalebroſus*, Lat.
gh;
ged.
O, a town of Africa,
near the Mediterra
nt caſtle: 16 miles
of Monaſter.
N, LOUGH, a lak
Mayo, near Caſt
a river of Aſſ
CH, a town
IS, a poet
egrity, and
Bouri
f Domitian.
in Franconia,
of Hamelburg,
which runs in-
of Aberſtwyth.
.) in ancient geo-
; and MELCHI-
ography, a town of
8 miles S. of Darem-
m before.
Perſia, in the province
W. of Zareng.
flouriſhing and commercial
ates in Maſſachuſetts, the
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North and South River, the former of which has a bridge, to Beverley, 1500 feet long; but the beſt harbour, and chief place of trade is on South River. In 1790, it contained 728 houſes, 7921 citizens, and 7 churches; viz. 5 for congregationaliſts, one for epiſcopalians, and one for Quakers. It has alſo an elegant court-houſe built in 1786; and a bank incorporated in 1792. This town was firſt ſettled in 1628; and, in 1692, was remarkable for the deluſion, that gave riſe to the perſecution of the unfortunate women ſuppoſed to be witches. It is now remarkable for the induſtry of its inhabitants, who carry on a great trade to Europe, Africa, the W. Indies and the other States. The annual exports, in Sept. 1794, amounted to 1,452,412 dollars. A manufactory of duck and ſail-cloth is alſo proſecuted with energy. The harbour has a fort and citadel. Salem lies 19 miles NE. of Boſton, and 366 NE. by N. of Philadelphia. Lon. 71. 39. W. Lat. 42. 26. N.

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ral persons, out of a *salary* of L. 500, have always lived at the rate of 2000. *Swift.*

(2.) *A* SALARY is a recompense made to a person for his industry in another man's business. SALARIUM at first signified the rents or profits of a sale, hall, or house; (and in Gascoigne they called the seats of the gentry *salas*, as we do *halls*;) but afterwards it was taken for any wages, stipend, or annual allowance.

SALAS, two towns of Spain: 1. in Leon, 22 miles W. of Astorga: 2. in Old Castile, 20 miles SE. of Burgos.

SALASCO, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Sesia, and ci-devant lordship of Vercelli, lately in the K. of Sardinia's dominions: 5 miles ESE. of St Ja, and 7 W. of Vercelli.

SALASSES, lofty mountains of Africa, in the centre of the island of Bourbon: 1600 toises high. There is a volcanoe on the SW. mountain.

SALASSI, an ancient people of Gallia Cisalpina, who were often at war with the Romans. In A. U. C. 610, they cut off an army of 10,000 Romans under Appius Claudius; but were soon after defeated, and at last totally subdued, and sold as slaves, by Augustus. Their country was settled by a Roman colony, and called PRÆTORIA AUGUSTA; now AOUST or AOSTA, in the French empire, late Piedmontese. See PRÆTORIA, N° 2.

SALASSUR, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Arabian Irak: 170 miles NW. of Bassora.

SALATH, a river of Germany in Stiria, which runs into the Kainach, near Voitsberg.

SALBACH, a village of Germany, in the electorate of Baden; where Marshal Turin was killed, in 1675, while viewing the position of the enemy, and giving directions for erecting a battery. It is 2 miles NE. of Baden.

SALBERG, or SALA. See SALA, N° 5.

SALBOE, a town of Norway, in Drontheim; 40 miles SSE. of Drontheim.

SALBOR, PUNTA DI. See SALVORE.

SALBRIS, a town of France, in the dep. of Loir and Cher: 12 miles NE. of Romorantin.

SALCEY, an extensive forest of England, in the S. part of Northamptonshire.

SALCHENAU. See SALENAU.

SALCOMB, a small sea port and bay of England, on the S. coast of Devonshire, between Branscomb and Sidmouth; SW. of Dartmouth.

SALDAGNA, or SALDANA, } a town of Spain, in Leon; 38 miles E. of Leon.

SALDANHA BAY, a bay of the Atlantic, on the S. coast of Africa, NW. of the Cape of Good Hope. Lon. 17. 60. E. Lat. 33. 9. S.

SALDI PARTENICO, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Mazara: 12 miles WSW. of Palerma.

(1.) * SALE. *n. s.* [*saal*, Dutch.] 1. The act of selling. 2. Vent; power of selling; market.—Rearing of all husbandry commodities, knowing that they shall have ready *sale* for them at those towns. *Spenser.* 3. A publick and proclaimed exposition of goods to the market: auction.—Those that won the plate, and those thus sold, ought to be marked so as they may never return to the race, or to the *sale*. *Temple.* 4. State of being venal; price.—The other is not a thing for *sale*. *Shak.*—

Private reward, for which both God and state
They'd set to *sale*. *Milton.*

—The more money a man spends, the more he endeavour to increase his stock; which at last sets the liberty of a commonwealth to *sale*. *Locke.*

5. It seems in *Spenser* to signify a wicker basket; perhaps from *sallow*, in which fish are caught.—

To make baskets of bulrushes was my woont;
Who to entrap the fish in winding *sale*
Was better seen? *Spenser.*

(2.) SALE, is the exchange of a commodity for money; BARTER, or permutation, is the exchange of one commodity for another. When the bargain is concluded, an obligation is contracted by the buyer to pay the value, and by the seller to deliver the commodity, at the time and place agreed on, or immediately, if no time is specified. In this, as well as other mercantile contracts, the safety of commerce requires the utmost good faith and veracity. Therefore, although, by the laws of England, a sale, where the value of 10 l. be not binding, unless earnest be paid, or the bargain be confirmed by writing, a merchant would lose all credit who refused to perform his agreement, although these legal requisites were omitted. When a specific thing is sold, the property, even before delivery, is in some respect vested in the buyer; and if the thing perishes, the buyer must bear the loss. For example, if a horse dies before delivery, he must pay the value: but if the bargain only determine the quantity and quality of the goods, without specifying the identical articles, and the seller's warehouse, with all his goods, be burned, he is entitled to no payment. He must also bear the loss if the thing perish through his fault; or when a particular time and place of delivery is agreed on, if it perish before it be tendered, in terms of the bargain. If a person purchase goods at a shop without agreeing for the price, he is liable for the ordinary market-price at the time of purchase. If the buyer proves insolvent before delivery, the seller is not bound to deliver the goods without payment of security. If the importation, or sale of the commodities sold, be prohibited by law, or if the buyer knows that they were smuggled, no action lies for delivery. The property of goods is generally presumed, in favour of commerce, to belong to the possessor, and cannot be challenged in the hands of an onerus purchaser. But to this there are some exceptions. By the Scots law, stolen goods may in all cases be reclaimed by the proprietor, and also by the English law, unless they were bought *bona fide* in open market; that is, in the accustomed public place on stated days in the country, or in a shop in London; and horses may be reclaimed, unless the sale be regularly entered by the book keeper of the market. In all cases, if the goods be restored by the lawful proprietor, the seller is liable to the purchaser for the value. Actions for payment of shop-accounts, as well as other debts not constituted by writing, are limited in England to six years. The testimony of one witness is admitted; and the seller's books, although the person that kept them be dead, are good evidence for one year. In Scotland, merchants books

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be proved within three years of the date of last article, by one witneſs, and the creditor's ks, and oath in ſupplement. After three s, they can only be proved by the oath or of the debtor. A merchant's bo ks are in all good evidence againſt him.

.) SALE, George, a learned Engliſh author, did much ſervice to the republic of letters; hardly any memoir is preſerved of him. He principal hand in the *Univerſal Hiſtory*, and plied all the Oriental Part of it. He was alſo gaged in other important literary labours; his chief work is *The Koran*, commonly calne *Alcoran* of Mahomet, which he tranſlated Engliſh immediately from the original Ara- and enriched with explanatory notes from moſt approved commentators; and to which refixed a preliminary Diſcourſe: Lond. 4to . (See ALCORAN, KORAN, MAHOMETAN, &c.) Mr Sale died in 1736.

.) SALE, in geography, a lake of Perſia, in province of Farſiſtan: 9 miles E. of Schiras.

.) SALE, a river of Pruſſia, which runs into Druenſten: 6 miles W. of Holland.

SALEABLE. *adj.* [from *ſale.*] Vendible; fit ſale; marketable.—I can impute this general rgement of *ſaleable* things to no cauſe ſooner the Corniſhman's want of vent and money. —This vent is made quicker or ſlower, as ter or leſs quantities of any *ſaleable* commo- are removed out of the courſe of trade. *Locke.*

SALEABLENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ſaleable.*] The of being ſaleable.

SALEABLY. *adv.* [from *ſaleable.*] In a ſale- manner.

SALEBROUS. *adj.* [*ſalebroſus*, Lat.] Rough; ; rugged.

ALECTO, a town of Africa, in Tunis, on E. coaſt near the Mediterranean, with relics n ancient caſtle: 16 miles SSE. of Lempta, 22 SSE. of Monaſter. Lon. 11. 3. E. Lat. 13. N.

ALEEN, LOUGH, a lake of Ireland, in the ty of Mayo, near Caſtlebar.

ALEF, a river of Aſiatic Turkey, which runs the Mediterranean, near Seleſtria.

ALEHICH, a town of Egypt, 20 miles SW. Fineh.

ALEIUS, a poet of great merit, integrity, and ue, who flouriſhed in the reign of Domitian. . vii, 89. *Quint.* x, 1.

.) SALEK, a town of Germany, in Franconia, e biſhopric of Fulda: 1 m. SW. of Hamelburg.

.) SALEX, a river of S. Wales, which runs in- George's Channel; 2. m. N. of Aberiſtwyth.

.) SALEM, [*Heb.* i. e. *Peace.*] in ancient geo- phy. See JERUSALEM, N° 1; and MELCHI- &c.

.) SALEM, in modern geography, a town of doſtan, in Barramaul; 28 miles S. of Darem- r, and 75 NE. of Coimbetore.

.) SALEM, a town of Perſia, in the province ſtgeſtan: 38 miles SW. of Zareng.

.) SALEM, a large, flouriſhing and commercial n of the United States in Maſſachuſetts, the town in *the ſtate*. It is the capital of Eſſex nty, and is ſeated upon a peninſula, formed by North and South River, the former of which has a bridge, to Beverley, 1500 feet long; but the beſt harbour, and chief place of trade is on South River. In 1790, it contained 7218 houſes, 7921 citizens, and 7 churches; viz. 5 for congregationaliſts, one for epiſcopalians, and one for Quakers. It has alſo an elegant court-houſe built in 1786; and a bank incorporated in 1792. This town was firſt ſettled in 1628; and, in 1692, was remarkable for the deluſion, that gave riſe to the perſecution of the unfortunate women ſuppoſed to be witches. It is now remarkable for the induſtry of its inhabitants, who carry on a great trade to Europe, Africa, the W. Indies and the other States. The annual exports, in Sept. 1794, amounted to 1,452,412 dollars. A manufactory of duck and ſail-cloth is alſo proſecuted with energy. The harbour has a fort and citadel. Salem lies 19 miles NE. of Boſton, and 366 NE. by N. of Philadelphia. Lon. 71. 39. W. Lat. 42. 16. N.

(5.) SALEM, a county of New Jerſey, 21 miles long, and 19 broad; bounded on the N. by Gloucester County, E. by Cumberland, S. and SW. by Delaware Bay, and W. by the river Delaware. It is divided into 9 townſhips; viz. Salem, Mannington, Elſingborough, Pittſgrove, Pilegrove, Upper and Lower Penn's Neck, Upper and Lower Alloway Creeks. In 1795, it contained 10,265 citizens, and 172 ſlaves. The land is fertile, in corn, wheat, flax, &c.

(6.) SALEM, the capital of the above county, is ſeated on a branch of the Salem, 3½ miles above its influx into Delaware Bay. It has a court-houſe and 3 churches, for Baptiſts, Quakers, and Methodiſts. It lies 37 miles SSW. of Philadelphia. Lon. 75. 32. W. Lat. 39. 37. N.

(7.) SALEM, a river of New Jerſey, which riſes in the above county, (N° 5.) paſſes on the N. of the town (N° 6.) and falls into Delaware Bay, above Reedy Iſland. It is navigable by boats for ſeveral miles.

(8.) SALEM, a town of New York, the capital of Waſhington county. It has a court-houſe and a Preſbyterian church. In 1795, it contained 2,164 citizens, 386 electors, and 22 ſlaves.

(9.) SALEM, a townſhip of New York, in W. Cheſter county, containing 1453 inhabitants in 1795; of whom 202 were electors and 19 ſlaves.

(10.) SALEM, a poſt town of N. Carolina, in Stokes county, ſeated on the W. bank of Wack creek. It was firſt ſettled in 1766, by the Moravians. It is regularly laid out, and has a paper mill, where much paper is manufactured. It is 35 miles NE. by N. of Saliſbury, 176 W. by S. of Halifax, and 531 SW. by S. of Philadelphia. Lon. 5. 0. W. of that city. Lat. 36. 8. N.

(11.) SALEM, a town of N. Carolina, the capital of Surrey county, in Saliſbury diſtrict. It is the chief ſettlement of the Moravians in N. Carolina. It lies 170 miles W. of Edenton. Lon. 80. 21. W. Lat. 36. 2. N.

(12.) SALEM, a Moravian town in the North Weſtern Territory, ſeated on the N. branch of the Mononyahela; 5 miles from Gnadenhutten, on the oppoſite bank of the river, and 78 W. of Pittſburg. On Sept. 3d 1788, Congreſs granted

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4,000 acres of land to the Moravians; for the purpose of propagating the Christian religion among the Indians.

(13.) SALEM, another Moravian settlement in the North Western Territory, seated on the Muskingum. Being attacked and plundered by the Indians in 1782, it was deserted by the inhabitants.

(14, 15.) SALEM, two townships of Pennsylvania: 1. in Luzerne county: 2. in that of Westmoreland.

(16.) SALEM, a county of S. Carolina, in the district of Camden; bounded on the N. by Lynch's Creek, which separates it from Darlington county; on the E. by Williamsburgh county; S. by Clarendon, and W. by Clermont counties.

(17.) SALEM, a township of Vermont, in Orleans county, at the S. end of Lake Memphremagog.

(18.) SALEM, NEW, a township of New Hampshire, in Rockingham county: containing 1218 citizens in 1795.

(19.) SALEM, NEW, a Moravian town and settlement of Christian Indians, on the Huron, near Petquothing, on the S. bank of Lake Erie.

SALEMYA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the government of Tripoli; on the confines of the government of Syria, 70 miles NNE. of Damascus, and 100 SSE. of Aleppo.

SALENÆ, an ancient town of S. Britain belonging to the Catti, or Cattivellauni. See CATTI, N° 3.

SALENAU, or SALCHENAU, a town of Germany, in imperial Austria, 2 miles NW. of Ebenfurth.

SALENI, an ancient nation of Spain.

SALENTINI, an ancient people of Italy, who inhabited the S. coast of Calabria, near Apulia. Their chief towns were BRUNDUSIUM, TARENTUM, and HYDRUNTUM. *Sil. Ital.* viii. 579.

SALENTINO, a town of Naples, in the province of Bari; anciently possessed by the SALENTINI.

SALEP, *n. s.* in the materia medica, the dried root of a species of orchis. (See ORCHIS.) Several methods of preparing salep have been proposed and practised. Geoffroy has delivered a very judicious process for this purpose in the *Histoire de l'Academie Royale des Sciences*, 1740; and Retmus, in the Swedish Transactions 1764, has improved Geoffroy's method. But Mr Moult of Rochdale has given a new manner of curing the orchis root; by which salep is prepared, at least equal, if not superior, to any brought from the Levant. The new root is to be washed in water; and the fine brown skin which covers it is to be separated by a small brush, or by dipping the root in hot water, and rubbing it with a coarse linen cloth. When a sufficient number of roots have been thus cleaned, they are spread on a tin plate, and placed in an oven heated to the usual degree, where they are to remain six or ten minutes, in which time they will have lost their milky whiteness, and acquired a transparency like horn, without any diminution of bulk. They are then to be removed to dry and harden in the air, which will require several days to effect; or by using a very gentle heat, they may be finished in a few hours. Salep thus prepared, may be afforded in places where labour bears a high value, at about 12s 10d. per lb. And it might be sold still cheaper, if the orchis were to be cured, without separating from it the brown skin which covers it; a troublesome part of the process, and which does not contribute to render the root either more palatable or salutary. The foreign salep is sold at 5s or 6s. per lb. Salep is said to contain the greatest quantity of vegetable nourishment in the smallest bulk. Hence a very judicious writer, to prevent the dreadful calamity of famine at sea, has proposed that the powder of it should constitute part of the provisions of every ship's company. The powder and portable soup, dissolved in boiling water, form a rich thick jelly, capable of supporting life for a considerable length of time. An ounce of each of these articles, with two pints of boiling water will be sufficient substistence for a man a day; and as being a mixture of animal and vegetable food, must prove more nourishing than double the quantity of rice-cake, made by boiling rice in water: which last, however, sailors are often obliged solely to subsist upon for several months; especially in voyages to Guinea, when the bread and flour are exhausted, and the beef and pork, having been salted in hot countries, are become unfit for use. But as a writer some nourishment (says Dr Percival, in his *Medical and Experimental*), rice is much inferior to salep. Salep has the singular property of concealing the taste of salt water; a circumstance of the highest importance at sea, when there is a scarcity of fresh water, I dissolved a dram and half of common salt in a pint of the mucilage of salep, so liquid as to be potable, and the same quantity in a pint of spring water. The latter was by no means disagreeable to the taste, but the water was rendered extremely unpalatable. This experiment suggested to me the trial of the orchis root as a corrector of acidity, a property which would render it a very useful diet for children. But the solution of it, when mixed with vinegar, seemed only to dilute like an equal portion of water, and not to cover its sharpness. Salep, however, appears by my experiments to retard the acetous fermentation of milk; and consequently would be a good lithing for milk pottage, especially in large towns, where the cattle being fed upon sour draff must yield acescent milk. Salep in a certain proportion, which I have not yet been able to ascertain, would be a very useful and profitable addition to bread. I directed one ounce of the powder to be dissolved in a quart of water, and the mucilage to be mixed with a sufficient quantity of flour, salt, and yeast. The flour amounted to 2 lb. the yeast to 2 oz. and the salt to 80 grains. The loaf, when baked, was remarkably well fermented, and weighed 2 lb. 2 oz. The restorative, mucilaginous, and demulcent qualities of the orchis root, render it of considerable use in various diseases. In the scurvy it powerfully obtunds the acrimony of the fluids, and at the same time is easily assimilated into a mild and nutritious chyle. In diarrhœa and the dysentery it is highly serviceable, by sheathing the internal coat of the intestines, abating irritation, and gently correcting putrefaction. In the symptomatic fever, which

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n the abſorption of pus from ulcers in the
s, from wounds, or from amputation, ſalep
plentifully is an admirable demulcent, and
adapted to reſiſt the diſſolution of the craſis
he blood, which is ſo evident in theſe caſes.
by the ſame mucilaginous quality, it is e-
ly efficacious in the ſtrangury and dyſury;
cially in the latter, when ariſing from a vene-
cauſe, becauſe the diſcharge of urine is then
ded with the moſt exquiſite pain, from the
ration about the neck of the bladder and
ugh the courſe of the urethra. I have found
o an uſeful aliment for patients who labour
r the ſtone or gravel." The ancient che-
s entertained a very high opinion of the or-
root, as appears from the *ſecreta ſecretorum*
aymund Lully, a work dated 1565.

ALER-MOULER, a town and fort of Indoſ-
in Baglana, 80 miles SE. of Surat, and 124
. of Aurungabad.

ALERNES, a town of France, in the dep. of
12 miles NNE. of Brignolles, and 10½ W.
Draguignan.

ALERNI, a town of Sicily, in the valley of
ara, 14 miles NE. of Mazara, and 34 SW. of
rmo.

ALERNO, an ancient and conſiderable town of
es, capital of Principato Citra, with an arch-
p's ſee, a caſtle, harbour, and an univerſity;
ot for medicine, from the time that the A-
n phyſicians eſtabliſhed it under the Lom-
kings. It is ſeated at the bottom of a bay
e ſame name, 29 miles SE. of Naples, and
3. of Benevento. Lon. 14. 43. E. Lat. 40.
N.

ALERNUM, in ancient geography, a town
aly, belonging to the Picentini, on the coaſt
he Tyrrhenian ſea, S. of Campania. (*Plin.*
3. *Liv.* 34. c. 35.) It is now called Sa-
o. See the laſt article.

ALERS, a town of France, in the dep. of Can-
and ci-devant prov. of Auvergne, 9 miles N.
urillac, 9 SE. of Mauriac, and 27 W. of St
r.

) SALES, a town of France, in the dep. of
e, 7½ miles W. of Caſtelnauday, and 13 N.
Lirepoix.

) SALES, an ancient caſtle of the French em-
in the dep. of Lake Leman, near Geneva.

) SALES, ST Francis DE, a Romiſh Saint,
at Sales caſtle, (N° 2.) in 1567. In 1602, he
made biſhop of Geneva, in which ſtation his
life was pious and exemplary, he founded a
ety of Religious, called the *Order of the Viſi-*
n; which was ſanctioned by Paul V. in 1618.
lied in 1622, and was canonized by Alexan-
VII. He wrote, 1. An Introduction to a De-
Life: 2. A Treatiſe on the Love of God:
etters. A vein of piety is conſpicuous in all
works.

ALESCURAR, a town of France, in the dep.
Aveiron, 12 miles SE. of Rhodez, and 15
. of Milhau.

SALESMAN. *n.ſ.* [*ſale* and *man*.] One who
clothes ready made.—
Poets make characters, as *ſaleſmen* cloaths.
Swift.

ALET, *n.ſ.* in war, a light covering or ar-
mour for the head, anciently worn by the light
horſe, only different from the caſque in that it
had no creſt and was little more than a bare cap.

SALEVE, a ſteep and rugged mountain of the
French empire, in the dep. of Lake Leman, late
Geneva; rendered memorable by the pen of the
celebrated M. DE SAUSSURE, who ſpent his early
years at the foot of it, and was firſt attracted by
its phenomena to the ſtudy of nature.

* SALEWORK. *n.ſ.* [*ſale* and *work*.] Work
for ſale; work careleſſy done.—
I ſee no more in you than in the ordinary
Of Nature's *ſalework*. *Shak.*

SALEYER, an iſland in the E. Indian Ocean,
30 miles long, and 3 broad; ſeparated from the
S. coaſt of the iſland of Celebes, by a ſtrait of the
ſame name. Lon. 137. 45. E. Ferro. Lat. 6. 12. S.

SALFELD, or SAAL, a town of Germany, in
Carinthia, 6 miles NE. of Clagenfurt.

SALFELDEN, a town of Bavaria, in Saltz-
burg, on the Saale, 26 miles SSW. of Saltzburg,
and 52 E. of Inſpruck.

SALFORD, UPPER and LOWER, two town-
ſhips of Pennſylvania, in Montgomery county.

SALFORINA, a town of the Italian republic,
in the dep. of the Mincio, diſtrict and late duchy
of Mantua, 17 miles NW. of Mantua.

SALGADO, a river on the S. coaſt of Brazil,
39 miles NE. of Sait Lake river.

SALGIR, a river of Ruſſia, in Tauris, which
runs into the ſea of Azoph, 20 miles NNW. of
Arabat.

SALGO, a town and caſtle of Hungary, 16
miles SE. of Korpona. Salgo was taken by the
Turks in 1521, and kept by them till 1593.

SALHA, a river of Sweden, in Weſtmania,
which riſes in a mountain near a ſilver mine.

SALHBERG, or SALBERG. See SALA, N° 5.

SALHI, a town of Egypt, 3 m. NE. of Atfieh.

SALHUUS, a town of Norway, in Bergen.

SALIA, an ancient town of Spain, famous for
being the birth-place of PRUDENTIUS.

SALIANS, an ancient tribe of Franks, who ſet-
tled in Gaul, in the reign of Julian. See SALIC.

(1.) * SALIANT. *adj.* [French.] In heraldry,
denotes a lion in a leaping poſture, ſtanding ſo
that his right foot is in the dexter point, and his
hinder left foot in the ſiniſter baſe point of the
eſcutcheon, by which it is diſtinguiſhed from
rampant.

(2.) * SALIANT, in heraldry, is when the lion
is ſporting himſelf. *Peacham.*

(3.) SALIANT, in fortification, denotes projec-
ing. There are two kinds of angles, the one ſa-
liant, which have their point outwards; the other
re-entering, which have their points inwards.

SALIC, or SALIQUE, LAW, (*Lex Salica,*) an
ancient and fundamental law of the kingdom of
France, uſually ſuppoſed to have been made by
Pharamond, or at leaſt by Clovis; in virtue
whereof males only are to inherit. Some, as Poſ-
tellus, would have it to have been called *Salic*,
q. d. *Gallic*, becauſe peculiar to the Gauls. Fer-
Montanus inſiſts, it was becauſe Pharamond was
at firſt called *Salius*. Others will have it ſo
named, as having been made for the ſalic lands.
Theſe were noble fiefs which their firſt kings uſed
to beſtow on the ſalians, that is, the great lord

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of their salle or court, without any other tenure than military service; and for this reason, such fiefs were not to descend to women, as being by nature unfit for such a tenure. Some derive the origin of this word from the SALIANS, a tribe of Franks who settled in Gaul in the reign of Julian, who is said to have given them lands on condition of their personal service in war. He even passed the conditions into a law, which the new conquerors acquiesced in, and called it *salic*, from the name of their former countrymen. "This law, says Millot, fixed the punishment of crimes and various points of police. There is no ground for believing, that it expressly settled the right of succession to the crown. It only says, that with relation to the *salic land*, women have no share of heritage, without restricting it to the royal family; for all those were called *salic lands* which were held by right of conquest; and it is easy to conceive, that a nation of soldiers, whose general was their king, would not submit to be governed by a woman. A long custom, supported by the principles of the nation, came in time to be the established law of the kingdom. See *Millot. Elem. de l'Histoire de France*. tom. 1.

SALICA, an ancient town of Spain.

SALICE, a town of Naples, in Otranto, 4 miles SSW. of Aretfano.

SALICORNIA, JOINTED GLASS WORT, or SALTWORT; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the monandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 12th order, *Holoraceæ*. The calyx is ventricose, or a little swelling out and entire; there are no petals, and but one seed. There are 4 species, of which the most remarkable are,

1. SALICORNIA FRUTICOSA, with obtuse points, grows plentifully in most of the salt marshes which are overflowed by the tides in many parts of England. It is an annual plant, with thick, succulent, jointed stalks, which trail upon the ground. The flowers are produced at the ends of the joints toward the extremity of the branches, which are small, and scarce discernible by the naked eye.

2. SALICORNIA PERENNIS, with a shrubby branching stalk, grows naturally in Sheppey island. This hath a shrubby branching stalk about six inches long; the points of the articulations are acute; the stalks branch from the bottom, and form a kind of pyramid. They are perennial, and produce their flowers in the same manner as the former. The inhabitants near the sea coasts where these plants grow, cut them up toward the latter end of summer, when they are fully grown; and, after having dried them in the sun, they burn them for their ashes, which are used in making of glass and soap. These herbs are by the country people called *kelp*, and promiscuously gathered for use. (See SALSOLA.) Barilla is likewise made from them. (See BARILLA, § 1.) They are also used for dyeing leather red, instead of the shumach. See LEATHER and SUMACH.

SALICOTTA, a town of Hindostan, in Myfore, 9 miles E. of Cinna Pattanam.

(1.) SALIENT, *adj.* (*saliens*, Lat.) 1. Leaping; bounding; moving by leaps.—The legs of both sides moving together, as frogs, and *salient* animals is properly called leaping. *Brown.* 2. Beating; panting.—

A *salient* point to first is call'd the heart,
By turns dilated, and by turns compreft.
Blackmore.

3. Springing or shooting with a quick motion.—

Who best can send on high
The *salient* spout, far streaming to the sky.
Pope.

(2.) SALIENT, in heraldry. See SALIANT, § 1.

SALIES, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Pyrenees, and ci-devant prov. of Beam; famous for its salt springs, from which great quantities of salt are made. It is 7 miles W. of Orthez.

SALIGNAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Dordogne, and ci-devant province of Perigord, 24 miles NE. of Sarlat, and 9 SE. of Montignac. Lon. 1. 22. E. Lat. 45. 40. N.

SALIGNAS, a town of Spain, in Biscay, 18 miles SE. of Bilboa; seated on the Deva, at the foot of a mountain, 8 miles N. of Vittoria, and 28 SE. of Bilboa. Lon. 2. 54. W. Lat. 43. 5. N.

(1.) * SALIGOT. *n. f.* [*tribulus aquaticus*.] Water-thistle.

(2.) SALIGOT, in botany. See TRIBULUS.

SALII, in Roman antiquity, priests of Mars, whereof there were 12 instituted by Numa, habited, particoloured garments, and high bonnets, with a steel cuirasse on the breast. They were called *salii*, from *saltare to dance*; because in assisting at sacrifices, they went dancing about the streets, with bucklers in their left-hand, and rod in their right, striking musically with their rods on one another's bucklers, and singing hymns in honour of the gods.

SALIM, a river of Russia, which runs into the Oby; 60 miles W. of Surgut.

SALIMBENI, Venura, an eminent Italian painter, born at Sienna in Tuscany in 1557. There is a fine picture by him of the defeat of the Apostles on Pentecost, in the possession of the Earl of Pembroke. He died in 1613.

SALIN, *n. f.* in the old system of chemistry, an impure alkali, extracted from the lixivium of vegetables. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(1.) SALINA, the modern name of Salamis in Cyprus. See SALAMIS, N° 3.

(2.) SALINA, or SALINA DELLA MARZA, in natural history, Salt Springs in the island of Sicily, near Marza. In summer, when they are dry, they yield a great quantity of salt, which is shovelled out by persons appointed. For every ass's load the lord of the manor receives a *carlin*, (worth a penny sterling;) for every mule's load twice as much. When the springs and the pit produce no salt, the steward causes the ground to be dug up, and they yield as much salt as ever.

(1.) SALINAS, a town of Spain, in the province Guipuscoa, on the Alva, near Mount St Adrian, 15 miles NE. of Vittoria, and 28 SSW. of St Sebastian.

(2.) SALINAS, a sea port on the coast of Peru between Guasco, and Partridge Strand.

(3, 4.) SALINAS BAY, two Bays of the Pacific Ocean: 1. on the coast of Peru, 60 miles N. of Callao: 2. on that of Costa Rica, in Lat. 11. N. (5.) Bay-

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5.) SALINAS, CAPE, a cape on the coaſt of New ſle, oppoſite the NW. point of the iſle of Tri- ad; forming the paſſage called the *Gulf of Pa-*

6.) SALINAS, GREAT, or SALT BAY, a bay on coaſt of Brazil, SE. of Cape Cors, much fre- ted by ſhips coming for ſalt. Its mouth lies of SALINAS SHOALS. The entrance is in Lat. o. S.

7.) SALINAS GULF, a bay on the coaſt of Mexi- NW. of Cano Iſle. Lat. 8. 40. N.

8.) SALINAS SHOALS, or *Baxos de Salina*, lie 12 s N. of the N. coaſt of Brazil; but are join- by a reef of land, 12 miles long and half a broad, on which no large ſhips dare venture.

1.) SALINE, in geography, a pariſh of Scot- l, in Fifeſhire, 7 miles long from E. to W. and oad at the centre from S. to N. but narrower e extremities. The E. part is hilly and marſhy; W. is level. The ſoil is various; in ſome parts rtile loam; in general thin on a till bottom; ducing wheat, oats, barley, &c. but agricul- is not much improved. There are 2 natural ds. Every part of the pariſh abounds with s, lime, and iron ſtone. The population, in ; was 950; decreaſe 335, ſince 1755.

2.) SALINE, a village in the center of the above ſh, conſiſting of an old and new town, which is ſuperior to the former both in extent and ce. It is ſeated on the great road from Dun- ine to Auchterarder, which runs through it, beautiful rural ſituation, ſurrounded with ri- grounds; and contains about 200 inhabitants. the moſt centrical place between Glendovan the Ferry.

3.) SALINE, [Gael. *Salbhean*, i. e. *the great hill*,] ll in the above pariſh, which gives name to it the village, above a quarter of a mile in ht.

) * SALINE. SALINOUS. *adj.* [*ſalinus*, Latin.] ining of ſalt; conſtituting ſalt.—We do not y aſcribe their induration to cold; but rather *alinous* ſpirits and concretive] uices. *Brown.* tis *ſaline* lap of the veſſels, by being refuſed tion of the parts, declares itſelf in a more ne manner, by drying the radical moiſture. *ey.*—If a very ſmall quantity of any ſalt or vi- be diſſolved in a great quantity of water, the icles of the ſalt or vitriol will not ſink to the om, though they be heavier in ſpecie than the r; but will evenly diffuſe themſelves into all water, ſo as to make it as *ſaline* at the top as e bottom. *Newton.*—As the ſubſtance of coa- tions is not merely *ſaline*, nothing diſſolves but what penetrates and relaxes at the ſame . *Arbuthnot.*

.) SALINE AERIAL FLUIDS. See CHEMISTRY, x.

.) SALINE COMPOSITIONS. See SALTS, § 21,

ALINI, or } one of the LIPARI iſlands, ſitu-
ALINO, } ated between Sicily and Italy, iſts of two mountains both in an high ſtate of ivation. The one lying more towards the h than the other is rather the higheſt of the , and is called *del Capo*, *i. e. the head.* The o- is called *della Foſſa felice*, or *the happy valley.* third of the extent of theſe hills from the bot- tom to the ſummit is one continued orchard, conſiſting of vines, olive, fig, plum, apricot, and a vaſt diverſity of other trees. The white roofs of the houſes, which are every where interſperſed amid this diverſity of verdure and foliage, contribute to variegate the proſpect in a very agreeable manner. The back part of almoſt all the houſes is ſhaded by an arbour of vines, ſupported by pillars of brick, with croſs poles to ſuſtain the branches and foliage of the vines. Thoſe arbours ſhelter the houſes from the rays of the ſun, the heat of which is quite ſcorching in theſe ſouthern regions. The vines are extremely fruitful; the poles bending under the weight of the grapes. The ſcenes in this iſland are more intereſting to the lover of natural hiſtory than to the antiquarian. See RETICULUM. On the S. ſide of the iſland, however, there are ſtill to be ſeen ſome fine ruins of an ancient bath, a Roman work. They conſiſt of a wall 10 or 11 fathoms in extent, and terminating an arch of no great height, of which only a ſmall part now remains. Almoſt all the houſes in the iſland are built of materials which have belonged to ancient monuments. Whenever the inhabitants have occaſion for a ſpring of freſh water, they have only to dig a pit on the ſhore, and pure ſweet water flows in great abundance. There were formerly mines of alum here, from which the inhabitants drew a conſiderable yearly revenue; but they are now no longer known. On the E. ſide it is very populous. There are two places called *Lingua i. e. the tongue*, and which contain a good number of inhabitants; the one is near Salino, the other is alſo called *St Marina*: there are two other villages. The whole iſland contains about 4000 inhabitants; the circumference is about 14 miles. It lies 21 miles SW. of Stromboli, and 80 ENE. of Palermo. Lon. 32. 53. E. Ferro. Lat. 38. 38. N.

SALINOUS. See SALINE, N° 4.

SALINS, a conſiderable town of France, in the department of Jura, and ci-devant province of Franche Comte. It has a ſtrong fort, and contains about 8,000 citizens. It is famous for its *ſalt works*, (whence the name,) the largeſt of which reſembles a fort in the middle of the town. It is ſeated in a fertile valley, on a rivulet that riſes in the town, and the nighbourhood abounds with black marble, jaſper and alabaſter. It is 20 miles S. of Beſançon, and 200 SE. of Paris. Lon. 6. 5. E. Lat. 46. 56. N.

SALIR, or SALIR DO MATO, a town of Portugal in Eſtremadura: 12 miles ENE. of Peniche.

(1.) SALIS, a town of Ruſſia, in the province of Riga; 24 miles NW. of Volmar.

(2.) SALIS, John DE. See SOLIS, N° 2.

(1.) SALISBURY, John of, an ancient Engliſh hiſtorian and divine, who flouriſhed in the 12th century. His works are equally ſcarce, curious, and valuable.

(2.) SALISBURY, Robert CECIL, Earl of, an Engliſh ſtateſman, the ſon of the great Lord Burleigh, (ſee CECIL, N° 2.) was educated at St John's College, Cambridge. Queen Elizabeth knighted him, and made him ſecretary of State. On her death, he proclaimed King James, for which that monarch ennobled him, and made him lord high treaſurer. He died in 1612.

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(3.) SALIS-

(3.) SALISBURY, the capital of Wiltſhire in England. This city owed its firſt riſe to its cathedral, which was begun in 1219, and finiſhed in 1258. According to an eſtimate delivered in to Henry III. it coſt 40,000 merks. It is a Gothic building, and is certainly the moſt elegant and regular in the kingdom. The doors and chapels are equal in number to the months, the windows to the days, and the pillars and pilaſters to the hours in a year; viz. 8760. It is built in the form of a lantern, with a ſpire in the middle, and nothing but buttreſſes and glaſs windows on the outſide. The ſpire is the higheſt in the kingdom, being 410 feet, which is twice the height of the monument in London. The pillars and pilaſters in the church are of fuſile marble; the art of making which is now either entirely loſt or little known. This grand church has lately undergone moſt beautiful alterations; with an addition of two fine windows, and an organ preſented by the king. The roof of the chapter-houſe, which is 50 feet in diameter and 150 in circumference, bears all upon one ſlender pillar, which is ſuch a curioſity as can hardly be matched in Europe. The turning of the weſtern road through the city in the reign of Edward III. was a great advantage to it. The hoſpital of St Michael's, near this city, was founded by one of its biſhops. Dr Seth Ward, biſhop of this ſee in the reign of Charles II. contributed greatly to the making the Avon navigable to Chriſt-church in Hampſhire. The ſame prelate, in 1683, built an hoſpital for the widows of poor clergymen. There are 3 other churches beſides the cathedral, which is without the liberty of the city. Here is a manufacture of druggets, flannels, bonelace, and cloths called *Salisbury whites*; by which, and its fairs, markets, aſſizes, boarding-ſchools, and clergy, the city is in a flouriſhing condition. It was incorporated by Henry III. and is governed by a mayor, high-ſteward, recorder, deputy-recorder, 24 aldermen, and 30 common-council men. The number of ſouls is about 10,000. A new council chamber was built in 1794 with proper courts of juſtice, by the earl of Radnor. That quarter called the *cloſe*, where the canons and prebendaries live, is like a fine city of itſelf. Here is an aſſembly for the ladies every Tueſday, and coaches ſet out from hence to London every day. In this town are ſeveral charity ſchools; the expence of one of them is entirely defrayed by the biſhop. Salisbury is affected to be ſtiled by ſome *New Sarum*, which is a degradation of its antiquity. It is 21 miles NE. of Southampton, 82 WSW. of London, and 91 ENE. of Exeter. Lon. 1. 42. E. Lat. 51. 3. N.

(4.) SALISBURY, a town of the United States, in the NW. corner of Connecticut, in Litchfield county. It has a paper mill, with ſeveral forges and iron works. During the American war, ſeveral pieces of cannon were caſt in it. It lies 35 miles WNW. of Hartford.

(5.) SALISBURY, a poſt town of Delaware, in Newcaſtle county; 12 miles NW. of Dover and 26 SW. of Wilmington.

(6.) SALISBURY, a poſt town of Maryland, on the Eaſtern Shore, in Somerſet county, between 2 chief branches of the Wicomico. It has a conſiderable trade in lumber. It lies 15 miles S. of Vienna, 19 NW. of Snow hill, and 164 S. by W. of Philadelphia. Lon. 75. 40. W. Lat. 38. 22. N.

(7.) SALISBURY, a town of Maſſachuſetts, in Eſſex county, on the N. bank of the Merrimack, 35 miles N. of Boſton. It is divided into 2 pariſhes, and contained 1780 citizens in 1795.

(8.) SALISBURY, a townſhip of New Hampſhire, in Hilliſborough county; containing 1372 citizens in 1795, who are moſtly employed in agriculture.

(9.) SALISBURY, an extenſive and fertile diſtrict of N. Carolina; bounded on the N. by Virginia, E. by Hilliſborough diſtrict, S. by S. Carolina, and W. by Morgan diſtrict. In 1795 it contained 58,341 citizens, and 8,138 ſlaves. It is divided into 9 counties; viz. Rockingham, Guilford, Montgomery, Stokes, Surry, Iredell, Rowan, Cabarras, and Mecklenburg. Iron ore abounds in ſeveral parts of it; and iron works are erected where pig and bar iron, &c. are manufactured to a great amount. Tobacco is alſo cultivated, and the planters are wealthy.

(10.) SALISBURY, the capital of the above diſtrict, is ſeated in Rowan county, on the NW. bank of Cane Creek, 5 miles above its confluence with the Yadkin. It has a court-houſe, and lies 110 miles WSW. of Hilliſborough, 110 NW. by W. of Fayettevilie, and 562 S. of Philadelphia. Lon. 5. 9. W. of that city. Lat. 35. 47. N.

(11, 12.) SALISBURY, two townſhips of Pennſylvania; 1. in Lancaſter, and 2. in Northampton counties.

(13.) SALISBURY, a townſhip of Vermont, in Addiſon county, on the Otter; containing 1076 citizens in 1795.

(14.) SALISBURY, a poſt town of Virginia, 11 m. from Alexandria, and 182 from Philadelphia.

(15.) SALISBURY CRAIG, a hill on the S. ſide of Edinburgh, and W. of ARTHUR'S SEAT, from which it is divided by a narrow valley; remarkable for a great precipice of ſolid rock, about a mile long and in ſome places 100 feet high; and paſſes with conſiderable regularity along its top or brow, on the N. W. and S. ſides. It ſinks gradually on the E. down to the valley. Great quantities of ſtones from this rock have been riven by gun powder, and carried off for building the ſtreets &c. within theſe 30 years. Beautiful ſpecimens of radiated hæmatites, ſteatites, ores of iron, calcareous ſpar, talc, zeolite, and quartz of ſeveral cryſtals have alſo been found on it.

(16.) SALISBURY ISLAND, an iſland of N. America, at the W. end of Hudſon's Straits, E. of Nottingham iſland. Lon. 76. 47. W. Lat. 63. 29. N.

(17.) SALISBURY PLAIN, extenſive downs in Wiltſhire, which form in ſummer one of the moſt delightful parts of Great Britain for extent and beauty. It extends 28 miles W. of Weymouth, and 25 E. to Wincheſter; and in ſome places is near 40 miles broad. That part about Salisbury is a chalky down, and is famous for feeding numerous flocks of ſheep. Conſiderable portions of this tract are incloſed within theſe 10 years.

(18.) SALISBURY POINT, a cape of Maſſachuſetts, on the N. ſide of the mouth of the Merrimack, or Newbury harbour. Lon. 70. 54. W. Lat. 42. 49. N.

(19.) SALISBURY SOUND, a bay of the N. Pa-

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: Ocean, on the W. coaſt of America. Lon. . o. W. Lat. 57. 30. N.

.) * SALIVA. *n. ſ.* [Latin.] Every thing that nt up; but it more ſtrictly ſignifies that juice :h is ſeparated by the glands called ſalival. ıcy.—Not meeting with diſturbance from the w, I the ſooner extirpated them. *Wiſeman.*

.) SALIVA is that fluid by which the mouth tongue are continually moiſtened in their na- l ſtate; and is ſupplied by glands which form alled SALIVARY GLANDS. This humour is and pellucid, incapable of being concreted ıe fire, almoſt without taſte and ſmell. By ing, it is expreſſed from the glands which rate it from the blood, and is intimately mix- ith our food, the digeſtion of which it great- omotes. In hungry perſons it is acrid, and ıuſly diſcharged; and in thoſe who have faſt- ng it is highly acrid, penetrating, and re- nt. A too copious evacuation of it produces , loſs of appetite, bad digeſtion, and an atro- See PHYSIOLOGY, *Sect.* VI.

) SALIVA, CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF. the properties of this liquor," (ſays Dr nſon, in his *Syſt. of Chem.* Vol. IV. p. 408.) ich had been obſerved before the middle of 8th century, have been collected by Haller. ince that time ſeveral additional facts have elated by Fourcroy, Du Tennetar, and Brug- is; and a very numerous ſet of experiments een publiſhed by Mr Siebold in 1797, in his ſe on the *Salivary Syſtem.* Saliva is a ſimple ike water, but much more viſcid: it has r ſmell nor taſte. Its ſpecific gravity, ac- g to Hamberger, is 1·0167: according to d, 1·080. When agitated, it frothes; in- t is uſually mixed with air, and has the ap- ce of froth. It neither mixes readily with nor oil; but by trituration in a mortar may mixed with water, as to paſs through a fil- It has a great affinity for oxygen, abſorbs it from the air, and gives it out again to o- dies. Hence the reaſon, why gold or fil- iturated with ſaliva in a mortar, is oxidated, Tennetar has obſerved; and why the kil- mercury by oils is much facilitated by ſpit- to the mixture. Hence alſo the reaſon, liva is a uſeful application to ſores of the Dogs and other animals have conſtantly ſe to this remedy, and with much ad- . When boiled in water, a few flakes amen precipitate. When evaporated, it exceedingly, and leaves behind it a thin coloured cruſt. But if the evaporation be ted ſlowly, ſmall cubic cryſtals of muriat are formed: and when the evaporation is ted, there remains behind a ſubſtance reſembles vegetable gluten, and which e on burning coals, exhaling the odour of Acid, and of burning feathers. The viſ- f ſaliva, the property it has, of abſorbing and of being inſpiſſated, and this gluti- ſiduum, announce the preſence of animal e, as a component part. When ſaliva is in a retort, it frothes very much: 100 eld 80 parts of water nearly pure; then a rbonat of Ammonia, ſome oil and an acid. ıduum amounts to about 1·56 parts and is compoſed of muriat of ſoda, phoſphat of ſoda, and phoſphat of lime. When ſaliva is left expoſ- ed to the air, it abſorbs a conſiderable portion of it, a light pellicle appears on its ſurface, it be- comes muddy, and depoſits ſome flakes, exhaling at the ſame time a ſtrong ammoniacal odour. Soon after it putrefies, and becomes exceedingly fetid. The acids and alcohol inſpiſſate ſaliva; the alkalies diſengage ammonia; oxalic acid precipi- tates lime; and the nitrats of lead, mercury, and ſilver, precipitate phoſphoric and muriatic acids. From theſe facts; it follows, that ſaliva, beſides water, which conſtitutes at leaſt 4 5ths of its bulk, contains the following ingredients: 1. Mucilage; 2. Albumen; 3. Muriat of Soda; 4. Phoſphat of Soda; 5. Phoſphat of Lime; 6. Phoſphat of Am- monia. But it is liable to many changes from diſeaſe".—" The PANCREATIC JUICE does not appear, from experiments that have been made, to differ much from ſaliva."

(1.) * SALIVAL. } *adj.* [from *ſaliva*, Latin.]
(1.) * SALIVARY. } Relating to ſpittle.—The woodpecker, and other birds that prey upon flies, which they catch with their tongue, in the room of the ſaid glands have a couple of bags filled with a viſcuous humour, which, by ſmall canals, like the *ſalival*, being brought into their mouths, they dip their tongues herein, and ſo with the help of this natural birdlime attack the prey. *Grew.* —The neceſſity of ſpittle to diſſolve the aliment appears from the contrivance of nature in making the *ſalivary* ducts of animals which ruminate, ex- tremely open: ſuch animals as ſwallow their ali- ment without chewing, want *ſalivary* glands. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) SALIVARY CONCRETIONS. " The concre- tions (ſays Dr Thomſon,) which ſometimes form in the ſalivary ducts, &c. and the tartar or bony cruſt, which ſo often attaches itſelf to the teeth, are compoſed of phoſphat of lime."

(3.) SALIVARY GLANDS. See ANATOMY, *Ind.*

SALIVAS, a town of S. America, in the king- dom of New Grenada and prov. of Carthagena.

* *To* SALIVATE. *v. a.* [from *ſaliva*, Latin.] To purge by the ſalival glands.—She was prepoſ- ſeſſed with the ſcandal of *ſalivating*, and went out of town. *Wiſeman.*

(1.) * SALIVATION. *n. ſ.* [from *ſalivate.*] A method of cure much practiſed of late in venereal, ſcrophulous, and other obſtinate cauſes, by pro- moting a ſecretion of ſpittle. *Quincy.*—Holding of ill-taſted things in the mouth will make a ſmall *ſalivation. Grew.*

(2.) SALIVATION, in medicine, is a promoting of the flux of ſaliva, by medicines, chiefly by mercury. The chief uſe of ſalivation is in diſeaſ- es belonging to the glands and membrana adipo- ſa, and principally in the cure of the venereal diſ- eaſe; though it is ſometimes alſo uſed in epide- mic diſeaſes, cutaneous diſeaſes, &c. whoſe criſes tend that way.

SALIVE, a town of France, in the department of the Cote d'Or: 12 m. NW. of Is upon Tille.

* SALIVOUS. *adj.* [from *ſaliva.*] Conſiſting of ſpittle; having the nature of ſpittle.—There happeneth an elongation of the uvula, through the abundance of *ſaliv.us* humour flowing upon it. *Wiſeman.*

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SALIX, the WILLOW, in botany, a genus of the diandria order, bonging to the dicœcia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 50th order, *Amentaceæ*. The amentum of the male is ſcaly; there is no corolla; but a nectariferous glandule at the baſe of the flower. The female amentum is ſcaly; there is no corolla; the ſtyle bifid; the capſule unilocular and bivalved; the ſeeds pappous. The willow trees have been frequently the theme of poetical deſcription, both in ancient and modern times. In Virgil, Horace, and in Ovid, we have many exquiſite alluſions to them; and for a melancholy lover or a contemplative poet, imagination cannot paint a fitter retreat than the banks of a beautiful river, and the ſhade of a drooping willow. There are 31 ſpecies; of which the moſt remarkable are,

1. SALIX ALBA, *white* or *ſilver-leaved willow*, grows to a great height and conſiderable bulk, having ſmooth pale-green ſhoots; long, ſpear-ſhaped, accuminated, ſawed, ſilvery-white leaves, being downy on both ſides, with glands below the ſerratures. This is the common white willow, which grows abundantly about towns and villages, and by the ſides of rivers and brooks, &c.

2. SALIX BABYLONICA, *Babylonian pendulous ſalix*, commonly called *weeping willow*, grows to a largiſh ſize, having numerous, long, ſlender, pendulous branches, hanging down looſely all round in a curious manner, and long, narrow, ſpear-ſhaped, ſerrated, ſmooth leaves. This curious willow is a native of the eaſt, and is retained in our hardy plantations, for ornament, and exhibits a moſt agreeable variety; particularly when diſpoſed ſingly by the verges of any piece of water, or in ſpacious openings of grafs-ground.

3. SALIX CAPREA, the common *ſallow tree*, grows to but a moderate height, having ſmooth, dark-green, brittle branches; oval, waved, rough leaves, indented at top, and woolly underneath. It grows abundantly in this country, but more frequently in a dry than moiſt ſituations: it is of a brittle nature, ſo is unfit for the baſket-makers; but will ſerve for poles, ſtakes, and to lop for fire-wood; and its timber is good for many purpoſes.

4. SALIX FRAGILIS, *fragile* or *crack willow*, riſes to a middling ſtature, with brownith, very fragile, or brittle branches, long, oval lanceolate, ſawed, ſmooth leaves of a ſhining-green on both ſides, having denated glandular footſtalks. This ſort in particular being exceedingly fragile, ſo that it eaſily cracks and breaks, it is unfit for culture in other grounds.

5. SALIX PENTANDRIA, *pentandrous, broad-leaved, ſweet-ſcented willow*, grows to ſome conſiderable ſtature, having brownith-green branches; oblong, broad, ſcattered, ſmooth, ſweet-ſcented leaves, ſhining above; and pentandrous flowers.

6. SALIX PURPUREA, *purple* or *red willow*, grows to a large height, having long, reddiſh, very pliable ſhoots, and long ſpear-ſhaped, ſerrated, ſmooth, leaves, the lower one being oppoſite.

7. SALIX TRIANDRIA, the *triandrous willow*, grows to a large ſtature, having numerous, erect, gr yiſh-green branches, and pliant ſhoots; oblong, acute-pointed, ſerrated, ſmooth, ſhining leaves, eared at the baſe; and triandrous flowers.

8. SALIX VIMINALIS, or *oſier willow*, grows but to a moderate height, having ſlender ſcarlet branches; very long, pliant, greeniſh ſhoots; and very long, narrow, ſpear-ſhaped, acute, and entire leaves, hoary, and ſilky underneath.

9. SALIX VITELLINA, *yellow* or *golden willow*, grows but to a moderate height; having very pliant, ſhoots; oval, acute, ſerrated, ſmooth leaves, with the ſerratures cartilaginous, and with callous punctures on the footſtalks. All the ſpecies are of the tree kind, very hardy, remarkably faſt growers, and ſeveral of them attaining a conſiderable ſtature when permitted to run up to ſtandards. They are moſtly of the aquatic tribe, being generally the moſt abundant and of moſt proſperous growth in watery ſituations: they however will grow freely almoſt anywhere, in any common ſoil and expoſure; but grow conſiderably the faſteſt and ſtrongeſt in moiſt land, particularly in marſhy ſituations, the verges of rivers, brooks, and other waters; likewiſe along the ſides of watery ditches, &c. which places often lying waſte, may be rendered to good advantage, in plantations of willows for different purpoſes.

SALKAEV, an iſland of Ruſſia, in the Icy Ocean. Lon. 130. 0. E. of Ferro. Lat. 74. 30. N.

SALKELD, GREAT, and } 2 villages in Eng-
SALKELD, LITTLE, } land, Northumberland on the banks of the Eden. The latter is remarkable for a Druidical monument, conſiſting of a circle of 77 ſtones, each 10 feet high, and for the entrance 15 feet high: called by the common people, *Long Meg and her daughters*.

SALLA, a part of Mount St. Gothard in the Helvetic Republic. See GOTTHARD, St.

SALLAGNAC, a town of France, in the department of the Creuſe; 9 miles W. of Guerat, and 9 SE. of Souterraine.

SALLAGOUSA, a town of France, in the county of the Eaſtern Pyrenees: 6 miles WSW. of Mont Louis.

SALLAND, or } a late diſtrict or bailiwick
SALLANT, } of the ci-devant United Provinces, in Overyſſel; now included in the Batavian republic, and department of the Yſſel. Zwoll, Campen, and Deventer, are its chief towns.

SALLARTINE, a town of France, in the department of the Vendee; 9 miles SW. of Garnache.

(1.) SALLE, a town of France, in the department of Gard, 6 miles NW. of St Hypolite, and 15 W. of Alais.

(2.) SALLE PRES VIHIERS, a town of France, in the department of Maine and Loire; 6 miles W. of Vihiers, and 11 NE. of Chollet.

(1.) SALLEE, an ancient and conſiderable town of Africa in the kingdom of Fez, with a harbour and ſeveral ports. The harbour of Sallee is one of the beſt in the country; and yet, on account of a bar that lies across it, ſhips of the leaſt draught are forced to unload and take out their guns before they can get into it. There are docks to build ſhips, but they are hardly ever uſed, for want of hands and materials. It is a large place, divided into the Old and New Towns, by the river Gueu. It has long been infamous for its pirates, which have

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es of all Chriſtian ſhips that come in their way, pt there is a treaty to the contrary. It has a ery of 24 pieces of cannon fronting the ſea, a redoubt at the entrance of the river, which is it a quarter of a mile broad, and penetrates ral miles into the interior country. Lon. 6. W. Lat. 34. 0. N.

.) SALLEE, a river of Africa in Fez, which into the ſea, at the above town.

ALLEN, a town of Pruſſia, in Natangen; Boſen, and 52 miles SSE. of Konigſberg.

ALLENGRE, Albert Henry De, F. R. S. an nious writer, born at the Hague in 1694. His er was receiver general of Walloon Flanders, of an ancient family. He ſent young Albert eyden, who having finiſhed his ſtudies, com-ced advocate in Holland. After the peace of echt, in 1713, he travelled into France. In 5, he was made counſellor to the princeſs of ſau; in 1717, commiſſary of finances to the es. In 1719, he viſited England, and was e-ed F. R. S. He wrote commentaries on Ovid's les and other claſſics; and was writing a Hiſ-of the United Provinces, when he was cut off he ſmall pox, in 1723.

ALLENS, a neat town of Ireland, in Kildare, nſter; ſeated on the banks of the Grand Canal, miles from Dublin.

ALLENT, a town of Spain, in Arragon, 13 N. of Jaca.

ALLES, 3 towns of France: 1. in the dep. of ente, 5 m. S. of Cognac: 2. in that of Gard, N. of Alais: 3. in that of Tarn, 10½ m. NNW. lby, and 12 NNE. of Gaillac.

1.) * SALLET. Salleting. *n. ſ.* [corrupted pronunciation from *ſalad.*]—I tried upon *ſallet Boyle.*—Sow ſome early *ſalleting. Mortimer.*

2.) Sallet, or Sallad, a diſh of eatable herbs, marily accompanying roaſt meat, compoſed ſly of crude, freſh herbage, ſeaſoned with ſalt, and vinegar. Menage derives the word from Latin *ſaluta*; of *ſal*, ſalt; others from *ſalcedo*; Cange from *ſalgama*, which is uſed in Auſoni-and Columella in the ſame ſenſe. Some add ſtard, hard eggs, and ſugar; others, pepper, other ſpices, with orange peel, ſaffron, &c. principal ſallet herbs, and thoſe which ordi-ly make the baſis of our ſallets, are lettuce, ce-, endive, creſſes, radiſh, and rape; along with ich are uſed purſlane, ſpinach, ſorrel, tarragon, net, corn ſallet, and chervil. The gardeners ſome plants *ſmall herbs* in ſallets; theſe ſhould ays be cut while in the ſeed leaf: as creſſes, ſtard, radiſh, turnep, ſpinach, and lettuce; all ich are raiſed from ſeeds ſown in drills, or lines, m the middle of February to the end of March, der glaſſes or frames; and thence to the mid-le May, upon natural beds, warmly expoſed; and ing the ſummer heats in more ſhady places; l afterwards in September, as in March, &c.; l laſtly, in the rigour of the winter, in hot beds. they be frozen in very froſty weather, putting m in ſpring-water two hours before they be u-recovers them.

SALLIAN, a town of Perſia, in Schirvan, on Kur, near the Caſpian Sea. The ſurrounding trict is inhabited by Perſians, Tartars and Ar-

menians. Its chief trade is in ſalt. It is 90 miles S. of Scamachie.

* SALLIANCE. *n. ſ.* [from *ſally.*] The act of iſſuing forth; ſally. A word not inelegant, but out of uſe.—

Now mote I weet,
Sir Guyon, why with ſo fierce *ſalliance*
And fell intent, ye did at earſt me meet.
Fairy Queen.

SALLIES, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Pyrenees: 7½ miles W. of and 10½ N. of St Palais.

SALLO, Denis De, a French writer, famous for being the projector of literary journals, was born at Paris in 1626. He ſtudied the law and was admitted a counſellor in the parliament of Paris in 1652. It was in 1664 he ſchemed the plan of the *Journal des Scavans*; and the year following began to publiſh it under the name of Sieur de Heronville, which was that of his valet de chambre. But he criticiſed ſo ſeverely, and authors retorted ſo powerfully, that M. de Sallo, unable to weather the ſtorm, after he had publiſhed his 3d Journal, gave up the undertaking, and turned it over to the abbe Gallois; who without preſuming to criticiſe, contented himſelf merely with giving the titles of new books, and making extracts. Such was the origin of literary journals, which afterwards ſprang up in other countries under different titles; and the ſucceſs of them, under judicious management, is a clear proof of their utility. M. de Sallo died in 1669.

(1.) * SALLOW. *adj.* [*ſalo*, German, black; *ſale*, French, foul.] Sickly; yellow.—

What a deal of brine
Hath waſht thy *ſallow* cheeks for Roſaline?
Shak.

Haggard Grief, lean-looking *ſallow* Care,
And pining Diſcontent, a rueful train,
Dwell on my brow. *Rowe.*

(2.) * Sallow. *n. ſ.* [*ſalix*, Latin.] A tree of the genus of willow.—

Sallows and reeds on banks of rivers born,
Remain to cut to ſtay thy vines. *Dryden.*

(3.) Sallow, in botany. See Salix.

* SALLOWNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ſallow.*] Yellowneſs; ſickly paleneſs.—A fiſh-diet would give ſuch a *ſallowneſs* to the celebrated beauties of this iſland, as would ſcarce make them diſtinguiſhable from thoſe of France. *Addiſon.*

Salluſtian Gardens. See next article.

SALLUSTIUS, Caius Criſpus, a celebrated Roman hiſtorian, born at Amiternum, in Italy, A. U. C. 669, and A. A. C. 85. His education was liberal, and he made the beſt uſe of it. His *Roman Hiſtory* in ſix books, from the death of Sylla to the conſpiracy of Catiline, the great work from which he chiefly derived his glory among the ancients, is unfortunately loſt excepting a few fragments; but his two detached pieces of Hiſtory which happily remain entire, are ſufficient to juſtify the great encomiums he has received as a writer. He has had the ſingular honour to be twice tranſlated by a royal hand: firſt by Q. Elizabeth, according to Camden: and 2dly, by the Infant of Spain, whoſe verſion of this elegant hiſtorian, lately printed in folio, is one of the moſt beautiful books

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that any country has produced since the invention of printing. No man has inveighed more sharply against the vices of his age than this historian; yet no man had less pretensions to virtue. His youth was spent in a most lewd and profligate manner; and his patrimony almost squandered away when he had scarcely taken possession of it. Marcus Varro, a writer of undoubted credit, relates, in a fragment preserved by Aulus Gellius, that Sallust was actually caught in bed with Fausta the daughter of Sylla, by Milo her husband: who scourged him very severely, and did not suffer him to depart till he had redeemed his liberty with a considerable sum. In A. U. C. 694, he was made questor, and in 702 tribune of the people; in neither of which places did he acquit himself at all to his honour. By his questorship, he obtained an admission into the senate; but was expelled by the censors in 704, on account of his debauched way of life. In 705, Cæsar restored him to the dignity of a senator, and made him questor a 2d time. In the administration of this office he behaved very scandalously; exposed every thing to sale that he could find a purchaser for; and thought nothing wrong which he had a mind to do. In 707, when the African war was at an end, he was made prætor for his services to Cæsar, and sent to Numidia. Here he outrageously plundered the province; and returned with such immense riches to Rome, that he purchased a most magnificent building upon mount Quirinal, with those gardens which still retain the name of SALLUSTIAN GARDENS, besides his country house at Tivoli. Eusebius tells us, that he married Terentia, the divorced wife of Cicero; and that he died at the age of 50, in 710, 4 years before the battle of Actium. Besides his Histories of the Catilinarian and Jugurthine wars, we have some orations, printed with his fragments.

(1.) * SALLY. *n. s.* [*sallie*, French.] 1. Eruption; issue from a place besieged; quick egress.—The deputy sat down before the town for the space of three Winter months; during which time *sallies* were made by the Spaniards. *Bacon.* 2. Range; excursion.—Every one shall know a country better, that makes often *sallies* into it. *Locke.* 3. Flight; volatile or sprightly exertion.—These passages were intended for *sallies* of wit. *Stilling fleet.* 4. Escape; levity; extravagant flight; frolick; wild gaiety; exorbitance.—This excursion was esteemed but a *sally* of youth. *Wotton.*—'Tis but a *sally* of youth. *Denham's Sophy.*—Some *sallies* of levity ought to be imputed to youth. *Swift.*—The episodical part, made up of the extravagant *sallies* of the prince of Wales and Falstaff's humour, is of his own invention. *Shak. Illustrated.*

(2.) SALLY, in geography, a town of Virginia, on the river James; 92 miles W. of Richmond.

* *To* SALLY. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To make an eruption; to issue out.—The Turks *sallying* forth, received thereby great hurt. *Knoll.*—

They break the truce, and *sally* out by night. *Dryden.*

To *sally* from one port. *Tate.*

SALLYCOE, a town of the United States, in Georgia: 95 miles W. of Tugeloo.

(1.) * SALLYPORT. *n. s.* [*sally* and *port*.] Gate at which sallies are made.—

My slippery soul had quit the fort,
But that she stopp'd the *sallyport*. *Cleaveland.*

Love to our citadel resorts
Through those deceitful *sallyports*. *Denham.*

(2.) SALLY-PORTS, in fortification, or POSTERN GATES, as they are sometimes called, are those under-ground passages which lead from the inner works to the outward ones; such as from the higher flank to the lower, or to the tenailles, or the communication from the middle of the curtain to the ravelin. When they are made for men to go through only, they are made with steps at the entrance and going out. They are about 6 feet wide and 8½ feet high. There is also a gutter or shore made under the sally-ports, which are in the middle of the curtains, for the water which runs down the streets to pass into the ditch; but this can only be done when they are wet ditches. When sally-ports serve to carry guns through them for the out-works, instead of making them with steps, they must have a gradual slope, and be 8 feet wide.

(1.) SALM, a river of Germany, now in the French empire, and department of the Rhine and Moselle, which runs into the Moselle, 8 miles below Treves.

(2.) SALM, a river of Germany, in Stiria, which runs into the Muehr, near Ernhausen.

(3, 4.) SALM, a town of the French empire, late capital of a ci-devant county, inhabited in the late duchy of Luxemburg, now both included in the department of the Forests. The town is 20 miles SSE. of Spa, and 38 N. of Luxemburg.

(5, 6.) SALM, another town of the French empire, and capital of another ci-devant county, formerly in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and situated in the French dominions, with which they are now incorporated; and both included in the department of the Meurthe. The town is seated on the Sar, 24 miles WSW. of Strasburg, 36 of Epinal, 55 SE. of Nanci. For the independency granted to the princes of Salm-Salm, &c. for the loss of these dominions. See REVOLUTIONS, § Lon. 7. 15. E. Lat. 48. 34. N.

SALMA, a lake of Naples, in the province of Bari: 4 miles W. of Bari.

(1.) SALMACIS, in ancient geography, a fountain of Caria, near Halicarnassus, whose waters are reported to have rendered effeminate all who drank of, or bathed in them.

(2.) SALMACIS, in fabulous history, one of the Naiades, who fell in love with, and was united in one person with Hermaphroditus. See HERMAPHRODITUS.

* SALMAGUNDI. *n. s.* [It is said to be corrupted from *selon mon gout*, or *salé à mon gout*.] A mixture of chopped meat and pickled herrings with oil, vinegar, pepper, and onions.

SALMAISE, a town of France, in the department of Cote d' Or: 18 miles NW. of Dijon.

SALMANASAR, or } the son of Tiglath-pi-
SALMANESER, } ser, king of Assyria, succeeded his father, about A. M. 3276. He took Samaria, put an end to the kingdom of Israel, and carried the Israelites into captivity, A. M. 3[illegible]. See ASSYRIA, § 2; CUTH, N° 2; ISRAEL, § SAMARIA, N° 2; and SAMARITANS. He was [illegible] terwards

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rds defeated by the Tyrians; and died about C. 714. He was succeeded by his son, SENERIB.

SALMANSHAVEN, a bay of the North Sea, coast of Norway: 100 miles N. of Bergen.

SALMANSWEILER, a princely abbey of Germ in Suabia, on a river which runs into lake nce, founded in the 12th century: 9 miles of Conftance, and 24 E. of Schaffhauſen.

SALMANTICA, an ancient town of Spain, alled SALAMANCA.

SALMASIUS, Claudius, a French writer ommon abilities and immenſe erudition, de- d from an ancient and noble family, and t or near Semur in 1596. His mother, who Proteſtant, infuſed her notions of religion into nd he at length converted his father: he at Leyden; and in 1659 paid a viſit to na queen of Sweden, who ſhowed him exinary marks of regard. Upon the death of Charles I. he was prevailed on by the royal , then in exile, to write a defence of that which was anſwered by the celebrated MIL- 1651, in a work entitled *Defenſio pro Populicano contra Claudii Salmaſii Defenſionem Re-*

This book was read over all Europe; and red ſuch a proof of the writer's abilities, that reſpected even by thoſe who hated his poliinciples. Salmaſius died in 1653; and ſome id that Milton killed him by the acuteneſs reply. His works are numerous, and of vatinds; but the greateſt monuments of his g are, his *Notæ in Hiſtoriæ Auguſtæ Scriptores*, *Exercitationes Plinianæ in Solinum.*

SALMASIUS, Claudius, ſon of the preceding, ted the anſwer to the Milton, which his fad begun, but did not live to finiſh; and de- Lit to K. Charles II. in 1660.

SALMAST, a town of Perſia, in Adirbeitzan; s WSW. of Tauris.

SALMERANGES, a town of France, in the Puy de Dome: 4½ miles NE. of Billom.

SALMIECH, a town of France, in the depart- f Aveiron: 10 miles S. of Rhodez.

SALMIS, a town of Norwegian Lapland, es SW. of Wardhuys.

SALMIS, a town of Ruſſia, in Viborg, on doga: 20 miles NW. of Olonetz.

SALMISCH, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into mara: 16 miles N. of Orenburg.

SALMO, the SALMON, in ichthyology, a genus rder of abdominales. The head is ſmooth, niſhed with teeth and a tongue; the rays rills are from four to ten; the back-fin is ad; and the belly-fins have many rays. re 29 ſpecies; of which the moſt remarkaheſe:

SALMO ALBUS, the *white*, migrates out of into the river Eſk in Cumberland, from September. When dreſſed, their fleſh is moſt delicious eating. They have, on appearance from the ſalt water, the *lernea*, or ſalmon louſe, adhering to them. re both milt and ſpawn; but no fry has een obſerved. This is the fiſh called by *phinoes*. They never exceeded a foot in The upper jaw is a little longer than the the firſt are two rows of teeth, in the laſt one: on the tongue are ſix teeth. The back is ſtraight: the whole body of an elegant form: the lateral line is ſtraight; colour, between that and the top of the back, duſky and ſilvery intermixed; beneath the line, of an exquiſite whiteneſs; firſt dorſal fin ſpotted with black: tail black, and much forked.

2. SALMO ALPINUS, *the red charr* (the umbla minor, or *caſe charr* of Pennant), is an inhabitant of the lakes of the north, and of thoſe of the mountainous parts of Europe. It affects clear and pure waters, and is very rarely known to wander into running ſtreams, except into ſuch whoſe bottom is ſimilar to the neighbouring lake. It is found in vaſt abundance in the cold lakes on the ſummits of the Lapland Alps, and is almoſt the only fiſh that is met with in any plenty in thoſe regions; where it would be wonderful how they ſubſiſted, had not Providence ſupplied them with innumerable larvæ of the gnat kind: theſe are food to the fiſh, who in their turn are a ſupport to the migratory Laplanders, in their ſummer voyages to the diſtant lake. In ſuch excurſions thoſe vacant people find a luxurious and ready repaſt in theſe fiſh, which they dreſs and eat without the addition of ſauces. There are but few lakes in our iſland that produce this fiſh; and even thoſe not in any abundance. It is found in Ullſwater and Windermere in Weſtmoreland; in Llyn Quellyn, near the foot of Snowdon; and, before the diſcovery of the copper-mines, in thoſe of Llynberris; but the mineral ſtreams have entirely deſtroyed the fiſh in the laſt lakes. In Scotland it is found in Loch Inch, and other neighbouring lakes, and is ſaid to go into the Spey to ſpawn. "The largeſt and moſt beautiful we ever received (ſays Mr Pennant) were taken in Windermere. The umbla minor, or caſe charr, ſpawns about Michaelmas, and chiefly in the river Brathy, which uniting with another called the *Rowthay*, about a quarter of a mile above the lake, they both fall into it together. The Brathy has a black rocky bottom; the bottom of the Rowthay is a bright ſand, and into this the charr are never obſerved to enter. Some of them, however, ſpawn in the lake; but always in ſuch parts of it which are ſtony, and reſemble the channel of the Brathy. They are ſuppoſed to be in the higheſt perfection about May, and continue ſo all the ſummer; yet are rarely caught after April. When they are ſpawning in the river they will take a bait, but at no other time; being commonly taken, as well as the other ſpecies, in what they call *breaſt-neſts*, which are in length about 24 fathoms, and about five where broadeſt. The ſeaſon which the other ſpecies ſpawn in is from the beginning of January to the end of March. They are never known to aſcend the rivers, but always in thoſe parts of the lake which are ſpringy, where the bottom is ſmooth and ſandy, and the water warmeſt. They are taken in greateſt plenty from the end of Sept. to the end of Nov. This ſpecies is much more eſteemed for the table than the other, and is very delicate when potted. The length of the red charr to the diviſion in its tail was 12 inches; its biggeſt circumference almoſt 7. The firſt dorſal fin was 5¾ inches from the tip of its noſe, and conſiſted of 12 branched rays,

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the firſt of which was ſhort, the fifth the longeſt; the fat fin was very ſmall. Each of the fish had double noſtrils, and ſmall teeth in the jaws, roof of the mouth, and on the tongue. The jaws of the caſe charr are perfectly even; thoſe of the red charr were unequal, the upper jaw being the broadeſt, and the teeth hung over the lower, as might be perceived on paſſing the finger over them. The gold or barren charr was rather more ſlender than the others, as being without ſpawn. The back was of a glofſy duſky blue; the ſides ſilvery, mixed with blue, ſpotted with pale red; the ſides of the belly were of a pale red, the bottom white. The tails of each bifurcated."

3. SALMO ERPERLANUS, *the* SMELT, inhabits the ſeas of the northern parts of Europe, and is found as far ſouth as the Somme. They are alſo taken in the Straits of Magellan, and of a moſt ſurpriſing ſize, ſome meaſuring 20 inches in length and 8 in circumference. They inhabit the ſeas that waſh theſe iſlands the whole year, and never go very remote from ſhore except when they aſcend the rivers. In certain rivers they appear a long time before they ſpawn, being taken in great abundance in Nov. Dec. and Jan. in the Thames and Dee, but in others not till February; and in March and April they ſpawn; after which they all return to the ſalt water, and are not ſeen in the rivers till the next ſeaſon. They never come into the Mericy as long as there is any ſnow water in the river. Theſe fiſh vary greatly in ſize; but the largeſt we ever heard of was 13 inches long, and weighed half a pound. They have a very particular ſcent, from whence is derived one of their Engliſh names, *ſmelt*, i.e. ſmell it. That of *ſparling*, which is uſed in Wales and the north of England, is taken from the French *ſperlan*. There is a wonderful diſagreement in the opinion of people in reſpect to the ſcent of this fiſh: ſome affect it flavours of the violet; whereas the Germans ſtyle it *cucumber-fiſh*. Smelts are often ſold in the ſtreets of London freſh and dried. They are called *dried ſparlings*; and are recommended as a relliſh to a glaſs of wine in the morning. It is a fiſh of a very beautiful form and colour; the head is tranſparent, and the ſkin in general ſo thin, that with a good microſcope the blood may be obſerved to circulate. The irides are ſilvery; the pupil of a full black; the under jaw is the longeſt: in the front of the upper jaw are four large teeth; thoſe in the ſides of both are ſmall; in the roof of the mouth are two rows of teeth; on the tongue two others of large teeth. The ſcales are ſmall, and readily drop off: the tail conſiſts of 19 rays, and is forked. The colour of the back is whitiſh, with a caſt of green, beneath which is varied with blue, and then ſucceeds a beautiful glaſs of a ſilvery hue.

4. SALMO FARIO, *the* TROUT; the colours of which vary greatly in different waters, and in different ſeaſons. Trouts differ alſo in ſize. One taken in Llyn-ſillet, Denbighſhire, which is famous for an excellent kind, meaſured 17 inches, its depth 5½, its weight 1 lb. 10 oz. the head thick; the noſe rather ſharp; the upper jaw a little longer than the lower; both jaws, as well as the head, were of a pale brown, blotched with black; the teeth ſharp and ſtrong, diſpoſed in the jaws, roof of the mouth, and tongue. The back was dark, the ſides tinged with a purpliſh bloom, marked with deep purple ſpots, mixed with black ones and below the ſide line, which was ſtraight; the belly white. The firſt dorſal fin was ſpotted; the ſpurious fin brown, tipped with red; the pectoral, ventral, and anal fins, of a pale brown; the edges of the anal fin white; the tail very much forked when extended. The ſtomachs of the common trouts are uncommonly thick and muſcular. They feed on the ſhell fiſh of lakes and rivers, as well as on ſmall fiſh. They take into their ſtomachs gravel or ſmall ſtones, to aſſiſt in comminuting the teſtaceous parts of their food. The trouts of certain lakes in Ireland, as thoſe of the province of Galway and ſome others, are remarkable for the great thickneſs of their ſtomachs, which, from ſome light reſemblance to the organs of digeſtion in birds, have been called *gizzards*; the Iriſh name the ſpecies that has them *gillaroo trouts*. Theſe fiſh are ſometimes ſerved up to table under the ſummer appellation. Trouts are moſt voracious, and afford excellent diverſion to the angler. The paſſion for the ſport of angling is ſo great in the neighbourhood of London, that the river fiſhing in ſome of the ſtreams in the adjacent counties is purchaſed at the rate of 10l. per annum. Trouts ſhift their quarters to ſpawn; and like ſalmon, make up towards the heads of rivers to depoſit their roes. The under jaw of the trout is ſubject, at certain times, to the ſame variature as that of the ſalmon. Trouts are ſaid (by the editors of the Hiſtory of Cumberland) to very great plenty at all ſeaſons of the year; but weighing 1½ lb. is an uſual ſize, though ſeldom one caught of 4 lb. weight. Five or ſix ounces is the common weight; the largeſt are commonly the beſt for the table, when a deep ſalmon colour. In winter great quantities are potted along with charre, and ſent to London, &c. Gelt (or thoſe without ſpawn) are the firmeſt and beſt. They have been taken out of a ſolid piece of ice in which they were frozen, as it were in a caſe, perfectly uninjured, after an impriſonment of ſeveral hours."

5. SALMO LAVARETUS, *the gwiniad*, is an inhabitant of ſeveral of the lakes of the Alpine parts of Europe. It is found in thoſe of Switzerland, Savoy, and Italy; of Norway, Sweden, Lapland, and Scotland; in thoſe of Ireland, and of Cumberland; and in Wales, in that of Llyntegid, or Bala, in Merionethſhire. It is the ſame with the ferra of the lake of Geneva; the ſchelly of Windermere water; the pollen of Loch Neagh; and the gwiniad and juvengis of Loch Maben. It is ſaid to have been firſt introduced into Scotland by Queen Mary, and as in her time the Scottiſh court was much Frenchified, the name was perhaps derived from the French *veudoiſe, a dace*; to which the obſerver might be tempted to compare it for the whiteneſs of its ſcales. The Britiſh *gwiniad*, or WHITING, was beſtowed upon it for the ſame reaſon. It is a gregarious fiſh, and approaches the ſhores in vaſt ſhoals in ſpring and ſummer; which proves in many places a great relief to the poor of inland countries, in the ſame degree as the annual return of the herring

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ose who inhabit the coasts. Between 7000 and 00 have been taken at one draught. The gwi- d is a fish of an insipid taste, and must be eaten n, for it will not keep long; those that choose preserve them do it with salt. They die very n after they are taken. Their spawning sea- in Llyntegid is in December. The largest iniad we ever heard of weighed between three four pounds: the head is small, smooth, and a dusky hue: the eyes very large; the pupil a deep blue: the nose blunt at the end; the s of equal length: the mouth small and tooth- : the branchiostegous rays nine: the covers the gills, silvery, powdered with black. The k is a little arched, and slightly carinated: the our, as far as the lateral line, is glossed with p blue and purple; but towards the lines as- nes a silvery cast, tinged with gold; beneath ich those colours entirely prevail. The tail is y much forked: the scales are large, and ad- re close to the body.

6. SALMO SALAR, the common SALMON, is a rthern fish, being unknown in the Mediterra- an sea and other warm climates: it is found in ance in some of the rivers that fall into the o- an, and north as far as Greenland; they are al- very common in Newfoundland, and the N. ts of North America. They are in several ntries a great article of commerce, being cu- d different ways, by salting, pickling, and dry- g: there are stationary fisheries in Iceland, Nor- y, and the Baltic; but nowhere greater than ole at Coleraine in Ireland; and in Great Bri- n at Berwick, Perth, and in various rivers of otland. In the History of Cumberland, we are ld "that they deposit their spawn even on the per side of Pooley-bridge, but always in the eam of Eamont. They go up the river Der- nt in Sept. through the lake of Bassenthwaite, the river which runs through Keswick into e vale of St John, where they deposit their awn in the small streams and feeders of the lake. he young salmon are called *salmon smelts*, and down to the sea with the first floods in May." he salmon was known to the Romans, but not the Greeks. Pliny speaks of it as a fish found the rivers of Aquitaine: Ausonius enumerates among those of the Mosele. The salmon is fish that lives both in the salt and fresh waters; utting the sea at certain seasons for the sake of positing its spawn, in security, in the gravelly ds of rivers remote from their mouths. There scarce any difficulties but what they will over- me to arrive at places fit for their purpose: ey will ascend rivers hundreds of miles, force emselves against the most rapid streams, and ring with amazing agility over cataracts of ve- al feet in height. Salmon are frequently taken the Rhine as high up as Basil; they gain the urces of the Lapland rivers in spite of their tor- nt-like currents, and surpass the perpendicular lls of Leixslip, Kennerth, and Pont Abergiastyn. is a vulgar error that they take their tails in eir mouth when they attempt to leap; such as Ir Pennant saw, sprung up quite straight, and ith a strong tremulous motion. The salmon is generally known, that a very brief description ill serve. The largest we ever heard of weighed 74 lb. The colour of the back and sides are grey, sometimes spotted with black, sometimes plain: the covers of the gills are subject to the same variety; the belly silvery; the nose sharp-pointed; the end of the under jaw in the males often turns up in the form of a hook; sometimes this curvature is very considerable: it is said that they lose this hook when they return to the sea. The teeth are lodged in the jaws and on the tongue, and are slender, but very sharp; the tail is a little forked. See SALMON, § 8.

7. SALMO SALMOLETUS, or SALMULUS, the *samlet*, is the least of the trout kind; is frequent in the Wye, in the upper part of the Severn, and the rivers that run into it, in the north of England, and in Wales. It is by several imagined to be the fry of the salmon; but Mr Pennant dissents from that opinion. See his *Brit. Zool.* III. 303. This species has a general resemblance to the trout, therefore must be described comparatively. *1st*, The head is proportionably narrower, and the mouth less than that of the trout. *2dly*, Their body is deeper. *3dly*, They seldom exceed six or seven inches in length; at most, eight and a half. *4thly*, The pectoral fins have generally but one large black spot, though sometimes a single small one attends it; whereas the pectoral fins of the trout are more numerously marked. *5thly*, The spurious or fat fin on the back is never tipped with red; nor is the edge of the anal fin white. *6thly*, The spots on the body are fewer, and not so bright: it is also marked from the back to the sides with six or seven large bluish bars; but this is not a certain character, as the same is sometimes found in young trouts. *7thly*, The tail of the samlet is much more forked than that of the trout. These fish are very frequent in the rivers of Scotland, where they are called *pars*. They are also common in the Wye, where they are known by the name of *skirlings*, or *lasprings*.

8. SALMO THYMALLUS, the UMBER, or grayling, haunts clear and rapid streams, and particularly those that flow through mountainous countries. It is found in the rivers of Derbyshire; in some of those of the north; in the Tame near Ludlow; in the Lug, and other streams near Leominster; and in the river near Christchurch, Hampshire. It is also very common in Lapland: the inhabitants make use of the guts of this fish instead of rennet, to make the cheese which they get from the milk of the rein-deer. It is a voracious fish, rises freely to the fly, and will very eagerly take a bait. It is a very swift swimmer, and disappears like the transient passage of a shadow, from whence it derived the name of *umbra*.

9. SALMO TRUTTA, the *sea trout*, migrates like the salmon up several of our rivers; spawns, and returns to the sea. That described by Mr Pennant was taken in the Tweed below Berwick, June 1769. The shape was more thick than the common trout; the weight 3 lb. 2 oz. The irides silver; the head thick, smooth, and dusky, with a gloss of blue and green; the back of the same colour, which grows fainter towards the side-line. The back is plain, but the sides, as far as the lateral line, are marked with large distinct irregularly-shaped spots of black: the lateral line straight; the sides beneath the line, and the belly are white. Tail

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Tail broad, and even at the end. The dorsal fin had 12 rays; the pectoral 14; the ventral 9; the anal 10. The flesh when boiled is of a pale red, but well flavoured.

(2.) SALMON, Nathaniel, a celebrated English divine, physician, and antiquarian, was the son of the rev. Thomas Salmon, M. A. rector of Mepsall. He was admitted of Bennet College, Cambridge, June 11, 1690, and took the degree of LL. D. in 1695. He then went into orders, and became curate of Westmill in Hertfordshire; but, although he had taken the oaths to K. William III. he refused to do so to Q. Anne; and being therefore turned out of his cure, he studied physic, and practised it at St Ives and Bishop's Stotford. He was married, and left 3 daughters. He published, 1. A survey of the Roman Antiquities in the Midland counties of England; in 8vo, 1726: 2. A survey of the Roman Stations in Britain, according to the Roman Itinerary; 8vo, 1728: 3. The History of Hertfordshire, &c. fol. 1728: 4. The Lives of the English Bishops from the Restoration to the Revolution; 1733: 5. The Antiquities of Surrey, &c. 8vo, 1736: 6. The History and Antiquities of Essex; fol. This work was left unfinished, by his death, about 1743.

(2.) SALMON, Thomas, an eminent English historian and geographer, younger brother to the Dr. (N° 1.) He wrote many useful works; particularly, 1. *A Geographical Grammar*; 8vo, which has gone through many different editions; with additions by other authors, but first published in Salmon's name: 2. *A History of England*: 3. *An Examination of Dr. Burnet's History of his own Times*. Of this author the late Lord Orford unjustly gives the following character: "Salmon made an Essay on the History of England. Though short, it contains much information which is not to be found in more voluminous histories of England. His own reflections are brief, lively, and sensible. He has left no work of very superior value; yet he must have been an author of superior abilities, for without becoming tiresome, he has written more than most of us have read." *Miscell.* p. 204. He died in April 1743.

(3.) SALMON, William, an English medical writer and practiser in physic, who published a number of books in that science, in the 17th century: particularly, 1. *The Complete Physician, or Druggist's Shop opened*: 2. A large *Herbal*, in folio: 3. *Polygraphice*: This had the best sale of all his publications. He died about 1699.

(4.) * SALMON. *n. s.* [*salmo*, Latin; *saumon*, Fr.] —The salmon is accounted the king of fresh-water fish, and is bred in rivers relating to the sea, yet so far from it as admits no tincture of brackishness. He is said to cast his spawn in August: some say that then they dig a hole in a safe place in the gravel, and there place their eggs or spawn, after the melter has done his natural office, and then cover it over with gravel and stones, and so leave it to their Creator's protection; who, by a gentle heat which he infuses into that cold element, makes it brood and beget life in the spawn, and to become samlets early in the Spring: they have to the sea before Winter, both the melter and spawner. Sir Francis Bacon observes the age of a *salmon* exceeds not ten years. After he is got into the sea he becomes from a samlet, not so big as a gudgeon, to be a *salmon*, in as short a time as a gosling becomes a goose. *Walton.*—They pierce them with an instrument somewhat like the fisher's spear. *Carew.*—They take *salmon* and trout by groping and tickling them under the bellies in their holes. *Carew.*—Of fishes, you find in arms the whale, dolphin, *salmon* and trout. *Peacham.*

(5.) SALMON, in ichthyology. See SALMO, N° 4.

(6.) SALMON FALL, the name of the river Piscataqua, from its source to the lower falls at Berwick. See PISCATAQUA.

(7.) SALMON FALLS, a cataract in the river Saco, on the line between Maine and New Hampshire, 10 miles above Saco Falls. See SACO.

(8.) SALMON FISHERY, &c. See FISHERY, § 15. The fishing is performed with nets, and sometimes with a kind of locks or weirs made on purpose, which in certain places have iron or wooden grates to difpofed, in an angle, that being impelled by any force in a contrary direction to the course of the river, they may give way and open a little at the point of contact, and immediately shut again, closing the angle. The salmon, therefore, coming up into the rivers, are admitted into these grates, which open, and suffer them to pass through, but shut again, and prevent their return. The salmon is also caught with a spear, which they dart into him when they see him swimming near the surface of the water. They likewise catch them with a candle and lanthorn, or wisp of straw set on fire; for the fish naturally following the light, are struck with the spear, or taken in a net spread for the purpose, and lifted with a jerk from the bottom. "The capture of salmon in the Tweed, about the mouth of July (says Mr Pennant, *Brit. Zool.* ii. 289.) is prodigious. In a good fishery, often a boat-load, and sometimes near two, are taken at a tide: some few years ago there were above 300 fish taken at one haul, but from 50 to 100 is very frequent. The coopers in Berwick then began to salt both salmon and gilses in pipes and other large vessels, and afterwards barrel them to send abroad, having then far more than the London markets can take off their hands. Most of the salmon have been before April, or to the setting in of the warm weather, are sent fresh to London in baskets; unless now and then the vessel is disappointed by contrary winds of sailing immediately; in which case the fish are brought ashore again to the coopers offices, and boiled, pickled, and kitted, and sent to the London markets by the same ships, and fresh salmon put in the baskets in lieu of the first ones. At the beginning of the season, when a ship is on the point of sailing, a fresh clean salmon will sell from 1s. to 1s. 6d. a pound; and most of the time that this part of the trade is carried on, the prices are from 5s. to 9s. per stone; the value rising and falling according to the plenty of fish, or the prospect of a fair or foul wind. Some fish are sent in this manner to London the end of September, when the weather grows cool; but then the fish are full of large roes, grow very thin bellied, and are not esteemed either palatable or wholesome. The season for fishing in the Tweed begins Nov. 30, but the fishermen work very little

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after Chriſtmas: it ends on Michaelmas day; he corporation of Berwick (who are conſer- s of the river) indulge the fiſhermen with a ight paſt that time, on account of the change e ſtyle. There are on the river 41 conſider- fiſheries, extending upwards, about 14 miles the mouth, (the others above being of no value,) which are rented for near 5400 l. *per n:* the expence attending the ſervants wages, boats, &c. amount to 5000 l. more; which s 10,400 l. Now, in conſequence, the pro- muſt defray all, and no leſs than 20 times ium of fiſh will effect it; ſo that 208,000 ſal- muſt be caught there one year with another. and poſſeſſes great numbers of fine fiſheries th ſides of that kingdom. The Scotch in times had moſt ſevere laws againſt the killing is fiſh; for the 3d offence was made capital, aw of James IV. Before that, the offender ower to redeem his life. They were thought : time of Henry VI. a preſent worthy of a ied head: for in that reign the queen of and ſent to the ducheſs of Clarence 10 caſks ted ſalmon; which Henry directed to paſs free. The ſalmon are cured in the ſame er as at Berwick, and a great quantity is ſent ndon in the ſpring. Ireland (particularly the) abounds with this fiſh: the moſt conſider- ſhery is at Cranna, on the river Ban, about and an half from Coleraine. When I made ur of that hoſpitable kingdom in 1754, it nted by a neighbouring gentleman for 620 l. ; who aſſured me that his predeceſſor gave *er ann.* and was a much greater gainer by the n, on account of the number of poachers leſtroy the fiſh in the fence-months. The of this river faces the north; and is finely d to receive the fiſh that roam along the n ſearch of an inlet into ſome freſh water. ve ſeen near Ballicaſtle, nets placed in the he foot of the promontories that jut into ich the ſalmon ſtrike into as they are wan- cloſe to ſhore; and numbers are taken by ethod. In the Ban they fiſh with nets 18 yards long, and are continually drawing nd day the whole ſeaſon, which laſts about hs, two ſets of 16 men each alternately re- one another. The beſt drawing is when e is coming in: at a ſingle draught there nce 840 fiſh taken. A few miles higher up er is a wear, where a conſiderable number that eſcape the nets are taken. In 1760, 320 tons were taken in the Cranna fiſhery." the ſalmon are taken, they open them along k, take out the guts and gills, and cut out ateſt part of the bones, endeavouring to he inſide as ſmooth as poſſible: they then fiſh in large tubs for the purpoſe, where e a conſiderable time ſoaking in brine; ut October, they are packed cloſe up in and ſent to London, or exported up the rranean. They have alſo in Scotland a eal of ſalmon ſalted in the common way, ıfter ſoaking in brine a competent time, is eſſed, and then dried in ſmoke: this is call- r, and is chiefly made for home conſump- nd if properly cured and prepared, is rec- very delicious."

(9.) SALMON POINT, a cape on the E. coaſt of Newfoundland, NE. of Claune Point.

(10.) SALMON RIVER, a river of Canada, which runs into the Utwas: 69 miles W. of Montreal.

(11.) * SALMON TROUT. *n. ſ.* A trout that has ſome reſemblance to a ſalmon.—There are in many rivers that relate to the ſea *ſalmontrouts* as much different from others, in ſhape and ſpots, as ſheep differ in their ſhape and bigneſs. *Walton.*

(12.) SALMON TROUT. See SALMO, N° 4.

(1.) SALMONE, a town of Peloponneſus, in Elis, with a fountain from which the Enipeau riſes, and falls into the Alpheus, 40 ſtadia from Olympia; thence called SALMONIS. *Ovid.*

(2.) SALMONE, a promontory on the E. coaſt of Crete. *Dionyſ.* 5.

SALMONEUS, in fabulous hiſtory, a king of Elis, the ſon of Æolus and Enarete, and brother of Siſyphus. He married Alcidice by whom he had Tyro. Ambitious to be reckoned a god, he imitated thunder and lightning by artificial fire-works. Jupiter therefore ſtruck him with a real thunderbolt, and placed him in hell near his brother SISYPHUS. *Hom. Od.* 11. *Hyg. fab.* 60.

SALMONIS, a name of Olympia. See SALMONE, N° 1.

SALMOR, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Po, and ci-devant principality of Piedmont; 4 miles SW. of Cheraſco, and 8 E. of Savigliano.

SALMUNSTER, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and biſhopric of Fulda, 25 miles SW. of Fulda.

SALMUS, (gen. *-untis,*) a town of Aſia, near the coaſt of the Red Sea; where Alexander the Great ſaw a dramatic performance. *Diod.* 17.

SALMYDESSUS, a bay on the Euxine Sea.

(1.) SALO, in ancient geography, a river of Spain, which runs into the Iberus, now called XALON.

(2.) SALO, in modern geography, a ci-devant territory of Italy, in the Breſciano, now included in the Italian republic, department of the Mella, and diſtrict of Breſcia. It is ſeated on the banks of the lake of Garda, and is 80 Italian miles long, and 15 broad: the ſurface is partly mountainous, partly level; the ſoil is fertile, abounding in corn, herbs, fruits, lemons, oranges, vines, olives, and mulberry trees; and hence affording plenty of wine, oil, and ſilk. The climate is ſalubrious, and the mountains abound with copper, lead, iron, marble, granite, and cryſtal. The Chieſe, the Toſcolano, and the lakes Idro and Gard, afford plenty of fiſh; and great manufactures are carried on in linen, ſilk, and the various metals. Salo contains one large and ſeveral ſmall towns, and 150 villages, and is divided into 42 pariſhes. DESENZANO, SALO, and POZZOLENGO, are the chief towns.

(3.) SALO, a *quadra*, or ſmall diſtrict, in the centre of the above territory, ſeated on the Chieſe where it is broadeſt. It contains 3 pariſhes.

(4.) SALO, a town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of Mella; capital of the above diſtrict and territory, is ſeated at the foot of Mount Pennino, on the N. ſide of the lake DIGARPA, an arm of lake Garda, which is 5 miles broad, 14 miles NE. of Breſcia. The French republicans, under Bonaparte,

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Bonaparte, took poſſeſſion of it, on the 8th May, 1796; but were driven out of it on the 29th July, by the Auſtrians under Gen. Wurmſer: They retook it, however, on the 31ſt July.

(1.) SALOBRENA, } or SOLOBRENA, a town
(1.) SALOBRENNA, } of Spain, in Grenada, near the coaſt of the Mediterranean; with a ſtrong caſtle, where the Mooriſh kings formerly kept their treaſures. It has a good trade in ſugar and fiſh; and is ſeated on a rock: 12 miles SE. of Almunecar, 4 miles W. of Motril, and 36 S. of Grenada. Lon. 3. 30. W. Lat. 36. 31. N.

(2.) SALOBRENNA, a river of Spain, which runs into the Mediterranean, near the above town.

SALODURUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Helvetii, now called SOLEURE.

SALOMBO, a cluſter of iſlands, in the E. Indian Ocean. Lon. 113. 13. E. Lat. 5. 30. S.

SALOMON. See SOLOMON.

SALOMON'S BRIDGE, a ſmall town in Suſſex; NW. of Petworth.

(1.) SALON, in ancient geography, a country of Bithynia.

(2.) SALON, in modern geography, a town of France, and capital of a diſtrict, in the dep. of the Mouths of the Rhone, and late prov. of Provence: ſeated on the canal of Craponne, 20 miles NW. of Aix, 20 SW. of Apt, and 24 NW. of Marſeilles. Lon. 5. 5. E. Lat. 43. 38. N.

(3.) SALON, or SALOON. See SALOON.

(1.) SALONA, a ſea-port town of Maritime Auſtria, in Dalmatia, ſeated on a bay of the Adriatic. It was formerly a very conſiderable place, but was deſtroyed by the Goths, and its ruins ſhow that it was 10 miles in circumference. It is 18 miles N. of Spalatto. It is now a wretched village, preſerving few diſtinguiſhable remains of its ancient ſplendor. Dr Oppenheim ſays, this is "owing to the inhabitants having built Spalatro out of its ruins." It was the birth-place of Dioclefian. In a valuable MS. relation of Dalmatia, written by the ſenator John Baptiſt Giuſtiniani, about the middle of the 16th century, there is a hint of what exiſted at that time. "The nobility, grandeur, and magnificence of the city of Salona, may be imagined from the vaults and arches of the wonderful theatre, which are ſeen at this day; from the vaſt ſtones of the fineſt marbie, which lie ſcattered on, and buried in the fields; from the beautiful column of three pieces of marble, which is ſtill ſtanding in the place where the arſenal was, towards the ſea ſhore; and from the many arches of ſurpriſing beauty, ſupported by very high marble columns; the height of the arches is a ſtone-throw, and above them there was an aqueduct, which reached from Salona to Spalatro. There are to be ſeen many ruins and veſtiges of large palaces, and many ancient epitaphs may be read on fine marble ſtones; but the earth, which is increaſed, has buried the moſt ancient ſtones, and the moſt valuable things." Lon. 17. 29. E. Lat. 44. 10. N.

(2.) SALONA, a river of Maritime Auſtria, in Dalmatia, which runs into the Adriatic near the above town.

(3.) SALONA, or SALONE, an ancient town of European Turkey, in Livadia; with a Greek biſhop's ſee; ſeated on a river which runs into the Gulf. (N° 4.) It was anciently called Amphiſſa. See AMPHISSA, § 1. The people are of two Chriſtians, the other Turks, nearly equal; Jews are excluded. It has a citadel ſeated on a mountain; 20 miles NE. of Lepanto. Lon. 22. 1. E. Lat. 38. 50. N.

(4.) SALONA, GULF OF, a bay on the N. of the Gulf of Lepanto; 20 miles W. of Livadia.

SALONÆ, or } See SALONA, N° 1 and 2.
SALONE. } lona in Dalmatia was anciently called *Martia Julia*.

SALONICHI, or } formerly called THES-
SALONIKI, } LONICA, a ſea-port town of Turkey in Europe, and capital of Macedonia, with an archbiſhop's ſee. It is ancient, large, populous, and rich, being about 10 miles in circumference. It is a place of great trade, carried on principally by the Greek Chriſtians and Jews; the former of whom have 30 churches, and the latter as many ſynagogues; the Turks alſo have 15 moſques. It is ſurrounded with walls, flanked with towers, and defended on the land-ſide by a citadel, and near the harbour with three forts. It was taken from the Venetians by the Turks in 1431. The principal merchandize is ſilk. It is ſeated at the bottom of a gulph of the ſame name, partly on the top, and partly on the ſide of a hill near the river Vardar. Lon. 23. 13. E. Lat. 40. 40. N.

SALONINA, the wife of the emperor Gallienus, eminent for her public and private virtues. She patroniſed the arts and ſciences, and to her clemency Rome was indebted for a ſhort period of proſperity. But her virtues could not protect her from the murderers of her huſband, who aſſaſſinated both, A. D. 268.

SALOON, or SALON, in architecture, a large ſpacious ſort of hall, vaulted at top, and uſually comprehending two ſtories, with two ranges of windows. (See HALL, N° 5.) The ſaloon is a grand room in the middle of a building, over the head of a gallery, &c. Its faces, or ſides, are to have a ſymmetry with each other; and it uſually takes up the height of two ſtories in building, Daviler obſerves, ſhould be with a ſmall ſweep. The ſaloon is a ſtate-room much uſed in the palaces in Italy; and from thence the uſe came to us. Ambaſſadors, and other great viſitors are uſually received in the ſaloon. It is ſometimes built ſquare, ſometimes round or oval, ſometimes octagonal, as at Marly, and ſometimes in other forms.

(1.) SALOP, or SHROPSHIRE. See SHROPSHIRE.

(2.) SALOP, a borough of England in Shropſhire, of which it was anciently the capital, and ſtill gives one of its names to it. It ſends two members to the imperial Britiſh parliament.

SALOPAR, a town of the iſland of Ceylon, 18 miles NNW. of Trinkamaly.

SALORI, a town of Sardinia; 10 miles N. of Cagliari.

SALORNAY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Saone and Loire; on the Guye: 10 miles NW. of Maçon.

SALPE, a town of Naples, in Capitanata.

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falt-works; 23 miles S. of Manfredonia, and NE. of Naples. Lon. 16. 10, E. Lat. 41. 12.

ALPERTON, a town of England, in Glouceſtſhire; between Winchcomb and Northleach.

SALPICON. *n. ſ.* [In cookery.] A kind of meat put into holes cut in legs of beef, veal, or mutton. *Bailey.*

SALPIS, an ancient town of Etruria, whoſe inhabitants were called *Salpinates. Liv.* v. 31.

SALSA, a territory of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Panaro, diſtrict and late duchy of Modena; abounding with petrifactions.

SALSAMENTARIOUS. *adj.* [*ſalſamentarius*, Lat.] Belonging to ſalt things. *Dict.*

SALSEDA, a town of Spain, in Galicia; 18 miles ENE. of Compoſtella.

SALSES, a very ſtrong caſtle of France, in the county of the Eaſtern Pyrenees; and late province of Rouſſillon. It was taken from the Spaniards by the French in 1639; in 1640, it was retaken by the Spaniards; but in 1642, it was finally taken by the French. It is ſeated on a lake of the ſame name, among mountains, 10 miles N. of Perpignan. Lon. 3. 0. E. Lat. 43. 35. N.

SALSETTE, an iſland of the Eaſt Indies, adjacent to Bombay, from which it is in one place divided only by a narrow paſs fordable at low water. It is about 26 miles long, and 8 or 9 broad. The ſoil is rich, and is everywhere well watered, when in poſſeſſion of the Portugueſe furniſhed ſuch quantities of rice, that it was called the *granary of Goa*. It abounds alſo in all kinds of proviſions, and has great plenty of game, both fowls and quadrupeds. It has pretty high mountains; and there is a tradition that the whole was thrown up from the bottom of the ſea: in confirmation of which it is ſaid, that on the top of the moſt high hill there was found, ſome years ago, a large anchor, ſuch as was anciently uſed by the inhabitants of that country. Here are the ruins of a place called *Canara*, where there are excavations of rocks, ſuppoſed to be contemporary with thoſe of ELEPHANTA. They are much more numerous, but not comparable to the former either for neatneſs or workmanſhip. The iſland of Salſette formerly formed part of the Portugueſe dominions in India. It ought to have been ceded to the Engliſh along with Bombay, as part of the dower of Catherine of Liſbon, eſpouſed to Charles II. The treatment of this article, however, being evaded, it ſtill remained in poſſeſſion of the Portugueſe; notwithſtanding the little care they took of it, the revenue was valued at 60,000l. Such was the negligence of the Portugueſe government, that they took no care to fortify it againſt the attacks of the Mahrattas, from whoſe dominions Salſette is only ſeparated by a very narrow paſs fordable at low water. Here they had only a redoubt of no conſequence, till, on the appearance of an approaching war with the Mahrattas, they began to build another, which indeed would have anſwered the purpoſe of protecting the iſland, provided the Mahrattas had allowed them to finiſh it. This, however, was not their intention. They allowed them indeed to go on quietly with their works, till they ſaw them almoſt completed, when they came and took poſſeſſion of them. The Mahrattas thus became dangerous neighbours to the Britiſh at Bombay, until it was ceded to the latter by the treaty concluded with thoſe people in 1780. Lon. 72. 15. E. Lat. 19. 0. N.

SALSEY, one of the ſmaller SHETLAND Iſlands. Lon. 1. 32. E. of Edinburgh. Lat. 59. 53. N.

(1.) * SALSIFY. *n. ſ.* [Latin.] A plant.—*Salſify*, or the common ſort of goatſbeard, is of a very long oval figure, as if it were cods all over ſtreaked, and engraven in the ſpaces between the ſtreaks, which are ſharp pointed towards the end. *Mort.*

(2.) SALSIFY is a ſpecies of TRAGOPOGON.

SALSITZ, a town of Upper Saxony, in the biſhopric of Naumburg: 2 m. SW. of Naumburg.

(1.) SALSO, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Placentia, famous for its ſalt-works; which produce annually about 60,000 ſcudi. It is 16 miles SE. of Placentia.

(2.) SALSO, a river of Sicily, which runs into the Mediterranean, near Alicata.

* SALSOACID. *adj.* [*ſalſus* and *acidus*, Latin.] Having a taſte compounded of ſaltneſs and ſourneſs.—The *ſalſoacids* help its paſſing off; as ſal prunel. *Floyer.*

SALSOLA, GLASS-WORT; a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 12th order, *Holoraceæ*. The calyx is pentaphyllous; there is no corolla; the capſule is monoſpermous, with a ſcrewed ſeed. The ſpecies are theſe:

1. SALSOLA KALI grows naturally in the ſalt marſhes in divers parts of England. It is an annual plant, which riſes above five or ſix inches high, ſending out many ſide branches, which ſpread on every ſide, garniſhed with ſhort awl-ſhaped leaves: which are fleſhy, and terminate in acute ſpines. The flowers are produced from the ſide of the branches, to which they ſit cloſe, and are encompaſſed by ſhort prickly leaves; they are ſmall, and of an herbaceous colour. The ſeeds are wrapped up in the empalement of the flower, and ripen in autumn: ſoon after which the plant decays.

2. SALSOLA ROSACEA grows naturally in Tartary. This is an annual plant, whoſe ſtalks are herbaceous, and ſeldom riſe more than five or ſix inches high. The leaves are awl-ſhaped, ending in acute points; the empalements of the flowers ſpread open: the flowers are ſmall, and of a roſe colour, but ſoon fade: the ſeeds are like thoſe of the other ſorts.

3. SALSOLA SODA, riſes with herbaceous ſtalks near three feet high, ſpreading wide. The leaves on the principal ſtalk, and thoſe on the lower part of the branches, are long, ſlender, and have no ſpines; thoſe on the upper part of the ſtalk and branches are ſlender, ſhort, and crooked. At the baſe of the leaves are produced the flowers, which are ſmall, and hardly perceptible; the empalement of the flower afterwards encompaſſes the capſule, which contains one cochleated ſeed. All the ſorts of glaſs-wort are ſometimes promiſcuouſly uſed for making the SAL KALI, but this ſpecies is eſteemed beſt. The manner of making it is as follows: Having dug a trench near the ſea, they place laths acroſs it, on which they lay the

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herbs in heaps, and, having made a fire below, the liquor which runs out of the herbs, drops to the bottom, which at length thickening, becomes sal kali, which is partly of a black, and partly of an ash-colour, very sharp and corrosive, and of a saltish taste. This, when thoroughly hardened, becomes like a stone; and in that state is transported to different countries for the making of glass.

4. SALSOLA TRAGUS grows naturally on the sandy shores of the south of France, Spain, and Italy. This is also an annual plant, which sends out many diffused stalks, garnished with linear leaves an inch long, ending with sharp spines. The flowers come out from the side of the stalks in the same manner as those of the former; their empalements are blunt, and not so closely encompassed with leaves as those of the other.

5. SALSOLA VERMICULATA grows naturally in Spain. This hath shrubby perennial stalks, which rise 3 or 4 feet high, sending out many side branches, garnished with fleshy, oval, acute pointed leaves, coming out in clusters from the side of the branches; they are hoary, and have stiff prickles. The flowers are produced from between the leaves toward the ends of the branches; they are so small as scarce to be discerned, unless they are closely viewed. The seeds are like those of the other kinds.

SALSONNA, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; seated on the Lobregat; 44 miles NW. of Barcelona. Lon. 1. 38. E. Lat. 41. 56. N.

SALSTON, a town of England, in Cambridgeshire, in a valley near Gog-magog Hills.

* SALSUGINOUS. *adj.* [*salsugo*, Latin.] Saltish; somewhat salt.—The distinction of salts, whereby they are discriminated into acid, volatile, or *salsuginous*, if I may so call the fugitive salts of animal substances, and fixed or alcalizate, may appear of much use in natural philosophy. *Boyle*

(1.) * SALT. *n. s.* [*salt*, Gothick; *sealt*, Saxon; *sal*, Latin; *sel*, French.] 1. *Salt* is a body whose two essential properties seem to be, dissolubility in water, and a pungent vapor: it is an active incombustible substance: it gives all bodies consistence, and preserves them from corruption, and occasions all the variety of tastes. There are three kinds of *salts*, fixed, volatile, and essential: fixed *salt* is drawn by calcining the matter, then boiling the ashes in a good deal of water: after this the solution is filtrated, and all the moisture evaporated, when the salt remains in a dry form at the bottom: this is called a lixivious *salt*. Volatile *salt* is that drawn chiefly from the parts of animals, and some putrified parts of vegetables: it rises easily, and is the most volatile of any. The essential *salt* is drawn from the juice of plants by crystallization. *Harris.*—Is not discourse, manhood, learning, gentleness, virtue and liberality, the spice and *salt* that seasons a man? *Shak.*—

He perfidiously has given up,
For certain drops of *salt*, your city Rome,
To his wife and mother. *Shak. Coriolanus.*

—Since *salts* differ much, some being fixt, some volatile, some acid, and some urinous, the two qualities wherein they agree are, that it is easily dissoluble in water, and affects the palate with a vapour, good or evil. *Boyle.* A particle of *salt* may be compared to a chaos, being dense, hard, dry, and earthy in the centre, and rare, soft, moist in the circumference. *Newton.*—Salts in dies friable and brittle, in some degree pungent sharp or pungent to the taste, and dissolu water; but after that is evaporated, incorpora crystallizing, and forming themselves into ar figures. *Woodward.* 2. Taste: smack.—Th we are justices and doctors, and churchme Page, we have some *salt* of our youth in us are the sons of women. *Shak.* 3. Wit; merri

(2.) * SALT. *adj.* 1. Having the taste of as, *salt* fish.—

We were better parch in Africk sun,
Than in the pride and *salt* scorn of his eye
Thou old and true Menenius,
Thy tears are *salter* than a younger man's,

2. Impregnated with salt.—Hang him, mec *salt* butter rogue. *Shak.*—It hath been obser the ancients, that *salt* water will dissolve s into it in less time than fresh water. *Bac* leap into *salt* waters very often gives a str tion to the spirits. *Addison.*—In Cheshire th prove their lands by letting out the water *salt* springs on them. *Mortimer.* 3. Abo with salt.—He shall inhabit the parched pl the wilderness in a *salt* land. *Jer.* xvii. 6. *lax*, Lat.] Lecherous; salacious.—

Be a whore still:
Make use of thy *salt* hours, season the sl
For tubs and baths.
All the charms of love,
Salt Cleopatra, soften thy wan lip!
This new-married man, approaching
Whose *salt* imagination yet hath wrong
Your well-defended honour, you must

(3.) SALT is distinguished by some into *Native*, or *Rock Salt*, *Common*, or *Sea White Salt*, and *Bay Salt*.

(4.) SALT, BAY. Under the title of *Ba* ranked all kinds of common salt extracte the water wherein it is dissolved; by mean sun's heat, and the operation of the air; the water from which it is extracted be fe or natural brine drawn from wells and or salt water stagnating in ponds and l does not appear that there is any other t quisite in the formation of bay salt, than to rate the sea water with an exceedingly gen and it is even very probable, that our c sea salt by a second solution and crystal might attain the requisite degree of purity.

(5.) SALT, COMMON, or SEA SALT, or WH SALT, the name of that salt extracted from waters of the ocean, which is used in great qu tities for preserving provisions, &c. It is com sed of muriatic acid, saturated with *soda*; hence, in the new chemical nomenclature, called MURIAT OF SODA. See CHEMISTRY, dex. It is commonly found in salt water and springs, in the proportion of 36 per cent. It found also in coals, and in beds of gypsum. this most useful commodity there are ampl on land as well as in the ocean. There are countries which do not afford vast quantities rock or fossil salt. *Mines* of it have long be covered and wrought in England, Spain, Ita Germany, Hungary, Poland, and other coun

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Europe. In ſeveral parts of the world, there huge mountains which wholly conſiſt of foſſil . Of this kind are two mountains in Ruſſia, Aſtracan; ſeveral in the kingdoms of Tunis Algiers, in Africa; and ſeveral alſo in Aſia; the whole iſland of Ormus in the Perſian gulf oſt entirely conſiſts of foſſil ſalt. The new id is likewiſe ſtored with treaſures of this uſe- mineral, as well as with all other kinds of ſub- anean productions. The ſea affords ſuch vaſt ty of common ſalt, that all mankind might ice be ſupplied with quantities ſufficient for rocceſions. There are alſo innumerable ſprings, ds, lakes, and rivers, impregnated with com- ſalt, from which the inhabitants of many ntries are plentifully ſupplied therewith. In e countries which are remote from the ſea, have little commerce, and which are not bleſ- with mines of ſalt or ſalt waters, the neceſſi- of the inhabitants have forced them to invent thod of extracting their common ſalt from aſhes of vegetables. The muriatic ſalt of ve- bles was deſcribed by Dr Grew under the ti- of *lixiviated marine ſalt*. Leeuwenhoek ob- ed cubical cryſtals of this ſalt from a lixivium da or kelp, and alſo from a ſolution of the ial ſalt of carduus benedictus; of which he given figures in a letter to the Royal Society, liſhed in N° 173. of their Tranſactions. Dr ner, in *Act. Acad. N. C.* vol. v. obſ. 150. takes te of great quantities of it which he found mix- pot-aſhes. And the ingenious Dr Fothergill ſted plenty of it from the aſhes of fern: See *ical Eſſays*, vol. v. article 13. Mr Boyle diſ- red common ſalt in human blood and urine. ave obſerved it (ſays Mr Brownrigg), not on- human urine, but alſo in that of dogs, hor- and black cattle. It may eaſily be diſcovered eſe, and many other liquids impregnated with y certain very regular and beautiful ſtarry fi- which appear in their ſurfaces after conge- n. Theſe figures I firſt obſerved in the great in 1739. The dung of ſuch animals as feed grafs or grain, doth alſo contain plenty of non ſalt." Naturaliſts, obſerving the great ty of forms under which this ſalt appears, thought fit to rank the ſeveral kinds of it r certain general claſſes; diſtinguiſhing it, uſually, into rock or foſſil ſalt, ſea ſalt, brine or fountain ſalt. To which claſſes, s might be added, of thoſe muriatic ſalts h are found in animal and vegetable ſubſtan- Theſe ſeveral kind of common ſalt often from each other in their outward form and arance, or in ſuch accidental properties as derive from the heterogeneous ſubſtances which they are mixed. But when perfectly , they have all the ſame qualities; ſo that che- , by the exacteſt inquiries, have not been able ſcover any eſſential difference between them. eminent chemiſt, Dr Thomſon, thus de- s this moſt uſeful of all ſalts:—(*Syſt. of Chem.* II. p. 316.) "This ſalt has been known and mmon uſe as a ſeaſoner of food from the ear- ages. In this country the term SALT is ap- to it without any addition. The nature of id was diſcovered by Glauber, if not earlier. ſalt exiſts in great abundance native, and therefore is never formed artificially by chemiſts. Immenſe maſſes of it are found in different coun- tries, which require only to be dug out and re- duced to powder. In this ſtate it is called ROCK SALT. The water of the ocean alſo contains a great proportion of this ſalt, to which indeed it owes its taſte, and the power it poſſeſſes of re- ſiſting freezing till cooled down to zero. When this water is evaporated ſufficiently, the ſalt pre- cipitates in cryſtals. It is by this proceſs, that it is obtained in this country. But the ſalt of com- merce is not ſufficiently pure for the purpoſes of chemiſtry, as it contains uſually muriat of lime, &c.; but it may be obtained pure by the follow- ing proceſs: Diſſolve it in 4 times its weight of pure water, and filter the ſolution. Drop into it a ſolution of carbonat of ſoda, as long as any pre- cipitate continues to fall. Separate the precipi- tate by filtration, and evaporate ſlowly till the ſalt cryſtallizes. Muriat of ſoda uſually cryſtal- lizes in cubes, which, according to Hauy, is the primitive form of its cryſtals and its integrant particles. Sometimes the angles of the cubes are truncated, and in urine the cryſtals of common ſalt, as Fourcroy and Vauquelin have aſcertained, aſſume the form of octahedrons. Its taſte is uni- verſally known, and is what is ſtrictly ſpeaking denominated *ſalt*. Its ſpecific gravity is 2·120. It is ſoluble in $2\frac{1}{4}$ times its weight of water, at the temperature of 60°, and in $2\frac{1}{2}$ its weight of boiling water. It is not affected by expoſure to the air. The muriat of ſoda of commerce indeed contains, beſides other impurities, a quantity of muriat of lime, which renders it deliqueſcent. When heated it decrepitates. In a red heat it melts and evaporates in a white ſmoke without undergoing decompoſition. According to Berg- man, it is compoſed of 52 parts acid, 42 ſoda, and 6 water. According to the lateſt experiments of Kirwan, when dried in the temperature of 80°, its component parts are 38·88 acid, 53 ſoda, 8.12 water. According to Fourcroy, it is decom- poſed by the following ſalts: 1. Sulphats of am- monia, glucina, alumina. 2. Sulphite of potaſs. 3. Nitrats of ſtrontian, lime, ammonia, magneſia, glucina, alumina, zirconia. 4. Phoſphat of pot- aſs. 5. Fluats of barytes and potaſs. 6. Borat of ammonia. 7. Carbonats of barytes, ſtrontian, potaſs. 8. Red oxides of iron and lead. The u- ſes, to which this ſalt is ſubſervient, are exceed- ingly numerous. It is the moſt common and moſt uſeful ſeaſoner of food: it preſerves meat from putrefaction, and butter from rancidity: it ſerves for an enamel to the ſurfaces of coarſe ſtone ware; it is an ingredient in many proceſſes of dyeing: metallurgiſts uſe it in many of their eſſays. Its u- tility in chemiſtry is equally extenſive. From it alone are muriatic and oxy-muriatic acids obtain- ed; and from it alſo of late great quantities of SODA have been extracted, and introduced with advantage as a ſubſtitute for the ſoda formerly obtained from the combuſtion of vegetables. The ACID is eaſily extracted from this ſalt by means of ſulphuric acid: but to obtain the alkali at a cheap rate is not ſo eaſy. The methods which have hitherto ſucceeded may be reduced to two, 1. Muriat of ſoda may be decompoſed by ſome ſubſtance, which has a ſtronger affinity for muria-

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tic acid than foda has. The foda by this procefs is fet at liberty, and may be obtained by evaporation and cryftallization. There are 3 fubftances capable of letting the bafe of common falt at liberty, and of fubftituting foda, either pure or in the ftate of carbonat. Thefe are LITHARGE, LIME, and IRON. When about 4 parts of *litharge* and one of common falt, properly pounded and mixed, are macerated in a little water for feveral hours and ftirred repeatedly, the muriatic acid gradually combines with the oxide of lead, and forms a muriat, while the foda is left in folution, and may be obtained feparately by filtration and evaporation. The decompofition goes on ftill more rapidly, if the mixture be heated during the procefs. The fact, that red oxide of lead decompofes muriat of foda, which was firft obferved by Scheele, has given occafion to much fpeculation among chemifts. Hafenfratz endeavoured to account for it, but concluded that it cannot be accounted for by the laws of affinity. Vauquelin proved, that the decompofition by litharge is complete, provided the quantity of that oxide be greater than that of common falt; that the refulting compound is a fubmuriat of lead, totally infoluble in water, and not decompofed by alkalies. But this does not account completely for the decomposition, if oxide of lead has a greater affinity for muriatic acid than foda has. Berthollet has at laft explained this apparent anomaly, by proving, that when two fubftances are mixed with a third, for which each has an affinity, they divide it between them in proportions corresponding to the quantity of each: And if the compound formed by one of thefe fubftances with the 3d be infoluble, that fubftance combines with the whole of the 3d body, and takes it completely from the other; becaufe the infoluble compound being in fact totally abftracted from the mixture, the decompofition and partition commences again as at firft after every partition.—That the alkali may be extracted from common falt by *lime* is a fact for which we are alfo indebted to Scheele. Cahauffen indeed had hinted at it in 1717, but his treatife had been forgotten. Scheele afcertained, that a mixture of lime and common falt, formed into a pafte, and placed in a moift cellar, was covered with an efflorefcence of foda, in 15 days. Berthollet has rendered it probable, that the foda, which is found abundantly in the weft of Egypt, is formed naturally by a fimilar procefs. To Scheele likewife we owe the difcovery, that common fait may be decompofed by *iron*. He obferved that a wooden veffel, placed in a cellar, and containing brine, had its iron hoops covered with an efflorefcence of foda. This induced him to dip a plate of iron into a folution of common falt, and to fufpend it in a cellar. After an interval of 14 days, he found his iron incrufted with foda. The fame decompofition takes place alfo if zinc or copper be fubftituted for iron. 2. The 2d method of extracting foda from common falt is lefs direct. It confifts in displacing the muriatic by fome other acid, which may be afterwards eafily decompofed or difpofed: thus the foda is left behind at laft, in a ftate of purity. The acids which have been made choice of are the *fulphuric* and *acetous*; the boracic, phofphoric and arfenic acids might indeed be employed, as they decompofe common falt in a high temperature. The product in each cafe would be borat, or the phofphat or arfenat of the fame bafe, according to the acid. Thefe falts might be afterwards decompofed by lime, and the foda obtained feparate. But thefe acids are a great deal too high priced to a ftart of this employment. Sulphuric acid may be either employed in a feparate ftate or in combination with bafes, when the falts which it then forms can be procured at a fufficiently cheap rate. Alum, the phat of lime, and fulphat of iron, have been refpectively employed with advantage to decompofe common fait, and obtain fulphat of foda. Alum was firft employed for that purpofe by Conftantine a phyfician of Melle near Ofnaburg, about 1750. The procefs does not fucceed but at a low temperature. *Sulphat of lime* decompofes common fait, when formed with it into balls, and expofed to a ftrong heat. Much difcuffion has taken place among the German chemifts about the poffibility of decompofing common fait by *fulphat of iron*. That fulphat of foda may be obtained by expofing a mixture of thefe two falts to a ftrong heat, was firft announced by Vander Bailen. This was contradicted by Halleman, but confirmed by the experiments of Tuhten, Liebrein, and Wiegleb. It fucceeded completely with the French commiffioners, Le Lievre, Pelletier, Darcet, and Carroud, who were appointed, in 1794, to examine the different procefles for obtaining foda from common falt. They afcertained alfo, that pure or fulphurated oxide of iron may be employed for the fame purpofe. After obtaining the mixture of foda, it is neceffary to expel the acid, to obtain the foda feparately. This is done by calcining the falt mixed with a certain proportion of charcoal or pit-coal. By this procefs it is converted into fulphuret of foda, and the fulphur may be abftracted by the intervention of iron or zinc. When the fulphuret of foda is nearly in fufion, fmall bits of iron (the parings of tin-plate are beft,) are thrown in gradually in fufficient quantity to decompofe the fulphat. The fire is raifed as the mixture melts. The iron, having a greater affinity for the fulphur, combines with it and leaves the foda, which may be feparated by folution in water, filtration and evaporation. Carbonat of lime may be employed alfo for the fame purpofe. Some chemifts have propofed to decompofe common falt by means of *acetite of lead*. The acetite of foda formed by mixing common fait with this acetite is afterwards caufed to decompofe and expel the acetous acid. But thefe falts are too high priced to be employed with advantage to extract foda from common fait." Vol. II. p. 316—324.

(6.) SALT, COMMON, DUTY ON, is a capital branch of his majefty's extraordinary revenue, and conſiſts in an exciſe of 3s. 4d. per buſhel impoſed upon all ſalt, by ſeveral ſtatutes of King William's and other ſubſequent reigns. This is not generally called an excife, becaufe under the management of different commiſſioners: but the commiſſioners of the ſalt duties have, by ſtatute 1. Anne, c. 21. the ſame powers, and muſt obſerve the ſame regulations, as thoſe of other excifes. This tax had uſually been only temporary: but

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ſtatute 26 Geo. II. c. 3. was made perpetual. ddditional tax of 5s. per buſhel was impoſed his uſeful commodity, in March 1805.

.) SALT, COMMON, METHOD OF PREPAR-

Without entering into any particular de- of the proceſſes uſed for the preparation of ſalt in different parts of the world, we ſhall give a brief account of the beſt methods of aring common ſalt. At ſome convenient place the ſea-ſhore is erected the ſaltern. This is g, low building, conſiſting of two parts; one hich is called the *fore-houſe*, and the other *pan-houſe* or *boiling-houſe*. The fore-houſe s to receive the fuel, and cover the work- ; and in the boiling-houſe are placed the fur- and pan, in which the ſalt is made. Some- s they have two pans, one at each end of the n; and the part appropriated for the fuel workmen is in the middle. The furnace o- into the fore-houſe by two mouths, beneath of which is a mouth to the aſh-pits. To nouths of the furnace doors are fitted; and them a wall is carried up to the roof, which es the fore-houſe from the boiling-houſe, and uts the duſt of the coal and the aſhes, and e of the furnace from falling into the ſalt pan. fore-houſe communicates with the boiling- s by a door, placed in the wall which divides . The body of the furnace conſiſts of two ibers, divided from each other by a brick tion called the *mid-feather*; which from a l baſe terminates in a narrow edge nigh the of the furnace; and by means of ſhort pillars ft iron erected upon it, ſupports the bottom e ſalt pan; it alſo fills up a conſiderable part ie furnace, which otherwiſe would be too , and would conſume more coals than, by elp of this contrivance, are required. To chamber of the furnace is fitted a grate, igh which the aſhes fall into the aſh-pits. grates are made of long bars of iron, ſup- d underneath by ſtrong croſs bars of the metal. They are not continued to the fartheſt of the furnace, it being unneceſſary to throw fuel ſo far: for the flame is driven from the n the grate to the fartheſt part of the fur- ; and from thence paſſes together with the e, through two flues into the chimney; and the bottom of the ſalt pan is everywhere e- heated. The ſalt pans are made of an ob- form, flat at the bottom, with the ſides e- l at right angles; the length of ſome of theſe is 15 feet, in breadth 12 feet, and the depth hes; but at different works they are of dif- dimenſions. They are commonly made of of iron, joined together with nails, and the are filled with a ſtrong cement. Within n 5 or 6 ſtrong beams of iron are fixed to poſite ſides, at equal diſtances, parallel to ther and to the bottom of the pan, from they are diſtant about 8 inches. From beams hang down ſtrong iron hooks, which ked to other hooks or claſps of iron firmly to the bottom of the pan; and thus the bot- of the pan is ſupported, and prevented from ng down or changing its figure. The plates commonly uſed are of malleable iron, about t long, a foot broad, and the third of an inch in thickneſs. The Scots prefer ſmaller plates 14 or 15 inches ſquare. Several make the ſides of the pan, where they are not expoſed to the fire, of lead; thoſe parts, when made of iron, being found to conſume faſt in ruſt from the ſteam of the pan. Some have uſed plates of caſt iron, 5 or 6 feet ſquare, and an inch in thickneſs; but they are very ſubject to break when unequally heated, and ſhaken (as they frequently are) by the violent boiling of the liquor. The cement moſt commonly uſed to fill the joints is plaſter made of lime. The pan, thus formed, is placed over the furnace, being ſupported at the four corners by brick work; but along the middle, and at the ſides and ends, by round pillars of caſt iron called *taplins*, which are placed at three feet diſtance from each other, being about eight inches high, and at the top, where ſmalleſt, four inches in diameter. By means of theſe pillars the heat of the fire penetrates equally to all parts of the bottom of the pan, its four corners only excepted. Care is alſo taken to prevent the ſmoke of the furnace from paſſing into the boiling-houſe, by bricks and ſtrong cement, which are cloſely applied to every ſide of the ſalt pan. In ſome places, as at Blyth in Northumberland, beſides the common ſalt pans here deſcribed, they have a preparing-pan placed between two ſalt pans, in the middle part of the building, which in other works is the fore-houſe. The ſea-water being received into this preparing-pan, is there heated and in part evaporated by the flame and heat conveyed under it through flues from the two furnaces of the ſalt pans. And the hot water, as occaſion requires, is conveyed through troughs from the preparing-pan into the ſalt pans. Various other contrivances have been invented to leſſen the expence of fuel, and ſeveral patents have been obtained for that purpoſe; but the ſalt-boilers have found their old methods the moſt convenient. Between the ſides of the pan and walls of the boiling-houſe, there runs a walk five or ſix feet broad, where the workmen ſtand when they draw the ſalt, or have any other buſineſs in the boiling-houſe. The ſame walk is continued at the end of the pan, next to the chimney; but the pan is placed cloſe to the wall at the end adjoining to the fore-houſe. The roof of the boiling-houſe is covered with boards faſtened on with nails of wood, iron nails quickly mouldering into ruſt. In the roof are ſeveral openings, to convey off the watery vapours; and on each ſide of it a window or two, which the workmen open when they look into the pan whilſt it is boiling. Not far diſtant from the ſaltern, on the ſea-ſhore, between full ſea and low-water marks, they alſo make a little pond in the rocks, or with ſtones on the ſand, which they call their *jump*. From this pond they lay a pipe, through which, when the tide is in, the ſea-water runs into a well adjoining to the ſaltern; and from this well they pump it into the troughs, by which it is conveyed into their ſhip or ciſtern, where it is ſtored up until they have occaſion to uſe it. The ciſtern is built cloſe to the ſaltern, and may be placed moſt conveniently between the two boiling-houſes, on the back ſide of the fore-houſe; it is made either of wood, or brick and clay: it ſometimes wants a cover but

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ought to be covered with a ſhed, that the ſalt-water contained therein may not be weakened by rains, nor mixed with ſoot and other impurities. It ſhould be placed ſo high, that the water may conveniently run out of it, through a trough, into the ſalt pans. Beſides the buildings already mentioned, ſeveral others are required; as ſtore houſes for the ſalt ciſterns for the bittern, an office for his majeſty's ſalt officers, and a dwelling-houſe for the ſalt boilers. All things being thus prepared, and the ſea-water having ſtood in the ciſtern till the mud and ſand are ſettled to the bottom, it is drawn off into the ſalt-pan. And at the four corners of the ſalt pan, where the flame does not touch its bottom, are placed four ſmall lead pans called *ſcratch pans*, which for a ſalt-pan of the ſize above-mentioned, are uſually about a foot and an half long, a foot broad, and three inches deep; and have a bow or circular handle of iron, by which they may be drawn out with a hook, when the liquor in the pan is boiling. The ſalt-pan being filled with ſea-water, a ſtrong fire of pit-coal is lighted in the furnace; and then, for a pan which contains about 400 gallons, the ſalt boiler takes the whites of three eggs, and incorporates them well with two or three gallons of ſea water, which he pours into the ſalt pan while the water contained therein is only lukewarm; and immediately ſtirs it about with a rake, that the whites of eggs may every where be equally mixed with the ſalt water. Inſtead of whites of eggs, at many ſalterns, as at moſt of thoſe nigh Newcaſtle, they uſe blood from the butchers, either of ſheep or black cattle, to clarify the ſea-water: And at many others they do not give themſelves the trouble of clarifying it. As the water grows hot, the whites of eggs ſeparate from it a black frothy ſcum, which ariſes to the ſurface of the water, and covers it all over. As ſoon as the pan begins to boil, this ſcum is all riſen, and it is then time to ſkim it off. The moſt convenient inſtruments for this purpoſe are ſkimmers of thin ash boards, 6 or 8 inches broad, and ſo long that they may reach above half way over the ſalt-pan. Theſe ſkimmers have handles fitted to them; and the ſalt-boiler and his aſſiſtant, each holding one of them on the oppoſite ſides of the pan, apply them ſo to each other that they overlap in the middle, and beginning at one end of the pan, carry them gently forward together, along the ſurface of the boiling liquor, to the other end; and thus, without breaking the ſcum, collect it all to one end of the pan, from whence they eaſily take it out. After the water is ſkimmed, it appears perfectly clear and tranſparent; and they continue boiling it briſkly, till ſo much of the freſh or aqueous part is evaporated, that what remains in the pan is a ſtrong brine almoſt fully ſaturated with ſalt, ſo that ſmall ſaline cryſtals begin to form on its ſurface; which operation, in a pan filled 15 inches deep with water, is uſually performed in five hours. The pan is then filled up a 2d time with clear ſea-water drawn from the ciſtern; and about the time when it is half filled, the ſcratch-pans are taken out and being emptied of the ſcratch found in them, are again placed in the corners of the ſalt-pan. The ſcratch taken out of theſe pans is a fine white calcareous earth found in the form of powder, which ſeparating from the ſea-water during its coction, before the ſalt begins to form in grains. This ſubtile powder is violently agitated by the boiling liquor, until it is driven to the corners of the pan, where the motion of the liquor being more gentle, the ſubtile into the ſcratch pans placed there to receive it, and in them it remains undiſturbed, and thus the greateſt part of it is ſeparated from the brine. After the pan hath again been filled with ſea water, three whites of eggs are mixed with the liquor, by which it is clarified a ſecond time, in the manner above deſcribed; and it is afterwards boiled down to a ſtrong brine as before, which 2d boiling may take up about four hours. The pan is then filled up a 3d time with clear water; and after that, a 4th time; the liquor being each time clarified and boiled down to a ſtrong brine, as before related; and the ſcratch pans being taken out and emptied every time that the pan is filled up. Then, at the 4th boiling, as ſoon as the cryſtals begin to form on the ſurface of the brine, they ſlacken the fire, and only ſuffer the brine to ſimmer, or boil very gently. In this they conſtantly endeavour to keep it all the time that the ſalt corns or granulates, which may be or ten hours. The ſalt is ſaid to *granulate*, when its minute cryſtals cohere together into ſmall maſſes or grains, which ſink down in the brine and lie at the bottom of the ſalt pan. When moſt of the liquor is evaporated, and the ſalt lies in the pan almoſt dry on its ſurface, it is then time to draw it out. This part of the process is performed by raking the ſalt to one ſide of the pan into a long heap, where it drains a little from the brine, and is then filled out into baſkets or other proper veſſels, and carried into the ſtore houſe, and delivered into the cuſtody of his majeſty's officers. And in this manner the whole proceſs is performed in 24 hours; the ſalt being uſually drawn every morning. In the ſtore-houſe the ſalt is put hot into drabs, which are partitions like ſtalls for horſes, lined on three ſides and at the bottom with boards, and having a ſliding board on the fore-ſide to put in or draw out as occaſion requires. The bottoms are made ſloping, being higheſt at the back-ſide, and gradually inclining forwards; by which means the bitter liquor, which remains mixed with the ſalt, eaſily drains from it; and the ſalt, in three or four days becomes ſufficiently dry; and is then taken out of the drabs, and laid up in large heaps where it is ready for ſale. The ſaline liquor which drains from the ſalt is not a pure brine of common ſalt, but hath a ſharp and bitter taſte, and is therefore called *bittern*; this liquor, at ſome works, is ſaved for particular uſes; at others thrown away. A conſiderable quantity of this bittern is left at the bottom of the pan after the proceſs is finiſhed; which, as it contains much ſalt, they uſe to remain in the pan, when it is filled up with ſea-water. But at each proceſs this liquor becomes more ſharp and bitter, and alſo increaſes in quantity: ſo that, after the third or fourth proceſs is finiſhed, they are obliged to take it out of the pan: otherwiſe it mixes in ſuch quantities with the ſalt, as to give it a bitter taſte, and diſpoſes it to grow ſoft and run in the open air, and render

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ers it unfit for domeſtic uſes. After each ſs there alſo adheres to the bottom and ſides e pan a white ſtony cruſt, of the ſame calca- ſubſtance with that before collected from oiling liquor. This the operators call *ſtone-*, diſtinguiſhing the other found in the lead- by the name of *powder-ſcratch*. Once in 8 or ys they ſeparate the ſtone-ſcratch from their with iron picks, and in ſeveral places find it ıter of an inch in thickneſs. If this ſtony ſuffered to adhere to the pan much long- grows ſo thick that the pan is burnt by the ı quickly wears away.

) SALT, FEBRIFUGE. See CHEMISTRY, *Vo-* I.

) SALT, GLAUBER'S. See CHEMISTRY, *In-* nd *Vocab.* I.

) SALT, MARINE. See § 5—7; and CHE- Y, *Vocab.* I.

) SALT MINES. See § 5, and 12. The MINES OF VIELICZA, near Cracow in Po- are very extraordinary caverns. Mr Wrax- ſcribes them thus, in his *Memoirs of the of Berlin, Dreſden, Warſaw*, and *Vienna*: r being l t down (ſays he) by a rope to the of 230 feet, our conductors led us through s, which, for loftineſs and breadth, ſeemed to reſemble the avenues to ſome ſubter- palace, than paſſages cut in a mine. They erfectly dry in every part, and terminated chapels compoſed entirely of ſalt, hewn the ſolid maſs. The images which adorn rs, as well as the pillars and ornaments, ll of the ſame tranſparent materials; the and ſpars of which, reflecting the rays of om the lamps which the guides held in their produced an effect equally novel and beau- Deſcending lower into the earth by means ers, I found myſelf in an immenſe hall or ſalt, many hundred feet in height, length, enſions, the floor and ſides of which were h exact regularity: 1000 perſons might it without inconvenience, and the eye in empted to trace or define its limits. No- uld be more ſublime than this vaſt ſubter- apartment, illuminated by flambeaux, irſt diſcover its prodigious magnitude, e the imagination at liberty to enlarge it ely. After remaining about 2½ hours un- nd, I was drawn up again in three mi- th the greateſt facility."

SALT, NATIVE, or ROCK SALT, or *Foſſile* om rock ſalt dug out of the earth. This lt is in ſeveral countries found ſo pure, rves for moſt domeſtic uſes, without any preparation; (triture excepted;) for of all lts rock-ſalt is the moſt abundantly fur- nature in various parts of the world, be- d in large maſſes, occupying great tracts It is generally formed in ſtrata under the r the earth, as in Hungary, Muſcovy, Poland, Calabria, Egypt, Ethiopia, and Indies. "In England (ſays Magellan), ines at Northwich are in a high ground, ſi t in layers or ſtrata of various colours, the yellow and brown are the moſt plen- I have obſerved on the ſpot, which I June 178- ompany with my worthy and learned friend, Mr Volta, profeſſor of Natural Philoſophy in the Univerſity of Pavia, and well known by his great abilities and many diſcoveries in that branch of knowledge. The mine into which we deſcended was excavated in the form of a vaſt dome or vault under ground, ſupported by various columns of the ſalt, that were purpoſely left to ſupport the incumbent weight. And the workmen having lighted a number of candles all round its circumference, it furniſhed us with the moſt agreeable and ſurpriſing ſight, whilſt we were deſcending in the large tub, which ſerves to bring up the lumps that are broken from the mine, &c. See the deſcription of the famous ſalt mines of Wieliczka in Poland, by Mr Bernard, in the *Journal de Phyſique*, vol. 16. for 1780, p. 459, in which the miraculous tales concerning thoſe ſubterraneous habitations, villages, and towns, are reduced to their proper magnitude and eſtimate." But the Engliſh foſſil ſalt is unfit for the uſes of the kitchen, until by ſolution and coction it is freed from ſeveral impurities, and reduced into white ſalt. The Britiſh white ſalt alſo is not ſo proper as ſeveral kinds of bay ſalt for curing fiſh and ſuch fleſh meats as are intended for ſea proviſions, or for exportation into hot countries. So that for theſe purpoſes we are obliged, either wholly or in part, to uſe bay ſalt, which we purchaſe in France, Spain, and other foreign countries. See § 11.

(13.) SALT OF EPSOM. } See CHEMISTRY,
(14.) SALT OF JUPITER. } *Vocabulary*, I.
(15.) SALT OF SATURN. See SACCHARUM, N° 2.
(16.) SALT OF SEIGNETTE, } and various other
(17.) SALT OF SORREL, } ſalts under their
(18.) SALT OF SYLVIUS, } old names. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*; and *Vocab.* I. and II.

(19.) SALT, ROCK. See § 5, and 12.

(20.) SALTS, in chemiſtry. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*. "The word SALT," (ſays the ingenious Dr Thomſon, in his *Syſtem of Chemiſtry*, Vol. II. p. 250.) "was originally confined to *Muriat of Soda*, or common ſalt; a ſubſtance which has been known, and in common uſe, from the remoteſt ages. It was afterwards generalized by chemiſts, and employed by them in a very extenſive and not very definite ſenſe. Every body which is ſapid, eaſily melted, ſoluble in water, and not combuſtible, has been called a *ſalt*. Salts were conſidered by the older chemiſts as a claſs of bodies intermediate between earths and water. Many diſputes aroſe about what bodies ought to be comprehended under this claſs, and what ought to be excluded from it. Acids and alkalies were allowed by all to be ſalts; but the difficulty was to determine concerning earths and metals; for ſeveral of the earths poſſeſs all the properties, which have been aſcribed to ſalts, and the metals are capable of entering into combinations, which poſſeſs ſaline properties. In proceſs of time, however, the term *ſalt* was reſtricted to 3 claſſes of bodies, namely ACIDS, ALKALIES, and the *compounds*, which acids form with alkalies, earths and metallic oxides. The firſt two of theſe claſſes were called *ſimple ſalts*; the ſalts belonging to the 3d claſs were called *compound* or *neutral*. This laſt appellation originated from an opinion long entertained by chemiſts, that acids and alkalies, of which they were compoſed, were of a contrary nature, and that they

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counteracted one another; so that the resulting compounds possessed *neither* the properties of acids nor of alkalies, but properties intermediate between the two. The Chemists have lately restricted the term *salt* still more, by tacitly excluding acids and alkalies from the class of salts altogether. At present, then, it denotes *only* the compounds formed by the combination of acids with alkalies, earths, and metallic oxides. No part of chemistry has been cultivated with more zeal, than the salts, especially for these last 40 years. During that time the number of saline bodies has been enormously increased, and the properties of a very great number have been determined with precision. Still this wide and important region is very far from being completely explored."

(21.) SALTS, NAMES, NUMBER, AND ARRANGEMENT OF. "Chemists" (continues Dr Thomson,) "have agreed to denominate the salts from the acids which they contain: the earth, alkali, and metallic oxide, combined with that acid, is called the *base* of the salt. Thus common salt, being a compound of muriatic acid and soda, is called a *muriat*; and soda is called the *base* of common salt. Now since there are 32 acids and 55 bases, it would appear, at first sight, that there are 1760 salts; but of the 42 metallic oxides at present known, there is a considerable number, which cannot combine with many of the acids. This is the case also with silex, and perhaps with some of the other earths. We must therefore subtract all these from the full number 1760. However, to compensate this deficiency, at least in part, there are several acids capable of combining with 2 bases at once. Thus the tartarous acid combines at once with potash and soda. Such combinations are called TRIPLE SALTS, and they increase the number of salts considerably. There are some salts, too, which are capable of combining with an additional dose of their base. The French chemists denote the first of these combinations by adding to the usual name of the salt the phrase *with excess of acid*, or by prefixing to it the word *acidulated*: they denote the 2d by subjoining the phrase *with excess of base*. This method of naming has the merit indeed of being precise; but it is exceedingly awkward and intolerably tedious. The ingenious mode of naming these combinations proposed by Dr Pearson ought certainly to be preferred. It is equally precise, if not more so, and far more convenient in every respect. It consists in prefixing to the usual name of the salt the preposition *super*, to denote an excess of acid, and the preposition *sub* to denote an excess of base. Thus SULPHAT OF POTASS denotes the salt in its state of perfect saturation, without any excess either of the sulphuric acid, or of the potash: SUPERSULPHAT OF POTASS is the same salt with an excess of acid; SUBSULPHAT OF POTASS is the same salt with an excess of base. These 3 different kinds must increase the number of triple compounds very considerably; but the precise number of salts is not known, as many of them remain still unexamined by chemists. Probably they are much more than 2000. Some idea may be formed of the progress which this branch of chemistry has made, by recollecting, that 40 years ago not more than 30 salts in all were known. Of these 2000, however, a considerable number must be considered as still unknown, as they have been merely formed without being examined. Of those which are known, the greater number have not been applied to any use, and therefore do not deserve a very particular description. As the different genera of salts are denominated from their acids, it is evident that there must be as many genera as there are acids. The terminations of the names of these genera differ according to the nature of the acids which constitute them. When the acid contains a maximum of oxygen, the termination of the genus is *at*; when it does not contain a maximum of oxygen, the termination of the genus is *ite*. Thus the salts which contain SULPHURIC ACID are called SULPHATS; those which contain SULPHUROUS ACID are called SULPHITES. This distinction is of some consequence, because the salts differ very much, according as the acid is saturated with oxygen or not. The *ates* are seldom permanent: when exposed to the air, they usually attract oxygen, and are converted into *ites*. This distinction, however, applies only to the salts which contain acids composed of a single base: it does not apply at all to the salts composed of the vegetable and animal acids. The terminations of these acids in *ic* and *ous* are entirely arbitrary, and so are the terminations of the salts formed by them. The only rule observed is, that when the acid terminates in *ic*, the genus of salts formed from it terminates in *at*; when the acid ends in *ous*, the genus of salts ends in *ite*. Every particular species of salt is distinguished by annexing to the generic term the name of its base. Thus the salt composed of *sulphuric acid* and *fossil alkali* is called SULPHAT OF SODA. *Triple salts* are distinguished by subjoining the names of both the bases. Thus the compound of tartarous acid, potash, and soda, is called TARTRITE OF POTASS AND SODA. Before the correction of the chemical nomenclature by Morveau, in 1781, chemists usually referred the genera of salts to the bases, and distinguished the species by the acids. That celebrated philosopher entirely reversed that method, by introducing the new generic terms formed from the acids. And his ingenious nomenclature, having been sanctioned and improved, in 1787, by Lavoisier, Berthollet and Fourcroy, who joined with them in forming a new chemical nomenclature, has become universally prevalent. As the method to the salts which have alkaline and earthy bases, this method, introduced by Morveau, is perfectly proper; for in them the acids invariably stamp the character of the salt, and therefore ought to constitute the generic distinction. But it does not apply equally well to the salts whose bases are metallic oxides; for in them it is not the acid, but the base which stamps the character: in them therefore the genera ought to be distinguished, they ought to be derived from the bases, that is, from the metals whose oxides constitute the bases. The SALTS then naturally divide themselves into two grand classes; the first of which contains the ALKALINE and EARTHY SALTS, which have their most important character from their acids: the second comprehends the METALLIC SALTS, whose bases on the contrary stamp their most important properties."

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I. SALTS, ALKALINE AND EARTHY. Under s head Dr Thomſon deſcribes 30 genera of ts: viz. 1. SULPHATS; 2. SULPHITES; 3. rats; 4. Nitrites; 5. Muriats; 6. OXY-MURI-; 7. PHOSPHATS; 8. PHOSPHITES; 9. Fluats; Borats; 11. Carbonats; 12. Arſeniats; 13. Arſe-s; 14. Molybdats; 15. Tungſtats; 16. Chro-s; 17. Acetites; 18. OXALATS; 19. Tartrites; Citrats; 21. Mucites, or SACCHOLATS; 22. lats; 23. Lactats; 24. Gallats; 25. Benzoats; Succinats; 27. Camphorats; 28. Suberats; PRUSSIATS; 30. Sebats. Moſt of theſe ſalts be already taken notice of, either under CHE-TRY, or PHARMACY, or under their proper ar-s, we need add nothing farther here upon them.

II. SALTS, METALLINE, or METALLIC. "The on of the acids on metallic bodies," ſays Dr mſon, (*Syſt. of Chem.* vol. II. p. 447.) "and ſaline compounds formed by their combina-with them, were ſome of the firſt objects to ch the earlieſt chemiſts directed their atten-. The facility with which ſeveral of theſe pounds change their ſtate; the activity and ofive nature of many of them, owing in a it meaſure to that facility; the permanency thers, and the apparent converſion of one allic ſalt into another, were ſo many anoma-which remained long inexplicable: But they e of too intereſting a nature not to excite at-on; and to the ſucceſſive reſearches of che-t into the properties of metallic ſalts muſt be ted a great part of the progreſs which che-try has made. Many apparent anomalies have n happily explained by Bergman, Scheele, en, Lavoiſier, Prouſt, &c. but there ſtill re-n a ſufficient number of difficulties in this of the ſcience to exerciſe the ſagacity of the t acute philoſophers, and diſcoveries to be le in it which will fully compenſate the moſt rious inveſtigation. As there are 21 metallic s from which theſe bodies deriv- their cha-riſtic properties, this claſs of Salts may be ded into 21 genera. Since there are 32 acids h which each baſe has to combine, it would n at firſt ſight, that the number of ſpecies be-ging to each genus ought to amount to 32, ch would make the metallic ſalts amount in n 672. But it is not the metals which com-t with acids, it is their oxides, or the com-nds which they form with oxygen: the me-themſelves, as far as is known at preſent, are capable of combining with any acid. Now, moſt metals form more than one oxide, and as n of the oxides of a metal is often capable of bining with acids, it is evident that the num-of metallic ſalts muſt greatly exceed 672. as iron being capable of forming two oxides, ſpecies of ſalts of iron, inſtead of 32, muſt a-unt to 64, provided each of theſe oxides be able of combining with all acids, the contrary which has not been proved.—It is only of late chemiſts began to attend to the different s, which the ſame metallic baſe combined with rent portions of oxygen is capable of form-with the ſame acid. Bergman, indeed, and eele, had given ſome ſtriking inſtances; but uſt has ſince carried the ſubject much farther. It is to the *newneſs* of this branch of the ſcience, that we muſt aſcribe the want of a nomenclature for the metallic Salts. The French chemiſts ſeem to have been nearly ſtrangers to it, when they formed their chemical nomenclature in 1787. And even at preſent the ſubject is too imperfectly known to admit of a regular treatiſe; but I ſhall give a full view of all the facts which have been diſcovered. I do not recollect an inſtance of more than 2 metallic ſalts with one acid and baſe, differing merely in the proportion of oxygen, if we except the Pruſſiats." (See PRUSSIAT, § 2, 4, 7—16.) "It will be ſufficient then, for the preſent, to generalize a mode of naming metallic ſalts, which has been adopted in one claſs,—the metallic muriats. In theſe ſalts the compound, conſiſting of muriatic acid and a metal with a minimum of oxygen, is called a MURIAT; the compound of the acid and the ſame metal, with a maximum of oxygen, is called an *oxy-muriat*." (See OXY-MURIAT, § 1—5.) "This mode of naming will apply very well to all thoſe genera in which the metal is only capable of forming two oxides; and likewiſe to all thoſe whoſe oxides are only capable of forming two ſalts with the ſame acid. Thus we may call the compound of ſuiphuric acid and black oxide of iron, *ſulphat of iron*, and the compound of the ſame acid and red oxide of iron, *oxy-ſulphat*, or *oxygenated ſulphat of iron*. We have then 21 genera of metallic ſalts, 32 ſpecies belonging to each, and many of theſe ſpecies containing ſeveral varieties. We have likewiſe a very conſiderable number of TRIPLE SALTS, conſiſting of combinations of earthy or alkaline with metallic ſalts. All theſe muſt ſwell the number of metallic ſalts to a very conſiderable amount."—But we ſhould ſwell this article beyond all proportion, were we to follow our learned author through his whole hiſtory of metallic ſalts. We ſhall therefore only mention here, that he gives a very full and ſatisfactory account of the 21 genera of metallic ſalts, from thoſe of *Gold* to thoſe of *Chromum*; for the particulars of which we ſhall refer the chemical reader to his work. Only by way of ſpecimen of this new and intereſting ſpecies of ſalts, we ſhall quote his account of the two firſt genera:

i. "SALTS OF GOLD. Though Gold" (ſays the Dr) "was tortured with the moſt perſevering indnitry by the alchymiſts and metallurgiſts, and has been an intereſting object of examination to chemiſts in every period of the ſcience, there is no genus of ſalts with which we are ſo little acquainted, as thoſe which have for their baſis the oxides of that metal. This is not owing to the expence neceſſarily attending ſuch inveſtigations, but to the peculiar properties of gold itſelf. As that metal is not acted on by any of the acids except the nitric, oxy-muriatic, and nitro-muriatic, none of the ſalts of gold can be formed directly, except the Nitrat and Muriat: all the reſt muſt be compoſed by precipitating the oxide of gold from its ſolution in nitro-muriatic acid, and afterwards diſſolving it in the other acids. There are two oxides of gold known, the purple and the yellow; but as far as is known, the firſt of theſe does not combine with acids at all. Conſequent-

ly all the falts of gold are, ſtrictly ſpeaking, *oxygenated*; i. e. compoſed of gold, combined with a maximum of oxygen. We are only acquainted with 2 ſpecies of theſe ſalts, namely, the *muriat* and the *nitrat*. The ſalts of gold may be aſcertained by the following properties: 1. They are ſoluble in water, and the ſolution has a yellow colour. 2. Triple Pruſſiat of Potaſs occaſions a white or yellowiſh-white precipitate, when poured into theſe ſolutions. 3. Gallic acid, or the infuſion of nut-galls gives theſe ſolutions a green colour, and a brown powder is precipitated, which is gold reduced. 4. A plate of tin occaſions the precipitation of a purple-coloured powder. *Sp.* 1. MURIAT OF GOLD. This ſalt, which was well known to the Alchymiſts, and much valued by them, may be formed by diſſolving gold in a mixture compoſed of equal parts of nitric and muriatic acids. The metal is attacked inſtantly, and diſſolves with a ſtrong effervescence by the emiſſion of nitrous gas. The liquid, when ſaturated, which is known by its refuſing to diſſolve more gold, forms a ſolution of a deep yellow colour, exceedingly cauſtic, and of a very aſtringent metallic taſte. It tinges the ſkin indelibly of a deep purple colour, and produces the ſame effect upon almoſt all animal and vegetable bodies, and even upon marble. The colour is owing to the partial reduction of the yellow oxide of gold, and its permanency to the ſtrong affinity between metallic oxides and the epidermis. When this ſolution, which conſiſts chiefly of muriat of gold, is evaporated, nitric acid is diſengaged, and the muriat is obtained in ſmall cryſtals of a fine yellow colour, having the form of four-ſided priſms, or truncated octahedrons. They are obtained more readily, if the ſolution be evaporated to half its bulk, and a little alcohol be afterwards added to it. This ſalt is very ſoluble in water. When expoſed to the air, it ſoon attracts moiſture, and runs into a liquid. In a very ſtrong light it acquires a red colour; in conſequence of the partial reduction of its oxide. When its ſolution is heated gradually, in a retort, there paſſes over muriatic acid; and muriat of gold is alſo carried along with it undecompoſed. It is decompoſed by all the alkalies and earths hitherto tried, the yellow oxide of gold being ſeparated. But ammonia rediſſolves this oxide, and ſo do the fixed alkalies, if added in ſufficient quantity. It is decompoſed alſo while liquid by hydrogen gas, phoſphorous, and ſulphurous acid; and the gold is precipitated in the metallic ſtate, being deprived of its oxygen by theſe combuſtible bodies; but when dry, this does not happen. For theſe very intereſting facts we are indebted to Mrs Fulhame. She found, that when a piece of ſilk, dipt in a ſolution of gold in nitro-muriatic acid, is expoſed to hydrogen gas while moiſt, the gold is inſtantly reduced; but if the ſilk be dried previouſly, the reduction does not take place. The ſame reduction takes place, when the ſilk is dipt into phoſphorated ether. If a bit of ſilk, moiſtened with phoſphorated ether, be dipt into the nitro-muriatic ſolution, its ſurface is immediately gilt with a fine coat of gold, which adheres very ſtrongly. Mrs Fulhame aſcertained, that this reduction of the gold does not happen in any caſe, unleſs the ſalt be moiſtened with water. Mrs Fulhame has ſhown that ether, though a liquid, has no effect in reducing gold unleſs water be preſent. She accounts very ingeniouſly for the phenomena, by ſuppoſing that the water is decompoſed. The combuſtible combines with its oxygen, while its hydrogen combines with the oxygen of the gold, and reproduces water. This theory accounts very well for the phenomena, but it would require ſome direct proof. The greater number of the metals, when plunged into the ſolution of muriat of gold, occaſion a precipitate either of gold in the metallic ſtate, or of its purple oxide; while a portion of the precipitating metal is oxidated and diſſolved by the acid. Zinc, iron, bismuth, copper, mercury, precipitate it in the metallic ſtate. Lead, ſilver, and tin, precipitate it in the ſtate of purple oxide. The ſulphat of iron precipitates it in its metallic ſtate, and is converted into the oxy-ſulphat by the oxygen which it has abſorbed, whereas the oxy-ſulphat of iron produces no effect at all. The ſame thing happens with tin. The muriat of that metal precipitates the gold in the ſtate of purple oxide combined with oxide of tin; a precipitate well known by the name of *Precipitate of Caſſius*, and uſed to give a red colour to porcelain and glaſs; but the oxy-muriat of tin, which is already at a maximum of oxygen, produces no ſuch effect; becauſe it does not abſorb oxygen from the gold. Theſe precipitations have been long known to chemiſts, but a ſatisfactory explanation of them was till lately conſidered as hopeleſs; and even at preſent there are ſeveral particulars attending them not fully underſtood. *Sp.* 2. NITRAT OF GOLD. Bergman obſerved, that nitrous acid has the property of diſſolving gold, eſpecially when aſſiſted by heat; and this has been confirmed by the experiments of others. Fourcroy has aſcertained, that this effect is produced only when the acid contains a large portion of nitrous acid; and when the gold is very much divided as in the ſtate of gold leaf. The ſolution has an orange colour, and always retains an exceſs of acid. It cannot be expoſed to dryneſs without decompoſition, as the nitrat of gold which it contains is decompoſed by light and by heat. It is decompoſed by muriatic acid.

ii. "SALTS OF PLATINUM. As Platinum agrees with gold in its power of reſiſting all the acids, except the oxy-muriatic, and nitro-muriatic, the ſame obſtacles lie in the way of an examination of the ſalts of platinum, which have prevented us from getting acquainted with the laſt genus. Indeed the ſcarcity of this metal, and the great difficulty of procuring it in a ſtate of purity, render it ſtill leſs eaſy to examine the ſalts which it forms. The ſalts of platinum may be diſtinguiſhed by the following properties: 1. Their ſolution in water has a brown or yellowiſh brown colour. 2. Triple Pruſſiat of Potaſs occaſions no precipitate in theſe ſolutions. 3. Neither is any precipitate produced by gallic acid. 4. Pure fixed ammonia occaſion the precipitation of ſmall cryſtals. *Sp.* 1. MURIAT OF PLATINUM. This ſalt may be formed by diſſolving platinum in muriatic acid; but it is more eaſily obtained by

muriatic acid: 16 parts of a mixture, compd of one part of nitric, and 3 of muriatic a- when boiled upon platinum previouſly re- d to powder, gradually diſſolve it with an reſcence occaſioned by the emiſſion of nitrous izotic gas. This ſolution aſſumes at firſt a w colour, which gradually deepens as the um diſſolves; and when the ſolution is fi- d, it is of a very deep red or brown. It is ex- ngly acrid and cauſtic, and tinges the ſkin ibly of a dark brown colour. When it is ently concentrated by evaporation, very irregular cryſtals of muriat of platinum are ſited of a reddiſh brown colour; and when erly edulcorated and dried, leſs ſoluble in r than ſulphat of lime. It has a diſagreeably igent metallic taſte. Heat decompoſes it by ng off the acid. The earths decompoſe the ion of this ſalt, by precipitating its oxide; ne ſame effect, as Bergman demonſtrated, is uced by ſoda. But the other two alkalies bine with the muriat of platinum, and form LE SALTS, which deſerve attention. *Sp.* 2. *at of Platinum and Potaſs.* When potaſs is d to the ſolution of platinum in nitro-muria- cid, ſmall heavy cryſtals, of a red colour and edral form, are depoſited, compoſed of mu- acid, oxide of platinum, and potaſs. The triple ſalt is obtained, if, inſtead of potaſs, ulphat, nitrat, muriat, or acetite of that al- be employed. It is ſometimes obtained alſo e form of a yellow powder. It is ſoluble in r, and decompoſed with difficulty by ſoda. *Muriat of Platinum and Ammonia.* For diſcovery of this ſalt, we are likewiſe indebt- Bergman. When ammonia is added to the ion of platinum in nitro-muriatic acid, ſmall alline grains are depoſited, which have an edral form, a red or yellow colour, and are le in water. Theſe are compoſed of muria- cid, oxide of platinum, and ammonia. They obtained equally, though not in ſuch abun- e, if ſulphat, nitrat, or muriat of ammonia, mployed inſtead of the pure alkali, or its nat. Soda diſſolves them; and when the ion is evaporated to dryneſs, the ammonia is ilized, and the oxide of platinum ſeparated. n this or the preceding ſalt is expoſed to a at heat, the platinum is reduced. *Sp.* 4. *t of Platinum.* Nitric acid, as far as is wn, is not capable of diſſolving platinum, not when combined with nitrous gas; but the of platinum diſſolves readily in this acid, forms with it a nitrat, the properties of h have not been examined. *Sp.* 5, *and* 6. LE NITRATS OF PLATINUM. Bergman has tained that potaſs and ammonia, or their ſa- ompounds, produce the ſame effect upon the ion of nitrat of platinum, that they do on the at; *i. e.* they occaſion a precipitate in cryſ- conſtituting a *triple ſalt*; compoſed in the aſe, of nitric acid, oxide of platinum, and is; and in the 2d of the ſame acid and oxide, ined with ammonia. *Sp.* 7. SULPHAT OF INUM. Though ſulphuric acid has no ac- on platinum, it diſſolves its oxide; but the erties of the ſalt formed have not been exa- mined. *Sp.* 8, and 9. TRIPLE SULPHATS OF PLATINUM. Bergman has proved, that when potaſs, or ammonia, or their compounds, are dropt into the ſolution of ſulphat of platinum, a triple ſalt is alſo precipitated; compoſed, in the 1ſt caſe, of ſulphuric acid, oxide of platinum, and potaſs; and in the 2d, of the ſame bodies combined with ammonia. It appears, then, that the oxide of platinum, with what acid ſoever it be united, has the property of combining with potaſs and ammonia, and of forming with them *triple ſalts*. In this reſpect it agrees with the yellow oxide of tungſten; and it is not probable that the property is confined to theſe two metallic bodies. *Sp.* 10. *Oxalat of Platinum.*" (See OXALAT.) "Platinum is not acted on by any acid, but the oxy-muriatic and nitro-muriatic; but its oxide is ſoluble in OXALIC ACID, and yields by evaporation yellow cryſtals of oxalat of platinum, the properties of which have not been examined. *Sp.* 11. *Benzoat of Platinum.* Only a ſmall proportion of the oxide of platinum is diſſolved by benzoic acid. The liquid, by evaporation, yields yellow cryſtals of benzoat of platinum, which are not altered by expoſure to the air, are difficultly ſoluble in water, and not at all in alcohol. When expoſed to heat, the acid is driven off, and the oxide left behind. *Sp.* 12. SEBAT OF PLATINUM. Sebacic acid diſſolves the oxide of platinum, and yields brownish yellow cryſtals of ſebat of platinum. This acid alſo precipitates platinum from its ſolution in nitro-muriatic acid in the ſtate of a ſalt. *Sp.* 12. *Pruſſiat of Platinum.* Scheele aſcertained, that Pruſſic acid has no action either on platinum or its oxide; neither is any precipitate occaſioned by pouring the Pruſſiats into a ſolution of platinum in nitro-muriatic acid. Conſequently either theſe two bodies are incapable of combining, or the Pruſſiat of platinum is very ſoluble in water."

iii. SALTS OF SILVER. Of theſe Dr Thomſon enumerates no fewer than 19 ſpecies. See SILVER.

(22.) SALTS, NEUTRAL, or COMPOUND, a term in the old ſyſtem of chemiſtry, not altogether diſcarded in the new, (ſee CHEMISTRY, *Index*,) but now ſeems on the point of being laid aſide. Dr Thomſon, in a note upon his definition of the term *ſalt*, (page 251, vol. IV. above quoted, § 20.) ſays, "The terms *ſalt* and *neutral ſalt*, therefore, are now ſynonymous. Probably the laſt of theſe will be gradually dropt altogether; at leaſt it *ought* to be ſo." Such has been the fate of the word *ſemi-metal*, and many other terms in chemiſtry and metallurgy, formerly thought neceſſary to expreſs diſtinctions, but now, by the recent diſcoveries and improvements in theſe ſciences, found to be uſeleſs. The term *Compound* is now alſo unneceſſary, as none are reckoned ſalts, but compounds, in the preſent ſtate of chemiſtry.

(23.) SALTS, SIMPLE, another term in the old ſyſtem of chemiſtry, which is in the ſame predicament with the preceding, nearly obſolete. See § 20.

(24.) SALT SPRINGS. Of theſe there are great

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numbers in different parts of the world, which undoubtedly have their origin from some of the large collections of fossil salt mentioned under the article SALT. See § 9 and 12, and likewise SPRING.

(25.) SALTS, QUADRUPLE. See § 28.

(26.) SALT STONE, in the old system of mineralogy, a name given to *Salpetre*, by others called AHIUS. See SALTPETRE.

(27.) SALTS, THEORIES AS TO THE ORIGIN OF. The origin of salts is very much, or rather totally, unknown. Some eminent chemists particularly Stahl, supposed that the number of substances truly and essentially saline is very small; nay, that there is but one saline principle in nature. This principle they supposed to be the *vitriolic acid*, as being the most simple and indestructible of them all. Stahl delivers his opinion on this subject in the following words: "That he considers the vitriolic acid as the only substance essentially saline; as the only saline principle, which, by uniting more or less intimately with other substances that are not saline, is capable of forming an innumerable multitude of other saline matters, which nature and art shew us; and, 2dly that this saline principle is a secondary principle, composed only by the intimate union of two primary principles, water and earth. M. Macquer also supports this hypothesis. But all the arguments advanced appears to be totally unsupported by any decisive evidence from the latest discoveries in chemistry. A great deal has been written, and to very little purpose, on this and similar hypothetical subjects.

(28.) SALTS, TRIPLE, a kind of salts formed by the union of three ingredients; the common neutrals being composed only of two. They are but lately discovered; and it is chiefly to the industry of Sir Torbern Bergman that we owe the knowledge we have of them. Sometimes we meet even with salts of four ingredients; in which case the resulting compounds are called QUADRUPLE salts. The following are mentioned as remarkable: 1. *Aphronitrum*, or mineral alkali, combined with a fossil quantity of calcareous earth. The three ingredients here are, carbonic acid, soda and lime. This, Wallerius says, is the aphronitrum of the ancients; but he thinks that it ought to be rather called *aphronatron*, as they believed the name of *nitron* upon the mineral alkali. The 2d species is that described by Cronstedt, under the title of *calcareous nitre*. The 3d is that described by Hoffman under the title of *aphronitrum fossile*, into whose composition the vitriolic acid enters. It is a kind of Glauber's salt, and is frequently confounded with it. The aphronitrum of Cronstedt is distinguished by nitres appearing on old walls and below eaves, or in places where it cannot be washed away by the rain. When it contains any considerable quantity of calcareous earth, it shoots into rhomboidal crystals, a figure frequently assumed by the calcareous earth when it shoots into crystals; but when aphronitrum is pure, it forms quadrangular crystals. 2. *Common salt with magnesia*, or bitter, contained also in mineral magnesia. It is a compound of common salt with magnesia, and is very deliquescent, owing to the compound of muriatic acid and magnesia. 3. *Vitriol of mercury with iron*, or Hoffman's vitriolated tartar with iron. Hoss, according to M. Monet, is found in some mineral waters. 4. *Nature alum contaminated with copperas*. This is sometimes found in the aluminous schistus, and efflorescing in a feathery form. 5. *Native alum contaminated with sulphur*. Dr Withering informs us, that this salt is met with about Wednesburg and Bilston in Staffordshire, where the coal pits are on fire. It sublimes to the surface, whence it may be collected in considerable quantity during dry and hot weather. It is kept in a deliquescent state by an access of vitriolic acid. 6. *Native alum contaminated by vitriolated cobalt*. This is found in some of the mines of Herrigrund and Idria, where it shoots into long and slender filaments. 7. *Vitriol of copper with iron*, the *vitriolum ferreo-cupreum cyaneum* of Linnæus. It is also called *Vitriol of Hungary*, as it abounds in that country. Its colour is blue mixed with green; sometimes the one shade prevails, sometimes the other. 8. *Vitriol of copper, iron and zinc*, is prepared in Sweden from the water pumped out of the copper mines at Dalarne. Large crystals of this salt are often found in the water. 9. *Vitriol of copper and zinc*. This is a QUADRUPLE SALT, styled by Linnæus *Vitriolum ferreo-zincico cupreum cyaneum*. Its colour is blue inclining to green; and it does not precipitate the copper by rubbing on iron, as the common blue vitriol does. It is called the *blue vitriol of Goslar*. 10. *Vitriol of zinc*; the *green vitriol* from Goslar in the Hartz; the *vitriolum zinco-ferreum viride* of Linnæus. It is of a pale green colour. But since these triple and quadruple salts were discovered, and named in this artificial manner, the triple salts have been found, by succeeding chemists, to be much more numerous than they were supposed to be. See § 20. 2. ii. See also PHOSPHAT, § 3, 11. II, viii. PHOSPHITE, § 3; PRUSSIAT, § 2, 4, 9, 11, 14—17. SULPHAT, TARTRITE, &c.

(29.) SALT WATER, DISTILLATION OF. See SEA WATER.

(30.) SALT WATER, EXPERIMENT ON. In M. de Pagès's Travels round the World, we find the following important fact. "I had been curious (says that author) to ascertain by experiment whether sea water contains salt in greater quantity under the torrid than under the other zones; and my experiments on this subject served to shew the contrary to what I expected, that sea water is impregnated with salt in less quantity within the tropics than without the tropics." These experiments were made on 100 lb. of sea water, taken at the depth of ten fathoms, and weighed in water itself. M. de Pagès has given a table of these experiments from which it appears that 100 lb. of water in 46° 12″ S. lat. gave 4¼ lb. or salt, and in 1° 30′ only 3½ lb.; and that in 74 N. lat. it gave 4 lb. in 4° 22′ only 3½ lb. these being the highest and lowest latitudes in which the experiments were made, as also the greatest and least quantities of salt.

(31.) SALT, in geography, makes the first part of the name of various towns, lakes and rivers: viz.

i. SALT, a small town of England in Staffordshire; near Ingestre.

ii. SALT HILL, a town of Berkshire, 21 miles W. of London, on the road to Bath; in a pleasant situation, with elegant inns.

iii. SALT

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i. SALT HILL, a town of Lincolnſhire, SW. Kirkton.
. SALT HOUSE, a ſmall town in Norfolkſhire, ween Holt and the ſea coſt.
SALT ISLAND, one of the Virgin Iſlands, ly- W. of Cooper's Iſland. Lon. 71. 3. W. Lat. 30. N. Mr Cruttwell places it, in Lon. 64. V. Lat. 18. 5. N.
. SALT ISLAND, GREAT, an iſland near the aſt of Jamaica, lying off Old Harbour. Lon. 57. W. Lat. 17. 50. N.
i. SALT ISLAND, LITTLE, an iſland of Ja- a, one mile from Great Salt Iſland.
ii. SALT KEY, an iſland in the W. Indies; ly- in Lon. 71. 3. W. Lat. 21. 30. N.
. SALT LAKE, or ONONDAGO. See ONON- O, N° 1. This lake lies 25 miles SSE. of Oſ- .
SALT LICK, a town of the United States, in North-Weſtern Territory, near a ſalt marſh; miles SE. of Cayahoga.
i. SALT POND BAY, a bay on the S. coaſt of aica: E. of Port Royal.
ii. SALT RIVER, or according to Mr Joſeph tt, in his *United States Gazetteer*, ſimply the r, a navigable river of Kentucky, formed by ad waters, that riſe in different parts of Mer- county, and, after running a W. courſe, unite ut 15 miles above the Ohio. It then runs V. for 15 miles, and falls into the Ohio, about miles below Pittſburg, 20 below the Rapids, 5 NE. of Ohio-mingo. It is 150 yards broad t mouth, and is navigable in boats for about miles. Between Salt and Green rivers there ſprings of bitumen or amber.
iii. SALT RIVER, a river, or arm of the Sea, ich divides the iſland of Guadaloupe into two ts, and communicates with the ocean on both s of the iſland. It is 6 miles long, from 16 to paces broad, and navigable by ſmall veſſels, hazardous. See GUADALOUPE.
iv. SALT RIVER, a river of Jamaica, on the coaſt, S. of Point Gallina; which runs into the , oppoſite Great Salt Iſland.
v. SALT SPRING RIVER, a river of the United tes, in the North-Weſtern Territory, which s near the E. line of the New Jerſey Company's ds, and after running above 56 miles SE. falls the Ohio, 10 miles below the mouth of the ibaſh, and 10 miles below the *Salt Spring*, from ich it is named.
vi. SALT TOWN, a town of Africa, in the intry of Calabar; ſo named from the chief em- yment of the inhabitants being the manufacture *Salt*.
vii. SALT WATER HAUGH, a remarkable ſalt ing of England, near Durham, in the middle the river Wear. It is beſt obſerved in Summer en the river is low, and the water runs to the e of the channel. It tinges the ſtones near it of ed colour; and when boiled affords great quan- es of Bay Salt.
* *To* SALT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ſeaſon th ſalt.—If the offering was of fleſh, it was *salt*- thrice. *Brown.*
SALTA, a town of S. America, in Paraguay, the province of Tucuman, ſeated on a ſmall er, over which it has a bridge, and which runs into a lake a little below the town. It is chiefly inhabited by Spaniards, and contains 2 churches, 4 monaſteries, and about 400 houſes; but has neither walls, ditches, ramparts, nor any other defence but the bravery of the people, who, by their frequent wars with the Indians, have become all very expert ſoldiers. They have 500 men conſtantly in arms beſides 1500 ſlaves. Salta is a town of great commercial reſort, on account of its commodities. Great quantities of corn, wine, cattle, meal, ſalt, hides, fat, &c. are exported from it to moſt places in Peru. It is 50 miles S. of St Salvador, and 37 of Eſtreco. Lon. 66. 30. W. Lat. 25. 20. S.
SALTAIM, a lake of Ruſſia, in the government of Tobolſk, 48 miles in circumference. Lon. 90. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 56. 0. N.
* SALTANT. *adj.* [*ſaltans*, Latin.] Jumping; dancing.
SALTASH, a borough of Cornwall, which ſends two members to the imperial Parliament. It is ſeated on the ſide of a ſteep hill, on the banks of the Tamar; and has three ſtreets, which, from the declivity, are waſhed clean by every ſhower of rain that falls. It has a good trade in malt, with a market on Saturday, and ſufficient depth of water in its harbour for large veſſels. It lies 6 miles NW. of Plymouth and 220 WSW. of London. Lon. 4. 17. W. Lat. 50. 25. N.
* SALTATION. *n. ſ.* [*ſaltatio*, Latin.] 1. The act of dancing or jumping.—The locuſts being ordained for *ſaltation*, their hinder legs do far exceed the others. *Brown.* 2. Beat; palpitation.—If the great artery be hurt, you will diſcover it by its *ſaltation* and florid colour. *Wiſeman.*
* SALTCAT. *n. ſ.*—Many give a lump of ſalt, which they uſually call a *ſaltcat*, made at the ſalterns. *Mortimer.*
* SALTCELLAR. *n. ſ.* [*ſalt* and *cellar*.] Veſſel of ſalt ſet on the table.—When any ſalt is ſpilt on the table-cloth, ſhake it out into the *ſaltcellar*. *Swift.*
SALTCOATS, a ſea port town of Scotland, in Ayrſhire, 5 miles NW. of Irvine, in the pariſhes of Stevenſton and Ardroſſan. It has an excellent harbour capable of admitting veſſels of 220 tons. About 140 years ago, it was only a hamlet conſiſting of 4 ſmall *cots* or cottages, the inhabitants of which earned a ſcanty livlihood, by preparing *ſalt* in ſmall pans. But about 1700, it became the property of Sir Robert Cunningham, who began to work the valuable ſtrata of coals in the neighbourhood, and built a harbour at Saltcoats to export them. He alſo erected ſeveral large pans for the manufacture of ſalt; which has proved ſo ſucceſsful, that there is now made above 3000 bolls annually. Ship-building was alſo commenced and carried on with ſuch ſucceſs, that in 25 years, ending in 1790, there were built 64 veſſels, of tonnage 7095, worth above 70,000l. Str. The number of veſſels, in 1792, was 41 of 300 tons, navigated by 320 men. The population, in 1792, was 2325; the number of houſes 399. Saltcoats is alſo much frequented in ſummer, as a watering place. Notwithſtanding the population and proſperity of this town, it has neither magiſtrates, nor police, nor even a weekly market, but only one annual fair. A bailiff levies the dues of anchorage, and executes

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ſuch regulations as are neceſſary for loading the veſſels, filling, &c. and the maſters or owners of theſe veſſels come under a written obligation to obſerve theſe regulations. Saltcoats lies 10 miles NW. of Ayr, and 22 SW. of Glaſgow. Lon. 1. 57. W. of Edin. Lat. 55. 39. N.

SALTEES, two ſmall iſlands in St George's Channel, near the S. coaſt of Ireland, ſeparated from the continent, by a ſtrait about 3 miles broad, through the whole of which are rocks called *St Patrick's Bridge*, which formerly could have been paſſed on foot at low water. In one of theſe iſlands, the rebel, *Bagnal Harvey*, hid himſelf in June 1798, along with Mr Grogan, the proprietor, with his wife and child; but was diſcovered, ſeized and executed, for high treaſon. Theſe iſlands are 10½ miles WSW. of Carnſore Point. Lon. 6. 37. W. Lat. 52. 8. N.

SALTEN, a town of Norway in the province of Dronthein: 260 miles N. of Dronthein.

(1.) * SALTER. *n. ſ.* [from *ſalt.*] 1. One who ſalts. 2. One who ſells ſalt.—After theſe local names, the moſt have been derived from occupations; as ſmith, *ſalter*, armourer. *Camden.*

(2.) SALTER, John, an Engliſh officer, born in 1709, who by his merit roſe from the ranks to be a major-general, and lieut. colonel of the 1ſt reg. of foot. The D. of Cumberland, then in the guards, firſt noticed him, made him ſerjeant in his own company, and ſome time after gave him a commiſſion, and patronized him publicly in preſence of all the other officers. He died in 1787, aged 78.

(3.) SALTER, Samuel, D. D. a late learned Engliſh divine, ſon of Dr Samuel Salter, prebendary of Norwich, by Anne Penelope, daughter of Dr Jeffery, was born at Norwich and educated at the Charter-Houſe. He was admitted of Bennet College, Cambridge, June 30, 1736, where he obtained the degree of B. A. and a fellowſhip. He became ſoon after preceptor to the ſons of Sir Philip York, Chief Juſtice of the King's Bench, afterwards E. of Hardwick, and lord chancellor. He alſo made him his chaplain, a prebendary of Glouceſter, and rector of Burton Coggles, in 1740, where he married Miſs Secker, a relation of the Bp. of Oxford. In 1750, he was made miniſter of Great Yarmouth; in 1751, Abp. Herring created him D. D. in 1756, the lord chancellor made him rector of St Bartholomew; and in 1761, maſter of the Charter Houſe. He publiſhed, 1. *Pindaric Ode* in Greek, on the nuptials of the Princes of Wales and Orange: 2. Latin Verſes on the Death of Q. Caroline: and 3. Sermons, Tracts, &c. He died May 2, 1778.

* SALTERN. *n. ſ.* A ſaltwork.—A ſalteat made at the *ſalterns*. *Mortimer.*

SALTERNESS, a ſea port of Scotland, in Kirkcudbrightſhire, in the pariſh of Kirkbean. It is ſeated on the ſouthernmoſt point of Scotland; which is ſuppoſed to be the *Cacbanaſpigon* of Ptolemy. It is much frequented as a watering place, in ſummer, for ſea bathing. Lat. 54. 55. N.

SALTFLEET, a ſea port town of England, in Lincolnſhire, with a market on Saturday: 7 miles S. of the mouth of the Humber, 33 NE. of Lincoln, and 158, or 164, N. of London. Lat. 53. 22. N.

SALT-HOLM, an iſland of Denmark, near the coaſt of Zealand, in the Sound; uſed by the inhabitants of the iſle of Amack for paſturing their cattle. It is 5 miles SE. of Copenhagen.

SALTIBRIDGE, a ſmall town of Ireland, in the county of Waterford, and province of Munſter.

(1.) * SALTIER. *n. ſ.* [*ſautoir*, Fr.] Term of heraldry.—A *ſaltire* is in the form of a St Andrew's croſs, and by ſome is taken to be an engine to take wild beaſts: in French it is called *un ſautoir*: it is an honourable bearing. *Peacham.*

(2.) SALTIER. See HERALDRY, and *Plate* I. This, ſays G. Leigh, in his *Accidence of Armory*, p. 70. was anciently made of the height of a man, and driven full of pins, the uſe of which was to keep walls, &c. Upton derives this word from *ſalire*, i. e. *a foreſt.* The French call this ordinary *ſautoir*, from *ſauter to leap*; becauſe it may have been uſed by ſoldiers to leap over walls of towns, which in former times, were low; but ſome think it is born in imitation of St Andrew's croſs.

* SALTINBANCO. *n. ſ.* [*ſaltare in banco*, to climb on a bench, as a mountebank mounts a bank or bench.] A quack or mountebank.—*Saltinbanco's*, quackſalvers, and charlatans, decry them: were Æſop alive, the Piazza and Pont-neuf could not ſpeak their fallacies. *Brown.*—

He play'd the *ſaltinbanco's* part,
Transform'd t' a Frenchman by my art. *Hudib.*

SALTING MEAT FOR THE USE OF THE ROYAL NAVY. The following is the method recommended by the late admiral Sir Charles Knowles. When the ox is killed, let it be ſkinned and cut into pieces fit for uſe as quickly as poſſible, and ſalted while the meat is hot. For which purpoſe get a ſufficient quantity of ſaltpetre and bay-ſalt pounded together and made hot in an oven, of each equal parts; with this ſprinkle the meat in the rate of about 2 oz. to the pound: then lay the pieces on ſhelving boards to drain for 24 hours; which done, turn them, and repeat the ſame operation, and let them lie for 24 hours longer. By this time the ſalt will be all melted, and have penetrated the meat, and the pieces be drained: each piece muſt then be wiped dry with clean coarſe cloths. A ſufficient quantity of common ſalt muſt then be made hot likewiſe in an oven, and mixed when taken out with about one ſixth brown ſugar: then the caſks being ready, rub each piece well with this mixture, and pack them well down, allowing about half a pound of the ſalt and ſugar to each pound of meat, and it will keep good for ſeveral years. It is beſt to proportion the caſks to the quantity uſed at one time, as the leſs it is expoſed to the air the better. The ſame proceſs does for pork, only a larger quantity of the ſalt and leſs ſugar muſt be uſed; but the preſervation of both depends equally upon the meat being hot when firſt ſalted. One pound of beef requires 2 oz. of ſaltpetre and 2 oz. bay-ſalt, becauſe it is to be ſprinkled twice; an ounce of each to a pound of beef both times. The ſaltpetre requiſite for 106 lb. of beef is 12½ lb. which at 12d. per lb. is 12 s. 6 d.; and the ſame quantity of bay-ſalt (for 100 lb. of beef,) at three halfpence per lb. is 1 s. 6 d.; of brown ſugar and common ſalt mixed together half a pound is required, the former in the proportion of one 3d, the latter of two 3ds to a pound of beef. The brown ſu-

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it 8d. per pound. 100 lb. of beef will take
oz. of it, which coſts 10 s. 5 d. The quan-
of common ſalt requiſite for 100 lb. of beef is
oz which at 2 d. per lb. amounts to 5 s. 6 d.
expence therefore will ſtand thus:

ietre, 12½ lb. for 100 lb. of beef,	L. 0	12	6
ſalt, 12½ lb. for do. - -	0	1	6
rn ſugar, 550 oz. for do. -	0	10	5
100 lb. at 6 d. per pound, -	2	10	0
e caſks for it at 1 s. 6 d. each,	0	4	6
our, and heating the oven twice,	0	4	0
mon ſalt, 533 oz. for do. -	0	5	6
	L. 4	8	0

ſe articles are ſtated high; but if beef coſts
per pound, meat cured thus will coſt leſs
1 s. per pound; and therefore comes much
per than live ſtock in long ſea voyages.

SALTISH. *adj.* [from *ſalt*.] Somewhat ſalt.—
of a *ſaltiſh* nature improve ſandy grounds.
timer.

ALTKOTT. See SALZKOTTEN.

SALTLESS. *adj.* [from *ſalt*.] Inſipid not taſt-
of ſalt.

SALTLY. *adv.* [from *ſalt*.] With taſte of
; in a ſalt manner.

SALTNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ſalt*.] Taſte of ſalt.
ut water paſſing through earth, through ten
le, one within another, has not loſt its *ſalt-*
, ſo as to become potable; but drained thro'
ıty, become freſh. *Bacon.*—Men ought to find
difference between *ſaltneſs* and bitterneſs.
ss.

.) SALTON, anciently called SOULISTOWN, SOULTOWN, (from Nicholas Soulis then pro-
tor, who was a competitor with Bruce, Ba-
&c. for the crown of Scotland,) a pariſh of
tland, in E. Lothian, about 4 miles SW. of
ldington, comprehending about 2000 acres of
nd. It is bounded on the W. by the SAL-
and the TYNE, which unite and ſeparate it
n the pariſh of Pencaitland. From the banks
he Tyne, the land riſes gently on the S. and
with a rich and well cultivated ſurface. The
is very various, loam, light ſand, thin clay,
deep rich clay, which laſt is moſt prevalent;
ducing great crops of all the uſual grain, roots
graſſes. The climate is dry and very ſalu-
ous. The population, in 1792, was 830; in-
ſe 69, ſince 1755. The number of horſes
137; of ſheep 240, and of black cattle 239.
ratum of excellent lime ſtone pervades the
iſh. Coal and free ſtone alſo abound, and it
a fine mineral ſpring. Salton is famous for
ing given either birth or reſidence to ſeveral
at men. Among the former was Andrew
lcher, Eſq. the moſt celebrated patriot of his
and country. (See FLETCHER, N° 1.) Next
hat unparalelled character may be ranked his
hew, Lord Miiton, who was Lord Juſtice
rk, at the critical period of 1745, when the
ole management of public affairs in Scotland
olved upon him, and was conducted by him
h an uncommon degree of moderation and
nanity, at a time when party ſpirit ran very
h. The celebrated biſhop Burnet reſided in it
ears as rector; (ſee BURNET, N° 1.) and in
11; bequeathed 20,000 merks Scots to it, for
educating and clothing 30 children. And at a period much earlier than all of theſe, *William Dunbar*, a native, born in 1465, flouriſhed with uncommon eclat as a poet at the Scottiſh court, ſo that he was ſtyled the *Scots Horace*. Salton Hall, the family ſeat of the late Gen. Fletcher, was anciently a place of ſtrength, and was regularly fortified. It was modernized and much improved by its late proprietor; and ſtands near *Hermiſton*, an ancient fortified building belonging to Lord Sinclair. About 1750, the firſt bleachfield of the *Britiſh Linen Company* was formed in this pariſh, under the patronage of Lord Miiton.

(2.) SALTON, a river in the above pariſh, of which it is the Weſtern boundary, where it joins the Tyne.

(3.) SALTON, a town of England, in Yorkſhire, NE. of Hovingſham.

(4.) SALTON, EAST, a village in the centre of the above pariſh, on the brow of its aſcent from the Tyne, commanding a beautiful and extenſive proſpect of the moſt fertile parts of E. Lothian, with the ſea, on the E. coaſt of Fife. The church and manſe are in it. In 1792, it contained 63 houſes and 281 inhabitants.

(5.) SALTON, WEST, a village in the W. extremity of the above pariſh, containing 33 houſes and 127 ſouls in 1792.

(1.)* SALT-PAN. SALT-PIT. *n. ſ.* [*ſalt* and *pan*, or *pit*.] Pit where the ſalt is got.—Moab and Ammon ſhall be as the breeding of nettles, *ſalt-pits*, and a perpetual deſolation, *Zeph.* ii. 9.—Cicero prettily calls them ſalinas *ſalt pans*, that you may extract ſalt out of, and ſprinkle where you pleaſe. *Bacon.*—The ſtratum lay about 25 fathom by the duke of Somerſet's *ſalt puns* near Whitehaven. *Woodward.*

(2.) SALT-PANS. See SALT, N° 1, § 7.

(1.)* SALTPETRE. *n. ſ.* [*ſal petræ*, Latin; *ſal petre*, Fr.] Nitre.—Nitre, or *ſaltpetre*, having a crude and windy ſpirit, by the heat of the fire ſuddenly dilateth. *Bacon.*—Nitre or *ſaltpetre*, in heaps of earth, has been extracted, if they be expoſed to the air, ſo as to be kept from rain. *Locke.*

(2.) SALTPETRE. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*, and *Vocab.* I. GUNPOWDER, § 2, 7; and NITRE. Saltpetre is an article of ſo much importance, and ſometimes ſo difficult to be had, that it is ſurpriſing more attention is not paid to diſcover ſome eaſy method to increaſe the quantity. Such a method has been long practiſed by the farmers of Appenzell in Switzerland. In ſo hilly a country, moſt houſes and ſtables are built on ſlopes, one ſide of the edifice reſting on the hill, and the other being ſupported by two ſtrong poſts, elevated 2 or 3 feet above the ground; ſo that the air has a free current under the building. Immediately under the ſtable a pit is dug uſually occupying both in breadth and length the whole ſpace of ground covered by the building; and inſtead of the clayey earth which is dug out, the pit is filled up with ſandy ſoil. This is the whole proceſs, and all the reſt is done by nature. The animal water, which is continually oozing through the planks of the floor, having drenched the earth contained in the pit for 2 or 3 years, the latter is emptied, and the ſaltpetre is refined and prepared in the uſual manner. This manner, however, is

not

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not the beſt. The French chemiſts, during the inceſſant wars occaſioned by the revolution, for the ſake of ſupplying their armies with gunpowder, turned their attention to the beſt method of refining ſaltpetre. The following are directions given for this purpoſe by Chaptal, Champy, and Bonjour. The crude ſaltpetre is to be beaten ſmall with mallets, that the water may more eaſily attack every part of the maſs. The ſaltpetre is then to be put into tubs, 500 or 600 lb. in each tub: 20 per cent of water is to be poured into each tub, and the mixture well ſtirred. It muſt be left to macerate or digeſt until the ſpecific gravity of the fluid ceaſes to augment: 6 or 7 hours are ſufficient for this firſt operation, and the water acquires the denſity of between 25° and 35°. Sp. gr. 1·21, and 1·306, aſcertained by Baumé's hydrometer. The firſt water muſt then be poured off, and a 2d portion of water muſt be poured on the ſame ſaltpetre amounting to 10 per cent; after which the mixture muſt be ſtirred up, ſuffered to macerate for one hour, and the fluid drawn or poured off. Five per cent of water muſt then be poured on the ſaltpetre; and after ſtirring the whole the fluid muſt be immediately drawn off. When the water is drained from the ſaltpetre, the ſalt muſt be thrown into a boiler containing 50 per cent of boiling water. When the ſolution is made, it will mark between 66° and 68° of the hydrometer. (Sp. gr. 1·848, and 1·898.) The ſolution is to be poured into a proper veſſel, where it depoſits by cooling about two 3ds of the ſaltpetre originally taken. The precipitation begins in about half an hour, and terminates in between 4 and 6 hours. But as it is of importance to obtain the ſaltpetre in ſmall needles, becauſe in this form it is more eaſily dried, it is neceſſary to agitate the fluid during the whole time of the cryſtallization. A ſlight motion is communicated to this liquid maſs by a kind of rake; in conſequence of which the cryſtals are depoſited in very ſlender needles. As the cryſtals fall down, they are ſcraped to the borders of the veſſel, whence they are taken with a ſkimmer, and thrown to drain in baſkets placed on treſſels, in ſuch a manner that the water which paſſes through may either fall into the cryſtallizing veſſel, or be received into baſons placed underneath. The ſaltpetre is afterwards put into wooden veſſels in the form of a mill-hopper or inverted pyramid with a double bottom. The upper bottom is placed two inches above the lower on wooden ledges, and has many ſmall perforations through which water may paſs to the lower bottom, which likewiſe affords a paſſage by one ſingle aperture. A reſervoir is placed beneath. The cryſtallized ſaltpetre is waſhed in theſe veſſels with 5 per cent of water; which is afterwards employed in the ſolution of ſaltpetre in ſubſequent operations. The ſaltpetre, after ſufficient draining, and being dried by expoſure to the air upon tables for ſeveral hours may then be employed in the manufacture of gunpowder. But when it is required to uſe the ſaltpetre in the ſpeedy and immediate manufacture of gunpowder, it muſt be dried much more ſtrongly. This may be effected in a ſtove, or more ſimply by heating it in a flat metallic veſſel. For this purpoſe the ſaltpetre is to be put into the veſſel to a depth of five or ſix inches, and heat to 50° of the thermometer (or about 135 of Fahrenheit.) The ſaltpetre is to be ſtirred two or three hours, and dried ſo much that, when ſtrongly preſſed in the hand, it ſhall acquire a conſiſtence, nor adhere together, but reſemble very fine dry ſand. This degree of dryneſs is not required when the powder is made by pounding. From theſe circumſtances, we find that two ſeveral liquids remain after the operation; viz. 1. the water from the waſhing; and 2. that from the cryſtallizing veſſels. Thus the waſhing of the ſaltpetre is performed in three ſucceſſive operations, in which, upon the whole, the quantity of fluid made uſe of amounts to 35 per cent of the weight of the crude ſaltpetre. Theſe waſhings are eſtabliſhed on the principle, that cold water diſſolves the muriats of ſoda, and the earthy nitrats and muriats, together with the colouring principle, but ſcarcely attacks the nitrat of potaſh. The water of theſe three waſhings therefore contains the muriat of ſoda, the earthy ſalts, the colouring principle, and a ſmall quantity of nitrat of potaſh; the amount of which is in proportion to that of the muriat of ſoda, which determines its ſolution. The water of the cryſtallizing veſſels contains a portion of the muriat of ſoda, and of the earthy ſalts which eſcaped the operation of waſhing, and a quantity of nitrat of potaſh, which is more conſiderable than that of the former ſolution. The waters made uſe of at the end of the operation, to whiten and waſh the cryſtals depoſited in the pyramidal veſſel, contain nothing but a ſmall quantity of nitrat of potaſh. Theſe waters are therefore very different in their nature. The water of the waſhings is called mother water. It muſt be collected in veſſels and treated with potaſh by the known proceſs. It muſt be evaporated to 66° (or 1·848 ſp. gr.) taking out the muriat of ſoda as it forms. The ſolution is to be ſaturated with 2 or 3 per cent of potaſh, then ſuffered to ſettle, decanted, and poured into cryſtallizing veſſels, where 2 per cent of water is to be added to keep the ſalts of the muriat of ſoda ſuſpended. The waters which are thus obtained by treatment of the mother water may be mixed with the water of the firſt cryſtallization. From theſe the muriat of ſoda may be ſeparated by ſimple evaporation; and the nitrat of potaſh, which they hold in ſolution, may be afterwards obtained by cooling. The ſmall quantity of water made uſe of to waſh and whiten the refined ſaltpetre, contains nothing but nitrat of potaſh: it may therefore be uſed in the ſolution of the ſaltpetre when taken from the tubs. From this deſcription it follows, that a manufactory for the ſpeedy refining of ſaltpetre ought to be provided with 1. mallets or rammers for pounding the ſaltpetre; 2. tubs for waſhing; 3. a boiler for ſolution; 4. a cryſtallizing veſſel of copper or lead, in which the ſaltpetre is to be obtained by cooling; 5. baſkets to drain the cryſtals; 6. a wooden caſe or hopper for the waſhing and draining the ſaltpetre; 7. ſcales and weights for weighing; 8. hydrometers and thermometers, to aſcertain denſities and temperatures; 9. rakes to agitate the liquor in the cryſtallizing

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izing veſſel; 10. ſkimmers to take out the ſtals, and convey them to the baſkets; 11. ſyr or hand pumps to empty the boilers. The ber and dimenſions of theſe ſeveral articles t vary according to the quantity of ſaltpetre nded to be refined.

SALT-PIT. See SALT-PAN.

ALTREY, 8 Engliſh villages, in Huntigdonſh. lying SSE. or E. of Conington; and diſtinhed by the epithets of *Abbey, Breames, Com, Drain, Grange, Judith, Mill*, and *Moins*.

ALTRUM, a town of Devonſhire, in Plymk pariſh.

ALTSBURG. See SALTZBURG, N° 1 and 2.

.) SALT-WORT. See SALICORNIA.

.) SALT-WORT, BLACK. See GLAUX.

ALTZA, a town of Germany, in the circle of rer Saxony, and duchy of Magdeburg; ſo ed from its ſalt pits, 12 miles from Magdeg. Lon. 11. 54. E. Lat. 52. 3. N.

ALTZBERG, a town of Norway, in the proe of Chriſtiania, on the Dram: 14 miles WNW. hriſtiania.

ALTZBRUN, a town of Sileſia, in Schweid, which has a ſalt ſpring: 2 m. S. of Freyburg.

.) SALTZBURG, or SALZBURG, a late archopric of Germany, in the circle of Bavaria, nded on the E. by Styria and Upper Auſtria, he W. by the country of Tyrol, on the N. by duchy of Bavaria, and on the S. by the duchy Carinthia and the biſhopric of Brixen. It is ut 100 miles long from E. to W. and upwards o from N. to S. With reſpect to the ſoil, it ry mountainous, yielding, however, excellent urage, and abounding in cattle, and horſes rekable for their mettle and hardineſs. It is parularly noted for the great quantities of ſalt it duces, and its ſtrong paſſes and caſtles. Here alſo conſiderable mines of gold, ſilver, copper, l, iron, and lapis calaminaris, with quarries of ble, and a natural hot-bath. The principal ns are the SALZA, the Inn, the Ens, and Muer; ch, as well as the lakes and other ſtreams, are l ſtored with fiſh. The peaſants are allowed s, and trained to military duty. There are nobles in the country, and moſt of the lands ng to the clergy. The ci-devant ſtates cond of the prelates, the cities, and towns. Notſtanding this country has been long under the er of a Popiſh eccleſiaſtic, and the violent arary, and oppreſſive manner in which the Proants have always been treated, great numbers hem ſtill remained in it till 1732, when no leſs n 30,000 of them withdrew from it, diſperſing mſelves in the ſeveral Proteſtant ſtates of Eue, and ſome of them were even ſent from Great tain to the American colonies. Beſides braſs ſteel wares, and all ſorts of arms and artillery, re are manufactures of coarſe cloth and linen. ore the late revolutionary war, the archbiſhop l many great prerogatives: he was a prince of empire, primate and perpetual legate of the y ſee in Germany, &c. His revenue amounted near 200,000 l. a-year, a great part of it ariſing m the ſalt-works. His court was very magnint; and he had his hereditary great officers, and h colleges. The chapter conſiſted of 24 cans, all nobles. But the archbiſhopric is now ſecularized; and by the treaty of Amiens, Prince Ferdinand, archduke of Auſtria, was declared Prince of Saltzburg, Paſſau, Eichſtadt, and Berchtolſgaden. There is an order of knighthood here, inſtituted in 1711, in honour of St Rupert, who was the firſt biſhop of Saltzburg about the beginning of the 8th century.

(2.) SALTZBURG, or SALZBURG, the capital of the above archbiſhopric, ſo named from the SALZA, on which it has a bridge. It is a very handſome place, well fortified, and was the reſidence of the archbiſhop. The houſes are high, and all built of ſtone; the roofs are in the Italian taſte, and one may walk upon them. The caſtle is very ſtrong, well garriſoned, and provided with proviſions and warlike ſtores. The ci-devant archbiſhop's palace is magnificent; and in the area before it is a fountain, eſteemed the largeſt and grandeſt in Germany. The city, of which one part ſtands on a ſteep rock, is well built, but the ſtreets are narrow and badly paved. There are alſo two other ſtately palaces, one of which has a very beautiful garden; and the number of trees in the orangery is ſo great, that Mr Keyſler tells us, 20,000 oranges have been gathered from them in one year. The Salza runs cloſe by the walls of this garden. There are many other fine ſtructures in the city, ſuch as palaces, monaſteries, hoſpitals, and churches. In the cathedral dedicated to St Rupert (the apoſtle of Bavaria, and a Scotſman by birth,) all the altars are of marble of different kinds, and one of the organs has above 3200 pipes. The whole ſtructure is extremely handſome. It is built of freeſtone in imitation of St Peter's at Rome. The portico is of marble, and the whole is covered with copper. Before the portico there is a large quadrangular place, with arches and galleries, in which is a ſtatue of St Peter. In the middle of it is an image of the Virgin in bronze; it is fine, but of an unnatural ſize. There are large areas encompaſſed with handſome buildings on both ſides of the church. In the middle of that which is to the left, there is a moſt magnificent fountain of marble, and ſome valuable figures of a gigantic ſize. There is likewiſe a fountain in that to the right, but the Neptune makes a very pitiful figure. The univerſity was founded in 1620, and committed to the care of the Benedictines. There are alſo two colleges, in which young noblemen are educated. A battle was fought before this city on the 14th Dec. 1800, between the French under generals Lecourbe and Decaen, and the Auſtrians under the archduke Charles, wherein the latter were defeated, after "fighting the whole day with almoſt unexampled fury." The city was then taken poſſeſſion of by the victors, on the 15th, but evacuated on the 8th Aug. 1801. Lon. 33. 0. E. Lat. 47. 15. N.

(3.) SALTZBURG, a town of Tranſylvania; 4 miles NW. of Hermanſtadt.

SALTZDETFURT, a town of Germany, in Lower Saxony, in the biſhopric of Hildeſheim: 8 miles S. of Hildeſheim.

SALTZWEDEL. See SALZWEDEL.

* SALVABILITY. *n. ſ.* [from *ſalvo. hle.*] Poſſibility of being received to everlaſting life. — "Why do we Chriſtians ſo fiercely argue *ag* inſt the *ſalvability* of each other, as if it were our wiſh that

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all ſhould be damned, but thoſe of our particular ſect? *Decay of Piety.*

* SALVABLE. *adj.* [from *ſalvo*, Lat.] Poſſible to be ſaved.—Our wild fancies about God's decrees have in event reprobated more than thoſe decrees, and have bid fair to the damning of many whom thoſe left *ſalvable*. *Decay of Piety.*

(1.) SALVADOR, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Congo, with a large palace where the king and a Portugueſe biſhop reſide. It is ſeated on a craggy mountain. Lon. 15. 39. E. Lat. 5. 0. S.

(2.) SALVADOR, St, a large, populous, and handſome town of S. America, in Braſil, with an archbiſhop's ſee, and ſeveral forts. It is the reſidence of the viceroy. The principal ſtreets are large, and there are many gardens full of various fruit-trees, plants, and flowers. The houſes are ſeveral ſtories high and the walls are built of ſtone, thick and ſtrong. The people are proud, ignorant, voluptuous, and ſuperſtitious, but carry on a great trade, in ſugar, tobacco, raw hides, tallow, oil, woad, &c. This ſeems to be the city that is otherwiſe called *Bahia*. See BAHIA, N° 2. It ſtands on an eminence, above the harbour, on the Bay of All-Saints. Lon. 40. 10. W. Lat. 13. 30. S.

(3.) SALVADOR, St, or BANZA ST SALVADOR, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Congo, capital of the province of Pemba, ſeated on a rocky mountain on the banks of the Zaire, about 120 miles from the coaſt of the Atlantic. It belongs to the Portugueſe, and contains ſeveral churches, 4000 white inhabitants, and 36,000 negroes. The Portugueſe reſide in a quarter by themſelves. Lat. 5. 50. S.

(4.) SALVADOR, St, a town of Mexico, in the province of Guatimala, 12 miles from the Pacific Ocean. It is the reſidence of a Spaniſh governor, but has little trade. The environs produce ſugar canes and indigo. Lon. 90. 3. W. Lat. 13. 5. N.

(5.) SALVADOR, St, a city of Paraguay, the moſt northern in the province of Tucuman, near the borders of Peru, at the foot of a high mountain, one of the Eaſtern Andes. It contains about 300 houſes, and lies 174 miles N. of St Jago del Eſtero.

(6.) SALVADOR, St, DE LEYE, a town of Spain, in Navarre; 8 miles from Sangueſa.

SALVADORA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the tetrandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking with thoſe of which the order is doubtful. The calyx is quadrifid; there is no corolla; the berry is monoſpermous; and the ſeed covered with an antlus or looſe coat.

SALVADORE, a town of Italy, in Etruria; 17 miles S. of Volterra.

SALVAGA, one of the CANARY Iſlands.

(1.) * SALVAGE. *adj.* [*ſaulvage*, Fr. *ſalvaggio*, Italian, from *ſilva*, Lat.] Wild; rude; cruel. It is now ſpoken and written *ſavage*.—

May the Eſſexian plains
Prove as a deſert, and none there make ſtay
But *ſavage* beaſts, or men as wild as they. *Waller.*
A *ſavage* race inur'd to blood. *Dryden.*

(2.) SALVAGE, *n. ſ.* is uſed in a very different ſenſe from the above; meaning the taking care of or preſerving of any thing belonging to another; as appears from its uſe in law; (ſee § 3.) where it is uſed as an adjective.

(3.) SALVAGE MONEY, a reward allowed by the civil and ſtatute law for the ſaving of ſhips or goods from the danger of the ſea, pirates, or enemies.—Where any ſhip is in danger of being ſtranded, or driven on ſhore, juſtices of the peace are to command the conſtables to aſſemble as many perſons as are neceſſary to preſerve it; and, every being preſerved by their means, the perſons entering therein ſhall, in 30 days after, be paid reaſonable reward for their ſalvage; otherwiſe the ſhip or goods ſhall remain in the cuſtody of the officers of the cuſtoms as a ſecurity for the ſame.

SALVAGES, a cluſter of iſlands, in the N. Atlantic Ocean, between the Canaries and Madeira, 27 leagues N. of Teneriffe. Lon. 17. 54. W. Lat. 30. 11. N.

SALVAIGNAC, a town of France, in the dep. of the Tarn, 9 miles W. of Gaillac, and 11 ENE. of Toulouſe.

SALVATEON DE YGEY, a town of Hiſpaniola, 72 miles E. of St Domingo.

(1.) SALVATERRA, a rich town of the Italian republic, in the department of the Upper Po, in the late diſtrict and ci-devant territory of Cremona; ſituated on the Delmona.

(2.) SALVATERRA, a town of Portugal in Eſtremadura, on the Erra, near its junction with the Tagus; with a palace: 15 miles S. of Santarem. Lon. 7. 51. W. Lat. 38. 59. N.

(3.) SALVATERRA DO EXTREMA, a ſtrong town of Portugal, in Beira, bordering on Spain: 20 miles SE. of Idanha a Velha, and 12 N. of Alcantara in Spain. It was taken by the French under the D. of Anjou in 1704, but retaken by the allies in 1705. It is ſeated on the Elia, 12 miles NW. of Alcantara. Lon. 6. 14. E. Lat. 39. 43. N.

(1.) SALVATIERRA, a town of Spain, in Alava, or Biſcay, at the foot of Mount St Adrian, 30 miles E. of Vittoria, as Dr Brookes has it, and 40 ENE. of it, according to Cruttwell. Lon. 2. 17. W. Lat. 42. 54. N.

(2-4.) SALVATIERRA, other 3 towns of Spain. 1. in Arragon, 22 miles WNW. of Jaca. 2. in Leon, 12 miles ESE. of Civdad Rodrigo; 3. in Galicia, on the Minho, 7 miles NE. of Tuy, and 56 S. of Compoſtella. Lon. 8. 16. W. Lat. 42. 48. N.

(1.) * SALVATION. *n. ſ.* [from *ſalvo*, Lat.] Preſervation from eternal death; reception to the happineſs of heaven.—All men's *ſalvation*, and all men's endleſs perdition, are things ſo oppoſite, that whoſoever doth affirm the one muſt neceſſarily deny the other. *Hooker.*—

To walk with God
High in *ſalvation*, and the climes of bliſs,
Exempt from death. *Milton's Par. Loſt.*

(2.) SALVATION means the ſafety or preſervation of any thing which is or has been in danger, and is generally uſed in a religious ſenſe. See the Hebrews but rarely make uſe of abſtract terms as they are called, but often of abſtracts. Thus, inſtead of ſaying that God ſaves them and protects them, they ſay that God is their ſalvation. Thus the word of ſalvation, the joy of ſalvation, the rock of ſalvation, the ſhield of ſalvation, the horn of ſalvation, &c. is as much as to ſay, The word that declares deliverance; the joy that attends the eſcaping a great danger, a rock

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re any one takes refuge, and where he may be ifety from his enemy; a buckler, that ſecures from the arm of the enemy; a horn or ray of t, of happineſs and ſalvation, &c. See THEGY, &c.

ALVATOR Roſa. See ROSA, N° I.

.) SALVATORE, ST, a town of the French ire, in the department of Marengo, and ci- ent province of the Alexandrine; 6 miles '. of Alexandria, in Italy, and 9 SE. of Caſal.

.) SALVATORE, ST, a town of Naples, in Ca- ia Citra: 21 miles E. of Coſenza.

SALVATORY. *n. ſ.* [*ſalvatoire*, French.] A e where any thing is preſerved.—I conſider admirable powers of ſenſation, phantaſy, and ory, in what *ſalvatories* or repoſitories the ies of things paſt are conſerved. *Hale.*

SALUBRIOUS. *adj.* [*ſalubris*, Lat.] Wholeſ; healthful; promoting health.—

The warm limbeck draws
alubrious waters from the nocent brood.
Phillips.

SALUBRITY. *n. ſ.* [from *ſalubrious*.] Wholeneſs; healthfulneſs.

ALUCES. See SALUZZO, N° 1 and 2.

ALUDA, a river of S. Carolina, which riſes he NE. ſide of the Nune Mountains, on the ines of N. Carolina: thence running SE. u- with BROAD RIVER, oppoſite the upper line e town of Columbia, and forms the Conga- (Scott's *United States Gazetteer.*) See CONEE. Mr Cruttwell ſays it joins the TYGER, les NW. of Columbia; but if it does, it muſt ery near the junction of the Tyger with Broad r.

SALVE. *n. ſ.* [This word is originally and erly *ſalf*, which having *ſalves* in the plural, ingular in time was borrowed from it: *ſealf*, n, undoubtedly from *ſalvus*, Latin.] 1. A inous matter applied to wounds and hurts; mplaſter.—

A *ſalve* for any ſore that may betide. *Shak.*
Sleep is pain's eaſieſt *ſalve*. *Donne.*
Go ſtudy *ſalve* and treacle. *Cleaveland.*
The royal ſword thus drawn, has cur'd a wound,
or which no other *ſalve* could have been found.
Waller.
Some with *ſalves* they cure. *Dryden.*

elp; remedy.—If they ſhall excommunicate hath the doctrine of meekneſs any *ſalve* for hen? *Hammond.*

To SALVE. *v. a.* [*ſalvo*, Latin; or from the .] 1. To cure with medicaments appli-

Many ſkilful leeches him abide,
o *ſalve* his hurts. *Fairy Queen.*

ſhould be to little purpoſe for them to *ſalve* wound, by making proteſtations in diſgrace of own actions. *Hooker.*—

I do beſeech your majeſty may *ſalve*
he long-grown wounds. *Shak.*

o help; to remedy.—

Some ſeek to *ſalve* their blotted name
'ith others blot. *Sidney.*
ur mother-tongue, which truly of itſelf is full enough for proſe, and ſtately enough erſe, hath long time been counted moſt bare and barren of both; which default, when as ſome endeavoured to *ſalve* and cure, they patched up the holes with rags from other languages. *Swift.*

3. To help or ſave by a *ſalvo*, an excuſe, or reſervation.—Ignorant I am not how this is *ſalved*. *Hooker.*—

That which moſt with you ſhould *ſalve* my going,
Is Fulvia's death. *Shak.*

—The ſchoolmen were like the aſtronomers, who, to *ſalve* phœnomena, framed to their conceit eccentricks and epicycles; ſo they, to *ſalve* the practice of the church, had deviſed a great number of ſtrange poſitions. *Bacon.*—There muſt be another ſtate to make up the inequalities of this, and *ſalve* all irregular appearances. *Atterbury.*—When Homer was at a loſs to bring any difficult matter to an iſſue, he laid his hero aſleep, and thus *ſalved* all difficulty. *Broome.* 4. [From *ſalvo*, Latin.] To ſalute. Obſolete.—

That ſtranger knight in preſence came,
And goodly *ſalved* them. *Fairy Queen.*

* SALVER. *n. ſ.* [A veſſel, I ſuppoſe, uſed at firſt to carry away or ſave what was left.] A plate on which any thing is preſented.—He is of opinion, that a *ſalver* of ſpectators would be as acceptable an entertainment for the ladies, as a *ſalver* of ſweetmeats. *Addiſon.*—

Between each act the trembling *ſalvers* ring,
From ſoup to ſweet wine. *Pope.*

SALVE REGINA, among the Romaniſts, the name of a Latin prayer, addreſſed to the Virgin, and ſung after complines, as alſo upon the point of executing a criminal. It was compoſed by Peter, Bp. of Compoſtella. The cuſtom of ſinging it at the cloſe of the office was begun by order of St Dominic, in the congregation of Dominicans at Bologna, about 1237. Gregory IX. firſt appointed it to be general. St Bernard added the concluſion, *O dulcis! O pia*, &c.

SALVETAT, 2 towns of France: viz.

1. SALVETAT D'ANGLES, in the dep. of Herault, 7 miles NNW. of St Pons, and 19½ W. of Bedarrieux.

2. SALVETAT PEYRALIS, in the dep. of Aveiron, and diſtrict of Sauveterre; 6 miles W. of Sauveterre.

SALUGIA, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and ci-devant principality of Piedmont; 4 miles NW. of Creſcentio, and 7 NE. of Chivaſſo.

(1.) SALVI, John, an eminent Italian hiſtorical painter, born near Urbino in 1504. He excelled chiefly in copying the works of the great maſters, which he did with ſurpriſing accuracy. He died in 1590.

(2.) SALVI, Nicolas, an eminent architect, born at Rome, in 1699. Several monuments of his ſkil are to be ſeen in that city: the chief is the fountain of Trevi, executed by order of Clement XII. Salvi died in 1752.

SALVIA, SAGE, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the digynia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 42d order, *Verticillatæ*. The corolla is unequal; and the filaments placed croſs-wiſe on a pedicle. The moſt remarkable ſpecies are theſe:

1. SALVIA AURICULATA, common *ſage of virtu*,

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five, is well known in the gardens and markets. The leaves are narrower than those of the common sort; they are hoary, and some of them are indented on their edges towards the base, which indentures have the appearance of ears. The spikes of flowers are longer than those of either the 2d or 4th species, and the whorls are generally naked, having no leaves between them. The flowers are smaller, and of a deeper blue than those of common red sage. See N° 2.

2. SALVIA OFFICINALIS, the common large SAGE, which is cultivated in gardens, of which there are the following varieties: 1. The common green sage. 2. The wormwood sage. 3. The green sage, with a variegated leaf. 4. The red sage. 5. The red sage with a variegated leaf. These are accidental variations, and therefore are not enumerated as species. The common sage grows naturally in the southern parts of Europe, but is here cultivated in gardens for use; but that variety with red or blackish leaves is the most common in the British gardens; and the wormwood sage is in greater plenty here than the common green leaved sage, which is but in few gardens.

3. SALVIA POMIFERA, with spear-shaped oval entire leaves, grow naturally in Crete. It hath a shrubby stalk, which rises 4 or 5 feet high, dividing into several branches. The flowers grow in spikes at the end of the branches; they are of a pale blue colour, and have obtuse empalements. The branches have often punctures made in them by insects, at which places grow large protuberances as big as apples, in the same manner as the galls upon an oak, and the tough balls on the briar.

4. SALVIA TOMENTOSA, generally called *balsamic sage* by the gardeners. The stalks do not grow so upright as those of the common sage; they are very hairy, and divide into several branches, garnished with broad heart-shaped woolly leaves standing upon long foot stalks; they are sawed on their edges, and their upper surfaces are rough: the leaves, which are upon the flower stalks, are oblong and oval, standing upon shorter foot stalks, and are very slightly sawed on their edges; they grow in whorled spikes toward the top of the branches; the whorls are pretty far distant, but few flowers in each; they are of a pale blue, about the size of those of the common sort. This sage is preferred to all the others for making tea. All the sorts of sage may be propagated by seeds, if they can be procured; but, as some of them do not perfect their seeds in this country, and most of the sorts, but especially the common kinds for use, are easily propagated by slips, it is not worth while to raise them from seeds.

SALVIAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot; 6 miles SW. of Gourdon, and 16 NNW. of Cahors.

SALVIAN, or SALVIANUS, an ancient father of the Christian church, who flourished about A. D. 440, and was well skilled in the sciences. Some say he was a Gaul, others a German. He resided long at Triers. It is said that he lived in continence with his wife Palladia, as if she had been his sister; and that he was so afflicted at the wickedness of that age, that he was called the *Jeremiah of the fifth century*. He acquired a reputation for his piety and learning, that he was named the *master of the bishops*. He wrote a Treatise *on Providence*; another *on the Avarice of the Clergy*; and 9 *epistles*, of which Baluze has given an excellent edition; that of Conrad Kittershusius, in 2 vols 8vo, is also esteemed.

(1.) SALVIATI, Francis, an eminent painter, born at Florence, in 1510. His manner of designing came very near that of Raphael; and he performed in distemper, fresco, and oil. His naked figures are peculiarly graceful, as well as those in drapery. He died in 1563.

(2.) SALVIATI, Joseph, an eminent painter and mathematician, born in Venice, in 1535. His original name was *Porta*. He was often employed along with Paul Veronese and Tintoret. His skill was equally great in design and colouring: and he was so great a mathematician, that he wrote several useful *Treatises on Mathematics*. He died in 1585. Both these painters took the name of Salviati from a cardinal, who patronised them greatly.

SALVINI, Anthony Mary, a learned Italian who became professor of Greek at Florence. He translated Homer's Iliad and Odyssey; with the poems of Hesiod, Theocritus, Anacreon, and many of the minor Greek poets, into Italian verse. He was a member of the Academy De La Crusca (See ACADEMY, § VIII, N° 1.) and assisted very much in the compilation of their *Dictionary*, in 6 vols. He died at Florence, in 1729.

(1.) SALUM, a river of Africa, one of the branches of the Gambia, which waters the country of Salum, and runs into the Atlantic by several mouths.

(2.) SALUM, or BURSALI, a country of Africa, in Negroland, which is watered by the above river, and named from it. It extends about 36 miles in length, along the banks of the Salum and the Gambia.

(1.) * SALVO. *n. s.* [from *salvo jure*, Lat. a form used in granting any thing: as *salvo jure dei*.] An exception; a reservation; an excuse. They admit many *salvoes*, cautions, and restrictions. *K. Charles.*—It will be hard if he cannot bring himself off at last with some *salvo* or distinction. *L'Estrange.*—If others join with us distinctly in their religious professions of loyalty, without any private *salvoes* or evasions, they will do well to consider those maxims in which all parties are agreed. *Addison.*

(2.) SALVO, ST, in geography, a town of Naples, in the province of Abruzzo Citra: 16 miles SW. of Civita Borelia.

SALVORA, an island of the Atlantic, near the W. coast of Spain, and mouth of the Ulla. Lon. 7. 45. E. Teneriff. Lat. 42. 29. N.

SALVORE, or PUNTA DI, or DI SALBORE, SALVORI, } a town of Maritime Austria, in Istria: 3 miles N. of Umago, and S. of Piran. It is famous for a victory obtained by the Venetians, over the imperial fleet, commanded by Otho, son of the emperor Frederic I. who was taken prisoner.

SALURN, a town of imperial Austria, in the Tyrolese: 10 miles N. of Trent. Near it Pepin, duke of Trent, defeated the Franks, A. D. 776.

SALUS,

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ALUS, [Latin.] in the Roman mythology, goddeſs of health, and the daughter of Æſculus, called HYGIÆA by the Greeks. We find name on many medals of the Roman empe- with different inſcriptions; as, SALUS PUB- , SALUS REIPUBLICÆ, SALUS AUGUSTI,

ALUSTE, William De, Du Bartas, a ch poet, who lived in the 16th century. He employed by Henry IV. of France in England, nark, and Scotland; and commanded a troop rſe in Gaſcony, under marechal de Martig- He was a Calviniſt; and died in 1590, aged He wrote a great number of poems; the moſt us are, 1. The Week, or the Creation of the ld, in 7 books. 2. The Poem of Judith; and he battle of Ivry, gained by Henry IV. in . He wrote in a bombaſtic ſtyle.

SALUTARINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ſalutary.*] ſomneſs; quality of contributing to health ſety.

SALUTARY. *adj.* [*ſalutaire*, Fr. *ſalutaris*, Wholſome; healthful; ſafe; advantageous; ibuting to health or ſafety.—The gardens, , and avenues are dry and clean; and ſo more ry as more elegant. *Ray.*—It was want of in our Saviour's countrymen, which hinder- m from ſhedding among them the *ſalutary* ations of his divine virtue. *Bentley.*

SALUTATION. *n. ſ.* [*ſalutation*, Fr. *tio*, Lat.] The act or ſtile of ſaluting; greet-

The early village cock
th twice done *ſalutation* to the morn. *Shak.*

Thy kingdom's peers
ak my *ſalutation* in their minds. *Shak.*

On her the angel hail
low'd, the holy *ſalutation* uſed
bleſt Mary. *Milton.*

thoſe forms of *ſalutation*, reverence and de- uſual among the moſt ſober perſons. *Tayl.*

Court and ſtate he wiſely ſhuns;
r brib'd, to ſervile *ſalutations* runs. *Dryden.*

SALUTATION, VARIOUS MODES OF. When ſays the compiler of *L'Eſprit des Uſages et ſtumes*) ſalute each other in an amicable er, it ſignifies little whether they move a ular part of the body, or practiſe a particu- remony. In theſe actions there muſt exiſt nt cuſtoms. Every nation imagines it em- the moſt reaſonable ones. This infinite r of ceremonies may be reduced to two to reverences or ſalutations; and to the of ſome part of the human body. Modes ıtation have very different characters, and it unintereſting to examine their ſhades. Ma- play a refinement of delicacy; others are kable for their ſimplicity, or ſenſibility. anders, near the Philippines, take the hand t of him they ſalute, and with it they gent- their face. The Laplanders apply their trongly againſt that of the perſon they ſalute, ier ſays, that at New Guinea they are ſatis- placing on their heads the leaves of trees, have ever paſſed for ſymbols of friendſhip eace. Other ſalutations are very incommo- ; it requires great practice to enable a man polite in an iſland in the Straits of the Sound. Houtman tells us, "They raiſed his left foot, which they paſſed gently over the right leg, and thence over his face." The inhabitants of the Philippines bend their body very low, in placing their hands on their cheeks, and raiſing at the ſame time one foot in the air, with their knee bent. An Ethiopian takes the robe of another, and ties it about his own waiſt, ſo that he leaves his friend half naked. This cuſtom of undreſſing takes other forms; ſometimes men place themſelves naked before the perſon whom they ſalute; to ſhow their humility, and that they are unworthy of a covering in his preſence. This was practiſed before Sir Joſeph Banks, when he received the viſit of two Otaheitan ladies. Their innocent ſimplicity did not appear immodeſt in the eyes of the *virtuoſo*. Sometimes they only undreſs partially. The Japaneſe only take off a ſlipper; the people of Arracan, their ſandals in the ſtreet, and their ſtockings in the houſe. The grandees of Spain claim the right of appearing covered before the king, to ſhow that they are not ſo much ſubjected to him as the reſt of the nation. Snelgrave gives an odd repreſentation of the embaſſy which the king of Dahomy ſent to him. The ceremonies of ſalutation conſiſted in the moſt ridiculous contortions. When two negro monarchs viſit, they embrace in ſnapping three times the middle finger. Barbarous nations frequently imprint on their ſalutations their character. When the inhabitants of Carmena (ſays Athenæus) would ſhow a peculiar mark of eſteem, they breathed a vein, and preſented for the beverage of their friend the blood as it iſſued. The Franks tore hair from their head, and preſented it to the perſon whom they ſaluted. The ſlave cut his hair, and offered it to his maſter. The Chineſe are ſingularly affected in their perſonal civilities: they even calculate the number of their reverences. The men move their hands in an affectionate manner, while they are joined together on the breaſt, and bow their head a little. If two perſons meet after a long ſeparation, they both fall on their knees, and bend their faces to the earth, and this they repeat 2 or 3 times. They ſubſtitute artificial ceremonies for natural actions. Their expreſſions mean as little as their ceremonies. If a Chineſe is aſked how he finds himſelf in health? he anſwers, *Very well; thanks to your abundant felicity.* If they would tell a man that he looks well, they ſay, *Proſperity is painted on your face;* or, *your air announces your happineſs.* All theſe and many other anſwers are preſcribed by the Chineſe academy of compliments. There are determined the number of bows: the expreſſions to be employed; the genuflections; and the inclinations to be made to the right or left hand; the ſalutations of the maſter before the chair where the ſtranger is to be ſeated, for he ſalutes it moſt profoundly, and wipes the duſt away with the ſkirts of his robe. The lower claſs of people are equally nice in theſe punctilios; and ambaſſadors paſs 40 days in practiſing them before they can appear at court. A tribunal of ceremonies has been erected, and every day very odd decrees are iſſued, to which the Chineſe moſt religiouſly ſubmit. The marks of honour are frequently arbitrary; to be ſeated, with us, is a mark of repoſe and familiarity; to ſtand up,

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up, that of reſpect. There are countries, however, in which princes will only be addreſſed by perſons who are ſeated, and it is conſidered as a favour to be permitted to ſtand in their preſence. This cuſtom prevails in deſpotic countries: a deſpot cannot ſuffer without diſguſt the elevated figure of his ſubjects; he is pleaſed to bend their bodies with their genius: his preſence muſt lay thoſe who behold him proſtrate on the earth: he deſires no careſſes, no attention; he would only inſpire terror. The pope makes no reverence to any mortal except the emperor of Germany, or of the French, to the latter of whom he was obliged to ſtoop very lately, when he crowned him. See REVOLUTION, § VI. 48.

(1.) * SALUTE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Salutation; greeting.—The cuſtom of praying for thoſe that ſneeze is more ancient than theſe opinions hereof; ſo that not any one diſeaſe has been the occaſion of this *ſalute* and deprecation. *Brown.*

O, what avails me now that honour high
To have conceiv'd of God, or that *ſalute*,
Hail highly favour'd, among women bleſt!
Milton.

—Continual *ſalutes* and addreſſes entertaining him all the way, kept him from living ſo great a life. *South.*—I ſhall not trouble my reader with the firſt *ſalutes* of our three friends. *Addiſon.* 2. A kiſs.—

There cool *ſalutes*, but here a lover's kiſs.
Roſcommon.

(2.) SALUTE, in military matters, a diſcharge of artillery, or ſmall arms, or both, in honour of ſome perſon of extraordinary quality. The *colours* likewiſe ſalute royal perſons, and generals commanding in chief; which is done by lowering the point to the ground. In the field, when a regiment is to be reviewed by the king or his general, the drums beat a march as he paſſes along the line, and the officer ſalute one after another, by waving their half-pikes or ſwords to the ground; then recover and take off their hats. The enſigns ſalute all together by lowering their colours.

(3.) SALUTE, in the navy, a teſtimony of *deference* or homage rendered by the ſhips of one nation to another, or by ſhips of the ſame nation to a ſuperior or equal. This ceremony is variouſly performed, according to the circumſtances, rank, or ſituation, of the parties. It conſiſts in firing a certain number of cannon, or volleys of ſmall arms; in ſtriking the colours or top-ſails; or in one or more general ſhouts of the whole ſhip's crew, mounted on maſts or rigging for that purpoſe. The principal regulations with regard to ſalutes in the royal navy are as follows: When a flag-officer ſalutes the admiral and commander in chief of the fleet, he is to give him 15 guns; but when captains ſalute him, they are to give him ſeventeen guns. The admiral and commander in chief of the fleet is to return two guns leſs to flag-officers, and four leſs to captains. Flag-officers ſaluting their ſuperior or ſenior officer, are to give him thirteen guns. Flag-officers are to return an equal number of guns to flag officers bearing their flags on the ſame maſt, and two guns leſs to the reſt as alſo to the captains. When a captain ſalutes an admiral of the white or blue, he is to give him fifteen guns; but to vice and rear admirals, thirteen guns. When a flag officer is ſaluted by two or more of his majeſty's ſhips, he is not to return the firſt till all have finiſhed, and then to do it with a reaſonable number of guns as he ſhall judge proper. In caſe of the meeting of two equadrons, the two chiefs only are to exchange ſalutes. But if ſingle ſhips meet a ſquadron conſiſting of more than one flag, the principal flag only is to be ſaluted. No ſalutes ſhall be repeated by the ſame ſhips, unleſs there has been a ſeparation of ſix months at leaſt. None of his majeſty's ſhips of war, commanded only by captains, ſhall give or receive ſalutes from one another, in whatever part of the world they meet. A flag officer commanding in chief ſhall be ſaluted, upon his hoiſting his flag, by all the ſhips preſent, with ſuch a number of guns as is allowed by the ſecond, third, or fifth articles. When any of his majeſty's ſhips ſhall meet with any ſhip or ſhips belonging to any foreign prince or ſtate, within his majeſty's ſeas (which extend to Cape Finiſterre), it is expected, that the ſaid foreign ſhips ſtrike their top-ſail, and take in their flag, in acknowledgement of his majeſty's ſovereignty of thoſe ſeas: and if any ſhall refuſe or offer to do it, it is enjoined to all flag-officers and commanders to uſe their utmoſt endeavours to compel them thereto, and not ſuffer any diſhonour to be offered to his majeſty. And if any of his majeſty's ſubjects ſhall ſo much forget their duty, as to omit ſtriking their top-ſail in paſſing by his majeſty's ſhips, the name of the ſhip and maſter, and from whence, and whither bound, together with the circumſtances of the fact, are to be ſent up to the lords of the admiralty, in order to their being proceeded againſt in the admiralty court. And it is to be obſerved, that in his majeſty's ſeas, his majeſty's ſhips are in nowiſe to ſtrike to any; and in all other parts, no ſhip of his majeſty's is to ſtrike her flag or top-ſail to any foreigner, unleſs the foreign ſhip ſhall have firſt ſtruck, or at the ſame time ſtrike, her flag or top-ſail to his majeſty's ſhip. The flag-officers and commanders of his majeſty's ſhips are to be careful to maintain his majeſty's honour upon all occaſions, and the protection to his ſubjects and endeavours wherever they lie, to ſecure and encourage them in their lawful commerce; and they are not to injure, in any manner, the ſubjects of his majeſty's friends and allies. If a foreign admiral meets with one of his majeſty's ſhips, and ſalutes them, he is to receive gun for gun. If he be a vice-admiral, the admiral ſhall anſwer with two guns leſs. If a rear admiral, the admiral and vice-admiral ſhall return two leſs. But if the ſhip be commanded by a captain only, the flag-officer ſhall give two guns leſs, and captains an equal number. When any ſhip of his majeſty's ſhips come to an anchor in a foreign port or road, within cannon-ſhot of its fort, the captain may ſalute the place with ſuch a number of guns as have been cuſtomary, upon aſſurance of having the like number returned, and not otherwiſe. But if the ſhip bears a flag, the flag officer ſhall firſt carefully inform himſelf if the flags of the like rank, belonging to other crowned heads, have given or returned ſalutes, and to inſiſt upon the ſame terms of reſpect. It is alſo left to the commanders of his majeſty's ſhips in ſeveral parts, to ſalute the perſons of any admirals, commanders

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ers in chief, or captains of ſhips of war of n nations, and foreign noblemen, or ſtran- of quality, as alſo the factors of the king's ſts, coming on board to viſit the ſhip; and mber of guns is left to the commander, as x ſuitable to the occaſion and the quality of erſon viſiting; but he is nevertheleſs to re- accountable for any exceſſes in the abuſe of iberty. If the ſhip viſited be in company other ſhips of war, the captain is not to uſe of the civilities allowed in the preceding s but with leave and conſent of the com- r in chief or the ſenior captain. Merchant whether foreigners or belonging to his ma- ſubjects, ſaluting the admiral of the fleet, e anſwered by ſix guns leſs; when they ſa- ny other flag-ſhips, they ſhall be anſwered ir guns leſs; and if they ſalute men of war anded by captains, they ſhall be anſwered o guns leſs. If ſeveral merchant-ſhips ſalute mpany, no return is to be made till all have d, and then by ſuch a number of guns as e thought proper; but though the merchant- hould anſwer, there ſhall be no ſecond re- None of his majeſty's ſhips of war ſhall ſa- ay of his majeſty's forts or caſtles in Great or Ireland, on any pretence whatſoever."

To SALUTE. *v. a.* [*ſaluto*, Lat. *ſaluer*, Fr.] greet; to hail.—

The golden ſun *ſalutes* the morn. *Shak.*

One hour hence
Ill *ſalute* your grace of York. *Shak.*

pleaſe; to gratify.—

Would I had no being,
his *ſalute* my blood a jot. *Shak.*

kiſs.

SALUTER. *n. ſ.* [from *ſalute*.] He who ſa-

SALUTIFEROUS. *adj.* [*ſalutifer*, Latin.] y; bringing health.—Nothing would con- more to the reſtoring of his former vigour the gentle *ſalutiferous* air of Montpelier.

SALUZZO, a ci-devant marquiſate and ce of Piedmont, now annexed to the French , and included in the dep. of the Po. It ounded on the N. by Dauphiny and the ce of the Four Valleys; on the E. by thoſe gliano and Foſſano, on the S. by that of nd the county of Nice, and on the W. by onetta.

SALUZZO, called by the French **SALUCES**, and caſtle of the French empire, in the the Po, late capital of the above marqui- It is ſituated on an eminence at the foot of ps near the Po. Lon. 18. 27. E. Lat. 44.

UZZOLO, a town of the French empire, department of the Sezia, and ci-devant o of Vercelli: 8 miles NW. of St Ja, and NW. of Vercelli.

WARP, a town and river of England, in ſterſhire, near Droitwich. The river runs e Severn, near Worceſter.

YES, an ancient nation of Gaul, who inha- he banks of the Rhone. *Liv.* v. c. 34, 35. 26.

SALZ, a river of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, which runs into the Werra, 2 miles S. of Salz Uflen.

(2.) **SALZ DALUM**, a town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy of Wolfen- buttel, ſo called from a ſalt work near it, diſco- vered in the 13th century. It has an elegant ſeat, built by Duke Anthony Ulric. It lies 4 miles NE. of Wolfenbuttel.

(3.) **SALZ DER HELDEN**, a town of Lower Saxo- ony, in Grubenhagen, on the Leine, with a ſalt work; 2 miles SE. of Einbeck, and 8 N. of Nord- heim.

(4.) **SALZ HEMENDORF**, a town of Lower Sax- ony, in Calenberg; containing 3 ſalt ſprings, for boiling the water, of which there are 12 houſes; 3 belonging to his majeſty, and 9 to the company. In the former, coals are burnt; in the latter, wood. Its citizens elect their own magiſtrates, and enjoy other conſiderable privileges, granted by K. George II. in 1732. It is 12 miles ESE. of Hameln, and 19 WSW. of Hildeſheim.

(5.) **SALZ UFLEN**, a town of Weſtphalia, in the county of Lippe, on the Salz. It has a rich ſalt ſpring; and lies 11 miles N. of Detmold, and 14 SW. of Minden.

(1.) **SALZA**, a river of Germany, which riſes in the S. part of Auſtria, and runs into the Enns, near Reiffling, in Upper Stiria.

(2.) **SALZA**, a river of Bavaria, in Salzburg, to which it gives name, and which runs into the Inn, 5 miles NE. of Burckhauſen, in Salzburg.

(3.) **SALZA**, a town of Upper Saxony, in Meiſ- ſen; 19 miles E. of Stolpen.

SALZACH, a river of Germany, which riſes in the S. part of Salzburg, on the borders of the Ty- roleſe; paſſes by Halein, Salzburg, Lauffen, Titt- maning, Burkhauſen, &c. and runs into the Inn, 5 miles NNE. of Burkhauſen.

SALZBURG, the original and proper ſpelling of *Saltzburg*, though the latter is moſt generally uſed by Engliſh writers. See **SALTZBURG**, N° 1, and 2.

SALZGITTER. See **SALZLIEBENHALL.**

SALZKOTTEN, or **SALTKOTT**, a town of Germany, in the ci-devant biſhopric of Paderborn; (See **PADERBORN**, N° 1.) 6 miles SW. of Pader- born, and 10 ESE. of Lippſtatt. It has ſalt ſprings. Lon. 25. 53. E. of Ferro. Lat. 51. 36. N.

SALZLIEBENHALL, or **SALZGITTER**, a town of Lower Saxony, in the biſhopric of Hil- deſheim, near ſome ſalt ſprings, belonging to the D. of Brunſwick, 11 miles N. of Goſlar.

SALZOLA, a town of Naples, in the province of Capitanata: 6 miles ESE. of Aſcoli.

SALZUNGEN, a town of Franconia, in Hen- neberg, on the Werra; famous for its ſalt ſprings; 7 miles NW. of Schmalkalden.

SALZWEDEL, a town of Brandenburg, in the Old Mark, ſeated in a marſhy ſoil, on the Jetze, which divides the New and Old towns, each of which has ſeparate magiſtrates and churches. It was anciently one of the Hanſe Towns. It is 20 miles NNW. of Gardeleben, and 48 ENE. of Zell. Lon. 11. 30. E. Lat. 52. 55. N.

SAM, or **SAMIEL**. See **ARABIA**, § 2; **DAMP**, § 7; **EGYPT**, § 37; **SAMIEL**, and **SIMOOM**.

(1.) **SAMA**, a town and fort of **ANGA**, in the Indies.

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hands of the Dutch on the Gold Coaſt of Africa, ſtanding on an eminence, the fort being watered by the pleaſant river St George. The town contains above 200 houſes, which ſeem to form 3 diſtinct villages, one of which is immediately under the cannon of the Dutch fort St Sebaſtian. Des Marchais deems this town to be one of the largeſt on the whole coaſt; Barbot likewiſe agrees with him in its ſituation, extent, and population. The ſole employment of the natives is fiſhing. The government is republican, the magiſtrates having the ſupreme power, being ſubject to periodical changes, under the authority of the king of Gavi, who ſ dom however interferes in the affairs of the ſtate. This prince reſides ſome leagues diſtant from the ſea, is rich, and much reſpected by his neighbours.

(2.) SAMA, or ST JOHN, a river of Africa, which is worſhipped as a deity by the natives. It croſſes the Gold Coaſt, and falls into the Atlantic, in Lon. 1. 35. E. Lat. 4. 51. N.

(3.) SAMA, a town of Spain, in the province of Aſturias; 7 miles W. of Oviedo.

SAMACHINA, a town of Ruſſia, in Irkutſk; 68 miles NW. of Ilimſk.

SAMADANG, a town in the iſle of Java, on a river within the iſland; 160 miles SE. of Batavia.

SAMADAVA, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the Arabian Irak, on the Euphrates; 115 miles S. of Bagdad.

SAMAEL. See SCAPE-GOAT.

SAMAGALOVA, a town of Ruſſia, in Tobolſk, on the Tara; 60 miles N. of Krauſk.

SAMAHE, or } an iſland in the SW. part of
SAMAK, } the Gulf of Perſia; about 36 miles in circumference. Lon. 48. 35. E. Lat. 26. 40. N.

SAMAL, or SAMAR. See SAMAR.

SAMALOUT, a town of Egypt, on the W. bank of the Nile: 14 miles S. of Abo-Girge, and 22 N. of Aſhmunien.

(1.) SAMANA, an iſland near the E. coaſt of Hiſpaniola, 33 miles long, and from 7 to 9 broad. Lon. 69. 22. W. Lat. 19. 13. N.

(2.) SAMANA BAY, a bay between Samana and Hiſpaniola.

SAMANÆANS. See SAMANEANS.

SAMANAH, a town of Hindooſtan; 50 miles W. of Delhi.

SAMANDRACHI, an iſland of European Turkey, in the Archipelago, between Salinent and Romania, N. of the Iſle, of Imbro. It was anciently called SAMOTHRACE. It is 20 miles in circumference, and pretty well cultivated. Lon. 25. 17. E. Lat. 40. 34. N.

SAMANEANS, an ancient philoſophical ſect or Society of India, mentioned by Greek writers, who devoted themſelves entirely to the ſtudy of divine wiſdom, and gave up all private property, committing the care of their families to the State. Their Society was ſupported at the public expence. They were a kind of magi, and have been confounded by ſome with the Bramins. They proceeded from Ariana, a province of Perſia, and the neighbouring countries, ſpread themſelves in India, and taught new doctrines. The Bramins, before their arrival, were in the higheſt period of their glory, were the only oracles of India, and their principal reſidence was on the banks of the Ganges, and in the adjacent mountains, while the Samaneans were ſettled towards the Indus. Others ſay, that the Bramins acquired all their knowledge from the Samaneans. The moſt celebrated and ancient of the Samanean doctors was Boutta, or BUDDA, who was born A. C. 683. His ſcholars paid him divine honours; and his doctrine, which conſiſted chiefly in the tranſmigration of ſouls, and in the worſhip of cows, was adopted not only in India, but alſo in Japan, China, Siam, and Tartary. It was propagated, according to M. de Saint Croix, in Thibet, in the 8th century, and ſucceeded there the ancient religion of Zamolxis. The Samaneans, or Buddiſts, were entirely deſtroyed in India by the jealous rage of the Bramins, whoſe abſurd practices and fables they affected to treat with contempt; but ſeveral of their books are ſtill preſerved and reſpected on the coaſts of Malabar. Several of the Bramin orders have alſo adopted their manner of living, and openly profeſs the greateſt part of their doctrines. *L'Ezour Vedam ou Ancien Commentaire du Vedam*, publiſhed by M. de S. Croix, Paris 1779. See BRAMINS.

SAMAR, or SAMAL, one of the Philippine Iſlands, in the E. Indian Ocean near Manilla, belonging to Spain. It is called *Samar* on the side which looks towards the other iſles, and *Leyte* on that next the ocean. It is like the trunk of a man's body, without head or legs. Its greateſt length, from Cape Baliquaton, which, with the point of Manilla, makes the ſtrait of St Bernardino, in 13° 30′ Lat. N. extends to that of Guinan in 11° towards the S. The other two points making the greateſt breadth of the iſland are Cabo de SPIRITO SANTO, or *Cape of the Holy Ghoſt*, the high mountains of which are the firſt land deſcried by ſhips from New Spain; and that which, lying oppoſite to LEYTE weſtward, makes another ſtrait, ſcarce a ſtone's throw over. The whole compaſs of the iſland is about 130 leagues. Between Guignan and Cape Spirito Santo is the port of Borognon, and near it thoſe of Palapag and Catubig, the iſland of Bin, and the coaſt of Catarman. Veſſels from countries not yet diſcovered are often wrecked on the coaſt of Samar. With the ſtraits of St Bernardino, and beyond Baliquaton, on the coaſt of Samar, are the villages of Ibatan, Bangahon, Cathalogan, Paranas, and Calviga. Then follows the ſtrait of St Juan, beyond which, on the E. appears the point of the iſland of Guignan, where the compaſs of Samar ends. It is mountainous and craggy, but in the plains it is exceedingly fertile, and produces, with very little cultivation, a vaſt variety of plants and fruits; particularly rice yams, potatoes, cocoa-nuts, ſugar canes, oranges, lemons, melons, and a great number of other fruits totally unknown in Europe: particularly one called by the Spaniards *cheiroy*, and by the Chineſe, who put a great value on it, SEYZU, without kernels. The woods abound with buffaloes, roebucks, large monkeys, parroquets, cockatoos, and many other rare birds, particularly one very ſmall ſpecies, about the ſize of a waſp, but of the moſt beautiful mixture of yellow, red and blue. The natives are very ingenious at various manufactures, particularly

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ies of Indian mat of so fine a texture that a e of 6 feet can easily be put into a pocket. se they also paint in various designs with beau- and lively colours. The men are easy, open affable; the women lively and gay. They formerly Mahometans, but were converted hristianity by the Jesuits.

.) SAMARA, in botany; a genus of the mo- nia order, belonging to the tetrandria class lants. The calyx is quadripartite, the corolla petalous; the stamina immersed in the base e petal; the stigma funnel-shaped.

.) SAMARA, in geography, a town of Russia, e province of Simbirsk, near the Volga: 76 s SSE. of Simbirsk. Lon. 67. 12. E. Ferro. 53. 20. N.

.) SAMARA, a river of Russia, which rises near Perevolotskaia, and falls into the Volga, near ara, in Simbirsk.

.) SAMARA, a town of Russia, in the province pha, at the junction of the Salmisch and Sak- : 12 miles N. of Orenburg. Lon. 72. 50. E. 0. Lat. 53. 0. N.

.) SAMARA, a river of Russia, in Ekateri- f, which runs into the Volga; 8 miles from Moschow.

AMARAIN, or SERMIN, a town of Syria, in rovince of Aleppo: 25 m. SSW. of Aleppo.

AMARANG, a town of Java, on the E. coast.

AMARCAND, or SARMACAND, an ancient famous town of Asia, capital of a kingdom of e name in the country of the Usbeck Tar- with a castle and a famous university. The es are built with stones, and it carries on a : in excellent fruits. It was the capital of ingdom of SOGDIA in the time of Alexander Great, when it was called MARACANDA. It afterwards the capital of the empire of Ta- ane the Great. In the time of Jenghiz Khan, s forced to yield to the arms of that cruel ueror, by whom the garrison, amounting to 0 men, were butchered; 30,000 of the in- ants, with their wives and children, were nted to his generals; the rest were permit- o live in the city, on paying a tribute of 00 dinars or crowns of gold. It is seated the Sogde, a branch of the Amu. Lon. 69. Lat. 39. 50. N.

AMARI, or TANDAY. See SAMAR.

) SAMARIA, in ancient geography, one of hree larger districts on this side of the Jordan, ed in the middle between Galilee on the N. Judea on the S. beginning at the village Gi- in the Campus Magnus, and ending at the city called *Acrobatena*. (*Josephus.*) Its differed in nothing from that of Judea; both lly hilly and champaign, both equally fertile rn and fruit: (*id.*) Called the *kingdom of Sa- a in Ephraim* (*Bible*); comprising the ten s, and consequently all the country to the of Judea and east and west of Jordan. the kingdom and city (N° 2.) are now ca- *Nablous*. See NABLOUS, N° 1 and 2.

) SAMARIA, the capital city of the kingdom maria, or of the ten tribes. It was built by king of Israel, who began to reign A. M. , and died in 3086. (1 Kings xvi. 24.) He ht the hill SAMARIA of Shemer for two ta- lents of silver, or for the sum of L. 684 : 7 : 6. It took the name of *Samaria* from Shemer the owner of the hill; though some think there were already some beginnings of a city, because, before the reign of Omri, there is mention made of Samaria (1 Kings xiii. 32.) in A. M. 3030. But others take this for a prolepsis, or an anticipation, in the discourse of the man of God, who speaks of Samaria under the reign of Jeroboam. However this be, it is certain that Samaria was no considerable place, and did not become the capital of the kingdom of Israel till after the reign of Omri. Before him, the kings of Israel dwelt at Shechem, or at Tirzah. Samaria was situated upon an agreeable and fruitful hill, and an advantageous situation, and was 12 miles from Dothaim, 12 from Merom, and 4 from Atharoth. Josephus says, it was a day's journey from Jerusalem. Besides, though it was built upon an eminence, yet it must have had water in abundance; since we find medals struck in this city, whereon is represented the goddess Astarte treading a river under foot. And Josephus says, that when it was taken by John Hyrcanus, he caused the brook to flow over its ruins, to obliterate all marks of it. The kings of Samaria omitted nothing to make this city the strongest, the finest, and the richest, that was possible. Ahab built there a palace of ivory, (1 Kings xxii. 39.) that is there were many ornaments of ivory in it. Amos describes Samaria under Jeroboam II, as a city sunk into all excesses of luxury and effeminacy. (Amos iii. 15. and iv. 1, 2.) Ben-hadad king of Syria built public places or streets in Samaria, (1 Kings xx. 34.) probably for traffic, where his people dwelt to promote trade. His son Ben-hadad besieged it under Ahab, (1 Kings xx. 1, 2, 3, &c.) A. M. 3103. In 3104, Ben-hadad brought an army into the field, but it was again cut in pieces. Some years after this, Ben-hadad came a 3d time, lay down before Samaria, and reduced it to such necessities by famine, that a mother was there forced to eat her own child; but the city was relieved by a sensible exertion of the protection of God. Lastly, it was besieged by Shalmaneser king of Assyria, in the 9th year of Hoshea king of Israel, (2 Kings xvii. 6, 7, &c.) and fourth of Hezekiah king of Judah. It was taken three years after, in A. M. 3283. The prophet Hosea speaks of the cruelties exercised by Shalmaneser against the besieged; (Hos. x. 4—8.) and Micah says, that this city was reduced to a heap of stones. (Mic. i. 6.) The Cuthites, who were sent by Esar-haddon to inhabit the country of Samaria, did not think it worth their while to repair the ruins of this city; they dwelt at Shechem, which they made their capital. They were still upon this footing when Alexander the Great came into Phœnicia and Judea. However the Cuthites had rebuilt some of the houses of Samaria, from the time of the return from the captivity, since Ezra then speaks of the inhabitants of Samaria; (Ezra iv. 17. Nehem. iv. 2.) and the Samaritans, jealous of the favours that Alexander the Great had conferred on the Jews, revolted from him while he was in Egypt, and burnt Andromachus alive, whom Alexander had left governor of Syria. Alexander marched

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againſt them, took Samaria, and put in Macedonians to inhabit it; giving the country round it to the Jews; and to encourage them to cultivate it, he granted them an exemption from tribute. The kings of Egypt and Syria, who ſucceeded Alexander, deprived them of the property of this country. But Alexander Balas king of Syria reſtored to Jonathan Maccabæus the cities of Lydda, Ephrem, and Ramatha, which he cut off from the country of Samaria, (1 Mac. x. 30, 38, and xi. 28, 34.) Laſtly, the Jews re-entered into the full poſſeſſion of this whole country under John Hyrcanus, the Aſmonæan, who took Samaria, and ruined it as above mentioned. It continued in this condition to A. M 3947, when Aulus Gabinius, the proconſul of Syria, rebuilt it, and gave it the name of *Gabiniana*. But it was ſtill inconſiderable, till Herod the Great reſtored it to its ancient luſtre, and named it SEBASTE, the Greek for *Auguſta*, in honour of Auguſtus, who had given him the property of it. The ſacred authors of the New Teſtament mention but little of Samaria; and when they do, it is rather of the country about it, than of the city. (See Luke xvii. 11. John iv. 4, 5.) It was there our Lord had the converſation with a Samaritan woman of Sychar. After the death of St Stephen, (Acts viii. 1, 2, 3.) when the diſciples were diſperſed through Judea and Samaria, St Philip the deacon withdrew into the city of Samaria, where he made ſeveral converts. When the apoſtles heard that this city had received the word of God, they ſent Peter and John thither, to communicate the Holy Ghoſt to ſuch as had been baptized. There they found Simon Magus. (See SIMON.) Samaria is never called *Sebaſte* in the New Teſtament, tho' ſtrangers hardly knew it but by this name. St Jerome ſays, that it was thought Obadiah was buried at Samaria. They alſo ſhewed there the tombs of Eliſha and of St John the Baptiſt. There are found many ancient medals that were ſtruck at Sebaſte, and Samaria, and ſome biſhops of this city have ſubſcribed to the ancient councils.

(3.) SAMARIA, a hill of Samaria, on which the above city was built. See N° 2.

SAMARIEN, a town of Germany, in the Imperial Auſtria, 6 miles W. of Horn.

SAMARITANS, the people of the city and province of Samaria. In this ſenſe, it ſhould ſeem that we might give the name of Samaritans to the Iſraelites of the ten tribes, who lived in the city and territory of Samaria. However, the ſacred authors give the name of Samaritans only to thoſe ſtrangers, whom the kings of Aſſyria ſent from beyond the Euphrates to inhabit the kingdom of Samaria, when they carried captive the Iſraelites that were there before. Thus we may fix the epoch of the Samaritans at the taking of Samaria by Salmaneſer, in A. M. 3283. This prince carried away the Iſraelites, and aſſigned them dwellings beyond the Euphrates, and in Aſſyria. (2 Kings xvii. 24.) He ſent other inhabitants in their ſtead, of whom the moſt conſiderable were the Cuthites, a people deſcended from Cuſh, and who are probably of the number of thoſe whom the ancients knew by the name of Scythians. (See CUTH, N° 2.) His ſucceſſor Eſar-haddon, being informed, that the people which had been ſent to Samaria were infeſted by lions, (2 Kings xvii. 25.) imputed it to their ignorance of the manner of worſhipping the god of the country; and ſent a prieſt of the God of Iſrael that he might teach them the religion of the Hebrews. But they blended this religion with that which they profeſſed before; ſo they continued to worſhip their idols, in conjunction with the God of Iſrael, not perceiving how incompatible theſe two religions were. It is not known how long they continued in this ſtate; but at the return from the captivity of Babylon, they had entirely quitted the worſhip of their idols; and when they aſked permiſſion of the Iſraelites that they might labour with them at the rebuilding the temple of Jeruſalem, they affirmed, that from the time that Eſar-haddon had brought them into this country they had always worſhipped the Lord. (Ezra iv. 1, 2, 3.) And indeed, after the return from the captivity, the ſcripture no-where reproaches them with idolatrous worſhip, though it does not diſſemble either their jealouſy againſt the Jews, or the ill offices they had done them at the court of Perſia, by their ſlanders and calumnies, or the ſtratagems they contrived to hinder the repairing of the walls of Jeruſalem. (Nehem. ii. 10, 19. iv. 2, &c. vi. 1, 2, &c.) It does not appear that there was any temple in Samaria, in common to all theſe people who came thither from beyond the Euphrates, before the coming of Alexander the Great into Judea. Till then every one was left to his own diſcretion, and worſhipped the Lord where he thought fit. But they ſoon comprehended, from the books of Moſes which they had in their hands, and from the example of the Jews, that God was to be worſhipped in that place only which he had choſen. As they could not go to the temple of Jeruſalem, which the Jews would not permit, they reſolved to build a temple of their own upon mount Gerizim, near Shechem, their capital. Therefore Sanballat, the governor of the Samaritans, applied to Alexander, as Joſephus ſays, but more probably to Darius Nothus, king of Perſia, as Dr Prideaux ſuppoſes; (ſee SANBALLAT;) and told him he had a ſon-in-law, called Manaſſes, ſon to Jaddus the high-prieſt of the Jews, who had retired to Samaria, with a great number of other perſons of his own nation; that he deſired to build a temple in this province, where he might exerciſe the high-prieſthood; that this undertaking would be to the advantage of the king's affairs, becauſe in building a temple in the province of Samaria, the nation of the Jews would be divided, who were a turbulent and ſeditious people, and by ſuch a diviſion would be made weaker, and leſs in a condition to undertake new enterprizes. The king readily conſented to what Sanballat deſired, and the Samaritans preſently began their building of the temple of Gerizim, which from that time they have always frequented, and ſtill frequent as the place where the Lord intended to receive the adoration of his people. It is of this mountain and of this temple, that the Samaritan woman of Sychar ſpoke to our Saviour. (John iv. 20.) See GERIZIM. Joſephus adds, that the Samaritans did not long continue ſubject to Alexander: they revolted

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olted the very next year, and he drove them of Samaria, put Macedonians in their room, gave the province of Samaria to the Jews. is preference that Alexander gave to the Jews tributed not a little to increaſe that hatred that already obtained between theſe two people. hen an Iſraelite had deſerved puniſhment for violation of ſome important point of the law, took refuge in Samaria. When the Jews were a proſperous condition, and affairs were favour- e to them, the Samaritans called themſelves brews, and pretended to be of the race of A- ham. But when the Jews fell under perſecu- n, the Samaritans diſowned them, and acknow- ged themſelves to be Phœnicians originally. is was their practice in the time of Antiochus iphanes. The Samaritans, having received the ntateuch from the prieſt that was ſent by Eſar- ddon, have preſerved it to this day, in the ſame guage and character it was then, that is, in the Hebrew or Phœnician character, which we w call the Samaritan, to diſtinguiſh it from the dern Hebrew character, at preſent uſed in the oks of the Jews. Theſe laſt, after their capti- y, changed their old characters, and took up ole of the Chaldee, which they had been uſed at Babylon, and which they continue to uſe. is wrong, ſays F. Calmet, to give this the name the Hebrew character, for that can be ſaid pro- rly only of the Samaritan text. The critics have ten notice of ſome variations between the Pen- euch of the Jews and that of the Samaritans; t theſe chiefly regard the word *Gerizim*, which e Samaritans purpoſely introduced to favour eir pretenſions, that mount Gerizim was the ace in which the Lord was to be adored. The gion of this people was at firſt the Pagan. ery one worſhipped the deity they had been ld to. (2 Kings xvii. 29—31.) The Babylonians orſhipped Succoth-benoth; the Cuthites, Ner- l; the Hamathites, Aſhima; the Avites, Nibhaz d TARTAK; the Sepharvites, ADRAMMELECH d ANAMMELECH. See ASHTAROTH, SUCCOTH- NOTH, &c. Afterwards, the Samaritans added ne of the Lord, the God of Iſrael. (*Ibid.* 32, 33.) ut they gave a proof of their little regard to this orſhip or the true God, when under Antiochus piphanes they conſecrated their temple at Geri- m to *Jupiter Argivus*. In the time of Alexan- er the Great, they celebrated the ſabbatical year, id conſequently the year of jubilee alſo. Under e kings of Syria they followed the epoch of the reeks, or that of the Seleucidæ. After Herod id re-eſtabliſhed Samaria, and given it the name f SEBASTE, the inhabitants, in their medals, and l public acts, took the date of this new eſtabliſh- ent. But the old inhabitants of Samaria, of hom the greater part were Pagans or Jews, were o rule to the other Samaritans, who probably ckoned their years by the reigns of the empe- rs they were ſubject to, till they fell under the Ishmaelites, under whom they live at this day; id they reckon their year by the Hegira, or, ac- ording to the era of the Ishmaelites. Such as de- re to be further acquainted with the hiſtory of e ancient Samaritans, we refer to the works of OSEPHUS. As to their religion, it is ſaid, that they receive only the Pentateuch, and reject all the other books of ſcripture, chiefly the prophets, who have expreſsly declared the coming of the Meſſiah.—They have alſo been accuſed of believing God to be corporeal, of denying the Holy Ghoſt, and the reſurrection of the dead. Jeſus Chriſt ſays, (John iv. 22.) they worſhip they know not what. The Samaritan woman is a ſufficient teſtimony that the Samaritans expected a Meſſiah, who they hoped would clear up all their doubts. (John iv. 25.) Several of the inhabitants of Shechem believed at the preaching of Jeſus Chriſt, and ſeveral of Samaria believed at that of St Philip. The modern Samaritans are not numerous. Joſeph Scaliger, being curious to know their uſages, wrote to the Samaritans of Egypt, and to the high-prieſt of the ſect who reſided at Neapolis in Syria. They returned two anſwers to Scaliger, dated in the year of the Hegira 998. Theſe were preſerved in the French king's library, and were tranſlated into Latin by Morin, and printed in England in the collection of that father's letters, in 1682, under the title of *Antiquitates Eccleſiæ Orientalis*. By theſe it appears, that they believe in God, in Moſes, the holy law, the mountain Gerizim, the houſe of God, the day of vengeance and of peace; that they value themſelves upon obſerving the law of Moſes in many points more rigidly than the Jews themſelves.—They keep the ſabbath with the utmoſt ſtrictneſs, without ſtirring from the place they are in, but only to the ſynagogue. They go not out of the city, and abſtain from their wives on that day. They never delay circumciſion beyond the 8th day. They ſtill ſacrifice in the temple on mount Gerizim, and give to the prieſt what is enjoined by the law. They do not marry their nieces, as the Jews do, nor do they allow a plurality of wives. Their hatred for the Jews is teſtified by Joſephus, as well as in the New Teſtament. (See John iv. 9.) The Jewiſh hiſtorian ſays, that one paſſover night, when they opened the gates of the temple, ſome Samaritans had ſcattered the bones of dead men there, to inſult the Jews, and to interrupt their devotions. And the Samaritan woman of Sychar was ſurpriſed that Jeſus talked with her, and aſked drink of her, being a Samaritan. When our Saviour ſent his apoſtles to preach in Judea, he forbad them to enter into the Samaritan cities; (Matt. x. 5.) becauſe he looked upon them as ſchiſmatics. One day, when he ſent his diſciples to provide him a lodging in one of the cities of the Samaritans, they would not entertain him, becauſe they perceived he was going to Jeruſalem. (Luke ix. 52, 53.) And when the Jews were provoked at the reproaches of Jeſus Chriſt, they told him he was a Samaritan. (John viii. 48.) Joſephus relates, that ſome Samaritans having killed ſeveral Jews as they were going to the feaſt at Jeruſalem, this occaſioned a kind of a war between them. The Samaritans continued their fealty to the Romans, when the Jews revolted; yet they did not eſcape from being involved in ſome of the calamities of their neighbours. There are ſtill ſome Samaritans at Schechem, otherwiſe called NAPLOUSE. They have prieſts who ſay they are of the family of Aaron. They have a high-prieſt, who reſides at

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Schechem, or at Gerizim, who offers ſacrifices there, and who declares the feaſt of the paſſover, and all the other feaſts, to all the diſperſed Samaritans. Some of them are to be found at Gaza, ſome at Damaſcus, and ſome at Grand Cairo.

SAMAROBRIVA, an ancient town of Gaul: now the celebrated city of AMIENS famous for the ſhort-lived peace of 1801-2.

SAMAROVSKOI, a town of Ruſſia, in the province of Tobolſk: 176 miles N. of Tobolſk.

SAMARSKAIA, a fort of Ruſſia, in the government of Upha: 40 miles W. of Troitſk.

SAMATA, a town of Egypt; 7 miles NW. of Dendera.

SAMATAN a town of France, in the dep. of Gers; 10 miles SW. of Iſle Jourdain, and 17. SE. of Auch.

SAMATHAN. See SAMMATAN.

SAMBAANGAN, a town and cape on the SW. coaſt of the iſland of Mindanao. Lon. 133. 25. E. of Ferro. Lat. 7. 30. N.

(1.) SAMBALLAS, or } a number of iſlands,
(1.) SAMBALOES, } near the coaſt of N. America, ſcattered at very unequal diſtances of 2, 3, and 4 miles from the coaſt and from each other; extending to a great length along the N. ſhore of the Iſthmus of Darien. See DARIEN, § I, i, 1.) The iſland of Pines is one of them. (See PINES, N° 6.) Three cluſters of them are named *Carvoſos*, *Mulatas*, and *Sagua*. There are ſeveral other cluſters; yet there is a free navigation thro' them, and good anchorage in firm ſandy ground, where ſhips may lie ſafe in all weathers. Moſt of them are low and level, covered with various trees, and abounding with ſhell fiſh and good water. The long channel between theſe iſlands and the iſthmus is from 2 to 4 miles broad, and extends from Point Sambaloes to the Gulf of Darien.

(2.) SAMBALOES POINT, or POINT SAMBALLAS, a cape of N. America, on the N. coaſt of the iſthmus of Darien. Lon. 78. 38. W. Lat. 9. 32. N.

(1.) SAMBAS, a kingdom in the iſland of Borneo, with a fertile territory and ſome diamond mines.

(2.) SAMBAS, the capital of the above kingdom, is ſeated on the W. coaſt. Lon. 109. 0. E. Lat. 2. 20. N.

SAMBELONG ISLANDS, 3 iſlands of the Indian Ocean, among the NICOBAR ISLANDS, N. of Great Nicobar.

SAMBLANCEY, a town of France, in the department of the Indre and Loire, 10 miles NW. of Tours.

SAMBOIGNAN, a town in the iſland of Mindanao, on a rivulet chiefly ſhaded by cocoa trees, containing about 1000 inhabitants, Spaniſh ſoldiers, and their families.

(1.) SAMBRE, a river of Europe, formerly partly in France, and partly in the late Auſtrian Netherlands; now entirely in the French empire. It riſes near Nouvion, in the department of Aiſne, and ci-devant province of Picardy; and paſſing by Chatillon, Landrecy, Bar-le-mont, Maubeuge, Thun, Marchiennes, Charleroy, Chatelet, &c. joins the Meuſe at Namur.

(2) SAMBRE AND MEUSE, one of the 9 new departments of the French empire into which the ci-devant Auſtrian Netherlands were divided, upon the annexation of that country to the French republic, in 1796. It comprehends the late Auſtrian province of Namur. The city of Namur is the capital. See NAMUR, N° 1, and 2.

SAMBRI, an ancient people of Ethiopia. See ETHIOPIA, § 3.

SAMBUCA, or LESBOUM, an ancient muſical inſtrument. See BARBITOS.

(I.) SAMBUCUS, John, a learned phyſician, born at Ternau, in Hungary, in 1531. After ſtudying in ſeveral univerſities, his talents recommended him to the emperors, Maximilian II. and Rodolph II. who ſucceſſively appointed him counſellor and hiſtoriographer. He wrote *the Lives of the Roman Emperors*, and other works. He died at Vienna, in 1584.

(II.) SAMBUCUS, in botany, ELDER, a genus of the trigynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 43d order, *Dumoſæ*. The calix a quinquepartite; the corolla quinquefid; and berry triſpermous. The moſt remarkable ſpecies are the

1. SAMBUCUS CANADENSIS, *the Canada jerusalem elder*, riſes with a ſhrubby ſtem, branching 8 or 10 feet high, having reddiſh ſhoots ſometimes bipinnated leaves, often ternate below, the other compoſed of 5, 7, or 9 oval lobes; and towards the ends of the branches, cymoſe quinquepartite umbels of flowers, ſucceeded by blackiſh red berries.

2. SAMBUCUS NIGRA, the common *black elder tree*, riſes with a tree ſtem, branching numerouſly into a large ſpreading head, 20 or 30 feet high; pinnated leaves, of 2 or 3 pairs of oval lobes and an odd one; and large five-parted umbels of white flowers towards the end of the branches, ſucceeded by bunches of black and other different coloured berries, in the varieties; which are, Common black-berried elder-tree; white-berried or green berried elder; laciniated, or parſley-leaved elder, having the folioles much laciniated, and reſemble parſley leaves; gold-ſtriped-leaved and ſilver-ſtriped elder; and ſilver duſted elder.

3. SAMBUCUS RACEMOSA, *racemoſe red-berried elder*, riſes with a tree-like ſtem, branching 10 or 12 feet high, having reddiſh brown branches and buds; pinnated leaves of 6 or 7 oval deeply-ſawed lobes; and compound oval, racemous, cluſters of whitiſh green flowers, ſucceeded by oval cluſters of red berries. It is a native of the mountainous parts of the ſouth of Europe, and is retained in our gardens, as a flowering ſhrub, having a peculiar ſingularity in its cluſtered flowers and berries. All the ſorts of elder are of the deciduous kind, very hardy, and grow freely anywhere; are generally free ſhooters, but particularly the common elder and its varieties, which make remarkably ſtrong, jointed ſhoots, of ſeveral feet in length, in one ſeaſon; and they flower moſtly in ſummer, except the racemoſe elder, which generally begins flowering in April; and the branches being large, ſpreading, and very abundant, are exceedingly conſpicuous; but they emit a moſt diſagreeable odour. The flowers are ſucceeded in the moſt of the ſorts by large bunches of ripe berries in autumn, which,

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h, though very unpalateable to eat, are in eſtimation for making that well known cor-called *elder wine*, particularly the common t-berried elder. The merit of the elder in ening may be both for uſe and ornament, e-ally in large grounds.

MBULOS, in ancient geography, a moun-ear Meſopotamia, where Hercules was wor-od. *Tacit. Ann.* xii. c. 13.

MBUNARD, a town of Africa, in the king-Bambouk, with a gold mine.

MBURGH HEAD, a cape of Scotland, on E. extremity of Shetland. Lon. 1. 39. E. of . Lat. 59. 44.

MBUS, 1. a river of India: 2. An Indian rch defeated by Alexander. *Diod.* 17.

MCUR, a town of Perſia, in the province ſirbeitzan, 81 miles SW. of Tauris.

) * SAME. *adj.* [*ſame*, Goth. *ſamom*, Swed-1. Not different; not another; identical; be-f the like kind, ſort, or degree.—Miſo ſet the *ſame* ſins of Amphialus. *Sidney.*—

The tenor of man's woe
lds on the *ſame*. *Milton.*

Th' etherial vigour is in all the *ſame*. *Dryd.* itſelf had been coloured, it would have tranſ-d all viſible objects tinctured with the *ſame* ir; as we ſee whatever is beheld through a red glaſs, appears of the *ſame* colour with laſs. *Ray.*—If you conſider what money muſt dged in the bankers hands, the caſe will be the *ſame*. *Locke.*—The *ſame* plant produ-as great a variety of juices as there is in the animal. *Arbuthnot.* 2. That which was men-d before.—

Do but think how well the *ſame* he ſpends.
Daniel.

SAME, in ancient geography. See SAMOS.

) SAME, in modern geography, a town of ſalonia, 8 miles NE. of Cephalonia.

) SAMEN, a very mountainous province of ſinia, lying to the weſtward of the river Ta-, about 80 miles long, and in ſome places road, though in moſt it is much narrower. It ſtly inhabited by Jews. Mr Bruce obſerves, the people of Samen were more flat-noſed any he had ſeen in Abyſſinia. The path among mountains was for the moſt part exceedingly erous, having a precipice of a vaſt height by it which way ſoever you turn. The ntains appeared of very extraordinary ſhapes; being like cones; others high and pointed olumns, pyramids, or obeliſks. In one place age was obſerved in ſuch a dangerous ſitua-that ſcarce the diſtance of a yard intervened een the houſes and a dreadful precipice. Be-it is a plain of about a mile ſquare, covered citron and lemon trees. The MAILUMI above this village.

) SAMEN, a high mountain of Abyſſinia, long ſited by the Jews; who at laſt became ſo erful, that, under their queen Judith, they o-rmed the empire of Ethiopia, nearly extir-d the imperial family, and retained poſſeſ-of the government during the reigns of five iſh kings, as well as of ſeveral Chriſtian prin-all related to Judith. See ETHIOPIA, § 17.

(3, 4.) SAMEN, a town of the Helvetic repub-lic, in the canton of Berne, on a river ſo named, 24 miles S. of Friburg, and 25 ESE. of Lauſanne.

* SAMENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ſame*.] 1. Identity; the ſtate of being not another; not different.—Difference of perſuaſion in matters of religion may eaſily fall out, where there is the *ſameneſs* of duty, allegiance, and ſubjection. *King Charles.* 2. Undiſtinguiſhable reſemblance.—If all courts have a *ſameneſs* in them, things may be as they were in my time.

SAMER, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais, 8 miles SSE. of Boulogne, and 10 N. of Montreuil.

SAMEREIN, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria, 4 miles N. of Knitterfeld.

SAMEY, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Yani; where the Engliſh have a factory.

SAMGANOODHA, a ſafe harbour on the NE. coaſt of the iſland of Oonalaſhka, in the N. Pacific Ocean, 10 miles E. of Egooſhaw Bay. Ships can lie in it ſafe from all winds in 4, 6, and 7 fathoms water. Lon. 166° 30′ 15″ W. Lat. 53. 55. N.

SAMI, or SAMI ISSURAM, a paſs of Hindoſtan, from the Carnatic to the circar of Cuddapa, on the N. bank of the Pennar, 16 miles NE. of Cuddapa, and 46 W. of Nellore.

(1.) SAMIAN, *adj.* Of, or belonging to, or derived from SAMOS.

(2.) SAMIAN EARTH, in the materia medica, the name of two ſpecies of marl uſed in medicine, viz. 1. The white kind, called by the ancients *collyrium ſamium*, being an aſtringent, and therefore good in diarrhœas, dyſenteries, and hæmorrhagies; they alſo uſed it externally in inflammations of all kinds. 2. The browniſh-white kind, called *after ſamis* by Dioſcorides; this alſo ſtands recommended as an aſtringent.

(3.) SAMIANS, *n. ſ.* the people of SAMOS.

(4.) SAMIAN VASES, *Samia Vaſa*. See SAMOS, N° 1.

SAMIEL, the Arabian name of a hot wind peculiar to the deſert of Arabia. It blows over the deſert in July and Auguſt from the NW. quarter, and ſometimes it continues with all its violence to the very gates of *Bagdad*, but never affects any body within the walls. Some years it does not blow at all, and in others it appears 6, 8, or 10 times, but ſeldom continues more than a few minutes at a time. It often paſſes with the apparent quickneſs of lightning. The Arabs and Perſians have warning of its approach by a thick haze, ariſing out of the horizon; when they inſtantly throw themſelves with their faces to the ground, and continue in that poſition till the wind is paſſed, which happens almoſt inſtantaneouſly; but if they are not brisk enough to take this precaution, and they get the full force of the wind, it is inſtant death. The above method is the only one which they take to avoid the effects of this fatal blaſt; and when it is over, they get up and look round them for their companions; and if they ſee any one lying motionleſs, they take hold of an arm or leg, and pull and jerk it with ſome force; and if the limb thus agitated ſeparates from the body, it is a certain ſign that the wind has had its full effect; but if the arm or leg does

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not come away, it is a ſure ſign there is life remaining, although to every outward appearance the perſon is dead; and in that caſe they immediately cover him or them with clothes, and adminiſter ſome warm diluting liquor to cauſe a perſpiration, which is certainly but ſlowly brought about. The Arabs ſay, that this wind always leaves behind it a very ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell, and that the air at theſe times is quite clear, except about the horizon, in the NW. which gives warning of its approach. See ARABIA, § 2; EGYPT, § 37; and SIMOOM.

SAMILLIAM, a river of New Mexico, on the W. coaſt; 12 miles from Point Artela on the one ſide, and running 6 further into the Copalita. There is an Indian town at its mouth where a ſhip's company can be ſerved with proviſions and water.

SAMLAND, a province of Pruſſia; bounded on the N. by the Baltic Sea and the Curiſch-Haff; on the E. by Pruſſian Lithuania; S. by Natangen; and W. by the Baltic. It is about 70 miles long and 20 broad: abounds in lakes and extenſive foreſts; but the ſoil is ſandy, and the chief crops barley and peaſe. The lakes abound with fiſh. Konigſberg is the capital.

(1.) * SAMLET. *n. ſ.* [*ſalmonet*, or *ſalmoulet*.] A little ſalmon.—A ſalmon, after he is got into the ſea, becomes from a *ſamlet*, not ſo big as a gudgeon, to be a ſalmon. *Walton.*

(2.) SAMLET, in ichthyology. See SALMO, N° 7.

SAMMADE, a town of France, in the dep. of Landes: 9 miles SSE. of St Sever, and 15 NE. of Orthez.

SAMMAN, two towns of Arabia Deſerta: the one 120 miles SSW. of Cathem: the other 188 W.

SAMMANGER-FIORD, a bay of the North Sea, on the coaſt of Norway: 16 miles long and half a mile broad; the entrance is 12 miles S. of Bergen.

SAMMARTHANUS. See SAINTE MARTHE.

SAMMATAN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Eure, and ci-devant prov. of Commminges; with a very ſtrong caſtle, ſeated on a mountain. The town is built in a valley on the banks of the Save; 5 miles N. of Lombez. Lon. 1. 0. E. Lat. 43. 34. N.

SAMNANOODHA. See SAMGANOODHA.

SAMNIS. See SAMNIUM.

SAMNITÆ, an ancient people of Gaul.

SAMNITES, an ancient nation of Italy, who inhabited the country ſituated between Picenum, Campania, Apulia, and Latium. They diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their implacable enmity againſt the Romans in the early ages of that republic; but were at laſt totally ſubdued, and according to ſome, extirpated, about A. A. C. 272, after a war of 71 years. See ROME, § 24. *Livy, Florus, Strabo, Lucan, Eutrop.*

SAMNIUM, or SAMNIS, a ſea port town of Italy, the capital of the SAMNITES.

SAMOCHONITES, a lake of Paleſtine.

SAMOGITIA, a province of the lately diſmembered kingdom of Poland, bounded on the N. by Courland, on the E. by Lithuania, on the S. by Pruſſia, and on the W. by Pruſſia and the Baltic; being about 175 miles long and 125 broad. It is full of foreſts and very high mountains, which feed a great number of cattle, and very active horſes. In 1404, it was ceded to the Teut[onic] knights, but taken from them in 1408. In 1[4]09 the people embraced Chriſtianity. Bees abound and produce much honey and wax. It is divided into 25 diſtricts. The inhabitants are clownish, but honeſt; and they will not allow a young woman to go out in the night without a candle in her hand and two bells at her girdle. MEDSIKI, RASSENNE, and WORMIA are the chief towns. It is now annexed to Pruſſia.

SAMOJEDA, a country of the Ruſſian empire, between Aſiatic Tartary and Archangel, lying along the ſea coaſt as far as Siberia. The inhabitants are ſo rude, that they can hardly pretend to humanity, except in face and figure: they have little underſtanding, and in many things ridiculous brutes, for they will eat carrion of every kind. They travel on the ſnow on ſledges, drawn with an animal like a rein deer, but with the horns of a ſtag. Travellers affirm that no people on the earth make ſuch ſhocking figures: their ſtature is ſhort, their ſhoulders and faces are broad, with flat noſes, great blubber lips, and ſtaring eyes; their complexion is dark, their hair long and as black as pitch, and they have very little beards; and the Samoied women have black nipples. If they have any religion at all, it is idolatry, though ſeveral attempts have been made of late to convert them. Their huts are made of birch bark ſewed together, which is laid upon ſtakes ſet in the ground, and at the top is a hole to let out the ſmoke; the fire is made in the middle, and both men and women lie naked round them all night. They have little regard to the nearneſs of kin, and take as many wives as they can keep: their only employment is hunting and fiſhing.

SAMOIEDES. See SAMOYEDES.

SAMOLUS, in botany, *Round-leaved Water Pimpernel*, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 1[2]th order, *Preciæ*. The corolla is ſalver ſhaped, the limb ſurrounded by ſmall ſcales at its throat. The capſule is unilocular inferior.

SAMONDRAKI. See SAMANDRAKI, and SAMOTRAKI, N° 2 and 3.

SAMORE, or SAMORE HILL, a mountain of Ireland, in the county of Sligo.

SAMORIA, a town of Hungary, in the iſle of Schutt, 8 miles SE. of Preſburg.

(1.) SAMOS, in ancient geography, an iſland of Aſia, in the Ægean ſea, near the promontory Mycale, oppoſite to Epheſus; the diſtance only three ſtadia; (*Strabo.*) a free iſland, in compaſs 87 miles (*Pliny*;) or 100; (*Iſidorus*;) famous for the worſhip and a temple of Juno, with a noted aſylum (*Virgil, Strabo, Tacitus*); and hence their coins exhibited a peacock (*Athenæus*). It was the country of PYTHAGORAS, who, to avoid the oppreſſion of tyrants, retired to Italy, the land of freedom. Samos was firſt governed by kings; afterwards became a democracy, and at laſt an oligarchy. It was moſt flouriſhing under Polycrates. (See POLYCRATES.) The Samians aſſiſted the Greeks againſt Xerxes. They were conquered by Perdiccas A. A. C. 441: afterwards by Eumenes K. of Pergamus; but reſtored to liberty by Auguſtus. Samos was reduced to a Roman province under Ve[ſpaſian]

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n. Samos abounds in all the neceſſaries of The *Vaſa Samia*, among earthen wares, were in high repute. The iſland is now in the s of the Turks. It is about 32 miles long, 22 l, and extremely fertile. The inhabitants t their eaſe, their taxation by the Turks be- noderate. The women are naſty and ugly, hey never ſhift above once a month. They lothed in the Turkiſh manner, except a red and their hair hanging down their backs, plates of ſilver or block-tin faſtened to the —They have abundance of melons, lentiles, y-beans, and excellent muſkadine grapes. have white figs four times as big as the com- fort, but not ſo well taſted. Their ſilk is ve- e, and their honey and wax admirable; be- which, their poultry are excellent: they have ines, and moſt of the ſoil is of a ruſty colour: have alſo emery ſtone, and all the moun- are of white marble. The inhabitants are 12,000, who are almoſt all Greeks; and the s and prieſts occupy moſt part of the iſland. have a biſhop who reſides at Corea. Lon. t. E. Ferro. Lat. 37. 43. N.

) Samos, a town in the above iſland.

4.) Samos, and Same, were alſo ancient s of Cephallenia and Samothrace.

) Samos, in modern geography, a town of ary: 10 miles NNE. of Caſchau.

) Samos, a town of Spain, in Galicia: 18 SE. of Lugo.

Samos, a river of Tranſylvania, which 8 miles S. of Coloſvar; and runs into the ſa, 12 miles N. of Eſted, in Hungary.

MOSATA, an ancient town of Syria, near uphrates below mount Taurus: famous for the birth-place of Lucian.

MOSGO, a town and caſtle of Hungary; 17 SSE. of Korpona.

MOSVIVAR, a town of Tranſylvania, on amos; 18 miles N. of Coloſvar, and 240 E. nna. Lon. 40. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 47. 18. N.

MOTHRACE, or } in ancient geography, an MOTHRACIA, } iſland in the Ægean Sea, ite the mouth of the Hebrus; 32 miles from aſt of Thrace. It was alſo called Dardania, ia, Leucania, Leucoſia, Melitis, and Sa- and hence *Samothrace*, or *Thracian Samos*, inguiſh it from Samos in Aſia Minor. Pliny it 38 miles in circumference, but modern lers ſay it is only 20. Before the age of the iauts it was deluged to the top of the higheſt tains, by a ſudden inundation of the Euxine. anciently governed by kings, but like moſt ſtates in Greece became afterwards demo- The people enjoyed all their rights and ges under the Romans, till the reign of Ve- , who, with all his virtues, ſeems to have determined, like a certain modern emperor, ot out every ſpark of liberty wherever he it. By him it was reduced, with the other s in the Ægean Sea, to the form of a Roman ce. (*Plin.* 422. *Strabo*, x. *Melo*, ii, 7. *Pauſ.*) It is now under the Turks, and by them d Samandrachi.

MOTHRACIANS, the people of Samo- . According to the Pagan ſuperſtitions, they eſteemed very religious; and hence the iſland was ſtyled ſacred, and became an aſylum to all criminals and fugitives.

SAMOTMAT, a town of Africa, in the king- dom of Sus; near the coaſt of the Atlantic.

(1.) SAMOTRAKI, an iſland of the Mediterra- nean; 4 miles W. of Corfu, belonging to the new republic of the Seven Islands.

(2.) Samotraki, Samondraki, and Saman- drachi, modern barbarous names of the ancient Samothracia. See Samandrachi, and Samo- thrace.

(3.) Samotraki, a town in the above iſland (N° 2.) of which it is the capital. It has a ſpa- cious harbour. Lon. 43. 22. E. Ferro. Lat. 40. 18. N.

SAMOYEDES, a nation of Aſia, in Tartary, formerly numerous and powerful, of whom Dr Brookes and J. Walker give the following account: "They are now ſtrangely diſperſed; ſome of them are found in ſmall detached bodies among the mountains on the W. of Lake Baikal: others with- in the Chineſe frontiers; others are ſcattered among the deſerts along the Frozen Oceans, and ſome nearly as far W. as Archangel. (See Samoieda.) They have not the uſe of horſes, but they ſtill pre- ſerve the manners of a paſtoral people, and retain the uſe of moveable habitations, with which they wander from place to place. They neither have, nor appear ever to have had any kind of regular government. Their traditional ſongs mention on- ly ſome heroes, who led their anceſtors to battle. Theſe ſongs form their principal amuſements. They have a large head, a flat face; high cheek bones; ſmall eyes; a flat noſe; a wide mouth; a yellow complexion; large ears; ſtraight, harſh, black hair; a ſhort thick neck; little or no beard, and ſhort and thin legs."

SAMP, a diſh ſaid to have been invented by the ſavages of North America, who have no corn-mills. It is Indian corn deprived of its external coat by ſoaking it 10 or 12 hours in a lixivium of water and wood-aſhes. This coat, or huſk, being ſeparated from the kernel, riſes to the ſurface of the water, while the grain, which is ſpecifically heavier than water, remains at the bottom of the veſſel; which grain, thus deprived of its hard coat of armour, is boiled, or rather ſimmered, for two days, in a ket- tle of water near the fire.—When ſufficiently cook- ed, the kernels ſwell to a great ſize and burſt o- pen; and this food, which is uncommonly ſweet and nouriſhing, may be uſed in a variety of ways; but the beſt way is to mix it with milk, and with ſoups, and broths, as a ſubſtitute for bread. It is even better than bread for theſe purpoſes; for be- ſides being quite as palatable as the very beſt bread, as it is leſs liable than bread to grow too ſoft when mixed with theſe liquids. Without being diſagreeably hard, it requires more maſtication, and conſequently tends more to increaſe and pro- long the pleaſure of eating.

SAMPAN, a Chineſe boat which has no keel, looking almoſt like a trough; they are made of different dimenſions, but are moſtly covered. Theſe boats are as long as ſloops, but broader, al- moſt like a baking trough; and have at the end one or more decks of bamboo ſticks: the cover or roof is made of bamboo ſticks, and arched over in the ſhape of a grater; and may be raiſed or

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lowered at pleasure: the sides are made of boards, with little holes, with shutters instead of windows: the boards are fastened on both sides to posts, which have notches like steps on the insides, that the roof may be let down, and rest on them: on both ends of the deck are commonly two little doors, at least there is one at the hindmost end. A fine white smooth carpet spread up as far as the boards makes the floor, which in the middle consists of loose boards; but this carpet is only made use of to sleep on. Two rowers, posting themselves at the back end of the sampan, work it forwards very readily by the motion of two oars; and can almost turn the vessel as they please: the oars, which are covered with a little hollow quadrangular iron, are laid on iron swivels, which are fastened in the sides of the sampan; at the iron the oars are pieced, which makes them look a little bent: in common, a rower sits before with a short oar; but this he is forced to lay aside when he comes near the city, on account of the great throng of sampans; and this inconvenience has confirmed the Chinese in their old way of rowing. Instead of pitch, they make use of a cement like our putty, which we call *chinam*, but the Chinese call it *kiang*. Some authors say that this cement is made of lime and a resin exuding from the tree *tong yea*, and bamboo ockam. Besides a couple of chairs, they have the following furniture: two oblong tables or boards on which some Chinese characters are drawn; a lanthorn for the night-time, and a pot to boil rice in. They have also a little cover for their household god, decorated with gilt paper and other ornaments: before him stands a pot filled with ashes, into which the tapers are put before the idol. The candles are nothing else than bamboo chips, to the upper end of which saw-dust of sandal-wood is stuck on with gum. These tapers are everywhere lighted before the idols in the pagodas, and before the doors in the streets; and, in large cities, occasion a smoke very pernicious to the eyes. Before this idol stands some SAMSO, or Chinese brandy, water, &c.

SAMPEL, a river of Saxony, which runs into the Ukeley; 4 miles S. of Plate, in Brandenburg.

SAMPFREA, one of the Shetland Islands of Scotland, 3 miles S. of Yell.

(1.) * SAMPHIRE. *n. f.* [*saint Pierre*, Fr. *rithmon*, Lat.] A plant preserved in pickle.—This plant grows in great plenty upon the rocks near the sea-shore, where it is washed by the salt water. It is greatly esteemed for pickling, and is sometimes used in medicine. *Miller.*—

Half way down
Hangs one that gathers, *samphire*: dreadful trade! *Shakespeare.*

(2.) SAMPHIRE, in botany. See CRITHMUM.

(3.) SAMPHIRE, GOLDEN. See INULA.

SAMPERO. See SAN-PIETRO.

SAMPIGNY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Meuse: 4 miles S. of St Mihiel, and 5 NW. of Commercy.

SAMPIT, a town of Borneo, on the S. coast; near a river so named: 140 miles W. of Banjar-Massim.

* SAMPLE. *n. f.* [from *example*.] A specimen; a part of the whole shown that judgment may be made of the whole.—He himself would bring them a *sample* of the oar. *Raleigh.*—'Tis [illegible] if I bring a *sample* of some goods in this voyage. *Dryden.*—I design this but for a *sample* of what I hope more fully to discuss. *Woodward.*—Travellers have recorded some *samples* of this kind. *Addison.*

And, as through these canals they roll,
Bring up a *sample* of the whole. *Prior.*

* *To* SAMPLE. *v. a.* To show something [illegible] lar. *Ainsworth.*

* SAMPLER. *n. f.* [*exemplar*, Lat. whence it is sometimes written *samplar*.] A pattern of work; a piece worked by young girls for improvement.—O love, why dost thou in thy beautiful [illegible] set such a work for my desire to set out? *Sidney.*

Fair Philomela, she but lost her tongue,
And in a tedious *sampler* sew'd her mind. [illegible]
We created with our needles both one flower,
Both on one *sampler*, [illegible] grace.
Cheeks of sorry grain, will serve to ply
The *sampler*. [illegible]
—I saw her sober over a *sampler*. *Pope.*

(1.) SAMPSON, one of the Scilly Islands.

(2.) SAMPSON, a county of N. Carolina, [illegible] Fayette district; bounded on the N. by Johnston, E. by Dauphin, S. by Bladen and New Hanover, and W. by Cumberland counties. In 1795, it contained 4,882 citizens, and 1183 slaves. A county court is held in it, on the 2d Monday in February, May, August, and November.

(2.) SAMPSON, William, an English dramatic writer, who flourished under Charles I. He wrote a comedy entitled *The Vow-Breaker*; and assisted M. Markham, in the composition of his tragedy of *Herod and Antipater*.

SAMPSUCHINON, an ointment, whose marjoram is the chief ingredient.

SAMPUTA, a town of Mexico.

(1.) SAMSO, Chinese brandy. See SAMSU.

(2.) SAMSO, SAMSOE, or SAMSOI, } an island of Denmark, between N. Jutland and Zealand; [illegible] miles long from N. to S. and from one to 4 broad, from E. to W. The land is very fertile and the inhabitants carry on a [illegible] trade. It lies 8 miles from N. Jutland, [illegible] 10. 30. E. Lat. 55. 56. N.

(1.) SAMSON, [שמשון, Heb. i. e. his sun], the son of Manoah, of the tribe of Dan, the last judge of Israel, except Eli and Samuel, during the time public. The extraordinary circumstances of his birth, life, miraculous strength, marriage, [illegible] ed defeats of the Philistines, captivity and death are recorded in Judges xiii—xvi. If ever [illegible] was justifiable upon principles of patriotism, was in the case of Samson; who by his voluntary death slew more of the enemies of his country, than he had previously done during his whole life. He judged Israel 20 years. Chronologers place his death in A. M. 2887; or A. A. C. 1117. Milton wrote a beautiful poem on his history, entitled *Samson Agonistes*.

(2.) SAMSON, Henry, an English physician and divine, of the 17th century, born in Northamptonshire, and educated at Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, of which he was a fellow. He practised and practised physic; and died in 1705.

(3.) SAMSON, ST, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure, and late prov. of Normandy: seated on the Rille, 6 miles N. of Pont Audemer.

(4.) [illegible]

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SAMSON, St, a town of France, in the dep. ine and Loire: 4 miles NE. of Angers, and . of Bauge.

tson's Post, a sort of pillar erected in a hold, between the lower deck and the kelder the edge of a hatchway, and furnished everal notches that serve as steps to mount cend, as occasion requires. This post beamly driven into its place, not only serves port the beam and fortify the vessel in that but also to prevent the cargo or materials ned in the hold, from shifting to the opside, by the rolling of the ship in a turbud heavy sea.

MSOUN, 2 towns of Asiatic Turkey: 1. in ania, 50 miles NW. of Tocat: 2. in Natol 5 miles NNW. of Miuets.

SAMUEL, שמואל, Heb. *i. e.* Heard of an eminent inspired prophet, historian and of Israel, and the last judge of that comealth. He was the son of Elkanah, a Levite family of Kohath, by his beloved wife Han. The extraordinary circumstances preceding th; his early dedication to God by his mowith her hymn on that occasion; the revecommunicated to him by the Almighty; ormation of the people, and their contevictory over the Philistines; the iniquitous t of his sons, which excited the people to a change of government; his description character of a king; his anointing of Saul rst monarch; his appeal to the people reg his own just government; his repeated ts of king Saul for his improper conduct; t punishment of the murderous monarch of malekites; his anointing of David; and his are recorded in 1 Sam. i—xxv. Dr Watlaces his death in A. A. C. 1057, in his 98th He is reckoned the author of the books of and *Ruth*; and it seems probable, that the chapters of 1 *Samuel* were also written by

Samuel, the Books of, two canonical of the Old Testament, usually ascribed to ophet Samuel. The books of Samuel and oks of Kings are a continued history of the of the kings of Israel and Judah; for which the books of Samuel are likewise styled *and second books of Kings*. Since the first pters contain all that relates to the History muel, and the latter part of the first book the 2d include the relation of events that ed after the death of that prophet, it has ppoſed that Samuel was author only of 24 chapters, and that the prophets Gad athan finished the work. The first book of l comprehends the transactions under the ment of Eli and Samuel, and under Saul t king; and also the acts of David while d under Saul; and is supposed to contain ce of 101 years. The 2d book contains tory of about 40 years, and is wholly spent ing the transactions of David's reign.

MUEL's, St, an island in the N. Pacific . Lon. 208. 20. E. of Ferro. Lat. 62.

MUND, a town of Brandenburg, in the : Mark: 4 miles S. of Potzdam.

SAMYDA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the decandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking with those of which the order is doubtful. The calyx is quinquepartite and coloured; there is no corolla; the capsule in the inside resembles a berry, is trivalved and unilocular; the seeds nestling.

(1.) SAN, a river of China, which rises in the frontiers of Tartary, in Lon. 135° E. Ferro. Lat. 40° 20′ N. and falls into the gulf of Leao-tong, in Lon. 135° 14′ E. Ferro. Lat. 39. 9. N.

(2.) San, or Tanah, a town of Egypt, seated on a canal, which runs from the Nile into the lake Menzaleh: 26 miles E. of Mansora and 29 SE. of Damietta. Lon. 49. 53. E. Ferro. Lat. 30. 55. N.

(3.) San, a river of Poland, which runs into the Vistula at Sandomirz.

(4.) San Blas, or St Blas, a town of Cuba, 15 miles SSW. of the Havanna.

(5.) San Diego, a town of Cuba; 60 miles WSW. of the Havanna.

(6.) San Felice, a town of Spain, in Leon: 18 miles NNW. of Ciudad Rodrigo.

(7.) San Fernando, a sea port town of Honduras, near the entrance of the Golfo Dolce. It is a good harbour, with safe anchorage from the N. and E. winds, in 8 fathoms water. Lat. 15. 18. N.

(8.) San Jean d'Acre, or St Jean d'Acre, or simply Acre, the ancient Ptolemais; a sea port town of Syria, memorable for various acts of heroism, in the time of the Crusades; (see Acre, N° 2.) but rendered much more so during the late war, by Sir Sidney Smith's glorious defence of it, against the utmost efforts of Bonaparte to reduce it, during a siege of 60 days. See Revolution, § VI, 41.

(9—11.) San Juan, 3 towns of the isle of Cuba: 1. 15 miles SW. of Havanna: 2. 15 miles SW. of Villa del Principe: 3. 45 miles WNW. of St Yago.

(12.) San Juan de Puerto Rico, or Porto Rico. See Juan, N° 8, 9. This island is divided by a ridge of mountains running from E. to W. and has a harbour so spacious that the largest ships may lie in it with safety. Before the arrival of the Spaniards it was inhabited by 4 or 500,000 people, who, in a few years, were extirpated by its merciless conquerors. Raynal says, that its whole inhabitants now amount only to 1500 Spaniards, Mestizoes, and Mulattoes, and about 3000 negroes. Thus one of the finest islands in the West Indies has been depopulated by the cruelty, and left uncultivated by the indolence, of its possessors. Lon. 65. 36. to 67. 45. W. Lat. 18. 0. N.

(13.) San Lorenzo, a town of the isle of Cuba: 105 miles SW. of Havanna.

(14.) San Luis, a town of Cuba; 25 miles S. of Spirito Santo.

(15.) San Marco, a town of Cuba; 70 miles NW. of Villa del Principe.

(16—18.) San Matheo. See Matthew, St, N° 1—3.

(19, 20.) San Miguel, 2 towns of the isle of Cuba: 1. 50 miles SW. of Havanna: 2. 40 N. of Trinidad.

(21, 22.) San Pedro, 2 towns of Spain: 1. in

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the prov. of Biſcay, 20 miles S. of Santander: 2. in Old Caſtile, 15 miles N. of Soria.

(23, 24.) SAN PEDRO, 2 towns of Cuba; the one 35 miles S. and the other 65 SW. of Havanna.

(25.) SAN PEDRO D'ARLANZA, a town of Spain in Old Caſtile: 40 miles ESE. of Burgos.

(26.) SAN PEDRO DE MAYOLON, a town in the iſle of Cuba: 62 miles N. of Trinidad.

(27, 28.) SAN ROQUE, 2 towns of Spain: 1. in Biſcay; 16 miles SSE. of Santander: 2. in Seville, 3 miles N. of Gibraltar. During the famous ſiege of Gibraltar, the Spaniards had a camp in this town.

(1.) SANA, or SANAA, a large, populous, and handſome town of Aſia, capital of Arabia Felix, ſituated in Proper Yemen, at the foot of mount Nikkum, on which are ſtill to be ſeen the ruins of a caſtle, which the Arabs ſuppoſe to have been built by SHEM. Near this mountain ſtands the caſtle; a rivulet runs upon the other ſide; and near it is the Buſtan el Metwokkel, a ſpacious garden, which was laid out by Imam Metwokkel, and has been embelliſhed with a fine garden by the reigning imam. The walls of the city, which are built of bricks, exclude this garden, which is included within a wall of its own: but there are other gardens within the walls. The city is not very extenſive; one may walk round it all in an hour. The city-gates are 7. Here are a number of moſques, ſome of which have been built by Turkiſh pachas. There are 12 public baths; and many noble palaces, three of the moſt ſplendid of which have been built by the Imam. The palace of the late Imam El Manzor, with ſome others, belong to the royal family, who are very numerous. The Arabian palaces are built of burnt bricks, and ſometimes hewn ſtones; but the houſes of the common people are of bricks which have been dried in the ſun. There are no glaſs windows, except in one palace near the citadel. The reſt of the houſes have inſtead of windows, merely ſhutters, which are opened in fair weather, and ſhut when it is foul. In the laſt caſe, the houſe is lighted by a round wicket, fitted with a piece of Muſcovy glaſs; ſome of the Arabians uſe ſmall panes of ſtained glaſs from Venice. At Sana, and in the other cities of the Eaſt, are great KARAVANSERAS or caravanſeras for merchants and travellers. Each commodity is ſold in a ſeparate market. In the market for bread, none but women are to be ſeen; and their little ſhops are portable. The ſeveral claſſes of mechanics work, in the ſame manner, in particular quarters in the open ſtreet. Writers go about with their deſks, and make out brieves, copy-books, and inſtruct ſcholars in the art of writing, all at the ſame time. There is one market where old clothes are taken in exchange for new. Wood for carpentry is extremely dear through Yemen; and wood for the fire at Sana is no leſs ſo. All the hills near the city are bleak and bare; wood is therefore to be brought hither from the diſtance of three days journey; and a camel's burthen commonly coſts two crowns. This ſcarcity of wood is ſupplied by the uſe of a little pit-coal. Peats are burnt; but they are ſo bad, that ſtraw muſt be intermixed to make them burn. Fruits are, however, very plenteous at Sana. Here are more than 20 different ſpecies of grapes, which as they do not all ripen at the ſame time, afford a delicious refreſhment for ſeveral months. The Arabs likewiſe preſerve grapes, by hanging them up in their cellars, and eat them almoſt through the whole year. The Jews make a little wine, but a Jew convicted of conveying wine into an Arab's houſe is ſeverely puniſhed; they must therefore uſe great caution in buying and ſelling among themſelves. Great quantities of grapes are dried here; and the exportation of raiſins is conſiderable. One ſort of theſe grapes are without ſtones, and contains only a ſoft grain, the preſence of which is not perceptible in eating the fruit. In the caſtle which ſtands on a bill, are two palaces. "I ſaw (ſays Niebuhr) about it ſome ruins of old buildings, but no remarkable inſcription. There is the mint, and a range of priſons. The reigning Imam reſides in the city; but ſome princes of the blood-royal live in the caſtle. The battery is the moſt elevated place above the buildings; I ſaw upon it 7 iron cannons, partly buried in the ſand, and partly ſet upon bad carriages. Theſe 7 with ſix near the gate, which are fired to announce the feſtivals, are all the artillery of the capital of Yemen." Sana lies 180 miles NE. of Aden, according to Dr Pocock; by Mr Cruttwell makes the diſtance 80 degrees. It is 128 miles NNE. of Mocha. Lon. 41. 30. E. or according to Mr Cruttwell. 44. 9. E. Lat. 15. 28: or 15. 21. N.

(2.) SANA, in ancient geography, a town of Mount Athos; near which XERXES began to cut a channel to convey the ſea.

(3.) SANA, a river of Boſnia, which runs into the Unna, oppoſite Novi.

(4.) SANA, or SARINE, a town of the Valteline republic which runs into the Aar, 6 m. W. of Lucerne.

(5.) SANA, or ZANA, a province or juriſdiction of Peru, in the biſhopric of Truxillo; extending 75 miles along the coaſt. The ſoil is hot but fertile, but the heat often intolerable.

(6.) SANA, or ZANA, the capital of the above diſtrict, is ſeated in a charming valley abounding in corn, fruits and flowers: 90 m. N. of Lima.

(1.) SANAA. See SANA, N° 1.

(2.) SANAA, a town of Africa, in the province of Yemen, 240 miles NE. of Aden.

* SANABLE. *adj.* [*ſanabilis*. Lat.] Curable; ſuſceptive of remedy; remediable.

SANADON, Noel Stephen, a Jeſuit, born at Rouen in 1676, and a diſtinguiſhed profeſſor of humanity at Caen. He there became acquainted with Huet Bp. of Avranches, whoſe taſte was ſimiliar to his own. Sanadon afterwards taught rhetoric at the univerſity of Paris, and was entruſted with the education of the prince of Conti after the death of Du Morceau. In 1728 he was made librarian to Lewis XIV. an office which he retained to his death. He died on the 21ſt of 1733, in the 58th year of his age. His works are, 1. Latin Poems, in 12mo, 1715, and by Rabou, in 8vo, 1754. His ſtyle poſſeſſes the purity of the Auguſtan age, and his language is correct. His Latin poems conſiſt of Odes, Elegies, Epigrams, &c. 2. A tranſlation of Horace. 3. Remarks, in 2 vols 4to, Paris, 1727; beſt edit. Amſt. 1735, in 8 vols 12mo; with the text

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Dacier. Sanadon translated with elegance taste; but his version is rather a paraphrase a faithful translation. 3. A Collection of courses, which afford strong proofs of his knowge of oratory and poetry. 4. *Prieres et Instruces Chretiennes.*

ANAFIR, an island in the Red Sea; 90 miles of Tor, and 408 NNE. of Jidda. Lon. 52. E. Ferro. Lat. 27. 45. N.

ANAN, a town of Arabia, in the province of nen: 36 miles NNW. of Abu Arisch.

ANAOS, an ancient town of Phrygia.

ANARICA, a town of Naples, in the province Otranto: 9 miles NNE. of Alessano.

SANATION. *n. s.* [*sanatio*, Lat.] The act uring.—If you have no probable hope of *sana*cut it off quickly. *Wiseman.*

SANATIVE. *adj.* [from *sano*, Lat.] Power to cure; healing.—The vapour of coltsfoot a *sanative* virtue towards the lungs. *Bacon.*

SANATIVENESS. *n. s.* [from *sanative.*] Powture.

ANAUJA, a town of Spain, in the province atalonia: 12 miles NNE. of Cervera.

ANBACH, a town of England, in Cheshire, d on the Welock. It has a market on Thursand in the market place are 2 square stone es, adorned with images. It is 26 miles E. hester, and 161 NNW. of London. Lon. 2. W. Lat. 53. 8. N.

ANBALLAT, the governor of the Samaritans, at enemy to the Jews. He was a native of on, or Horonaim, a city beyond Jordan, in country of the Moabites. He lived in the time chemiah, who was his great opponent, and whose book we learn his history. (See NEHE-H.) There is one circumstance related of by Josephus, which has occasioned some dis among the learned. When Alexander the t came into Phœnicia, and sat down before ity of Tyre, Sanballat quitted the interests of us king of Persia, and went at the head of men to offer his service to Alexander. This e readily entertained him, and at his request, him leave to erect a temple upon mount Ge-, where he constituted his son-in-law Manasse high-priest. But this is a flagrant anaism; for 120 years before this, that is, in 3550, Sanballat was governor of Samaria; efore the learned Dr Prideaux (in his Connec of the Histories of the Old and New Testa) supposes *two Sanballats*, and endeavours oncile it to truth and probability, by showing be a mistake of Josephus, in making Sanbal flourish in the time of Darius Codomannus, o build his temple upon mount Gerizim by e from Alexander the Great; whereas this erformed by leave from Darius Nothus, in 9th year of his reign. This takes away the ity arising from the great age of Sanballat, rings him to be contemporary with Nehe as the Scripture history requires.

NBALLAT POINT, a cape of N. America, on oast of Darien, near the mouth of the river n, and NW. of the island of Pines.

NBORNTOWN, a township of New Hampfeated on a point of land, at the conflux of the rivers Winnipisiogee and Pemigewasset. In 1795, it contained 1587 citizens.

SANCERGUES, a town of France, in the dep. of Cher: 9 miles S. of Sancerre, and 20 E. of Bourges.

SANCERRE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Cher, and ci-devant province of Berry, on a mountain near the Loire. In 1569 and 1572, this town was bravely defended by the Protestants; but in 1573, after another tedious and bloody siege, they were compelled by famine to surrender, on which its fortifications were demolished. It is 22½ miles NE. of Bourges, 24 NNW. of Nevers, and 110 N. of Paris. Lon. 2. 59. E. Lat. 47. 20. N.

SANCEY, or SANCEY L'EGLISE, a town of France, in the dep. of Doubs: 10 miles ESE. of Baume, and 9 W. of St Hypolite.

SANCHES, Anthony Nunes Ribeiro, M. D. a learned physician, born at Penna-Macor in Portugal, March 7, 1699. His father, an opulent merchant, gave him a liberal education, intending him for the law, but finding him prefer physic, withdrew his protection; on which his maternal uncle, Dr Nunes Ribeiro, physician at Lisbon, furnished him with the means of prosecuting his studies, at Coimbra and Salamanca; where he took his degree in 1724. In 1725, he was appointed physician to the town of Benevente. About 1727, he came *over* to London, where he spent two years; after which he studied at Leyden under Boerhaave: who, in 1731, recommended him to the empress Anne of Russia, who had written the Dr to send her three. While he was setting out for Petersburgh, his father died, on which he made over all his property in Portugal to his mother. On his arrival at Petersburg, Dr Bidloo Junior, then first physician to the empress, gave him an appointment in the hospital at Moscow, where he continued till 1734, when he was appointed physician to the army, and was present at the siege of Asoph; where he was attacked with a fever, and when he recovered, found himself in a tent, abandoned by his attendants, and plundered of his effects. In 1740, however, he was appointed one of the physicians to the empress, who had laboured 8 years under a disease, the cause of which could not be ascertained; but he gave it as his opinion that it originated from a stone in her kidney, and could only admit of palliation. His opinion was confirmed 6 months after, when upon her death, the stone was found upon opening her. The regency that succeeded appointed him first physician; but the revolution of 1742, which placed Elizabeth on the throne, (See RUSSIA, § 20.) deprived him of all his employments. Hardly a day passed, that he did not hear of some of his friends being executed; and it was with difficulty, that he obtained leave to retire from Russia. In 1747, he went to Paris, where he continued till Oct. 14, 1783, when he died. His printed works, on the *Origin of the Venereal Disease*, and other subjects, are well known to the faculty. He was a member of the Royal Medical Society at Paris, and of the Royal Academy of Lisbon, to the establishment of which he had contributed.

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SANCHEVILLE, a town of France, in the dept of the Eure and Loire: 12 miles NW. of Chateaudun, and 15 SSE. of Chartres.

(1.) SANCHEZ, Francis, in Latin SANCTIUS, was of Las Brocas in Spain, and has been dignified by his own countrymen with the pompous titles of *le Pere de la Langue Latine, et le Docteur de tous les Gens-de-lettres*. He wrote, 1. An excellent treatise entitled *Minerva, or de Causes Linguæ Latinæ*, which was published at Amsterdam in 1714, in 8vo. The authors of the *Portroyal Methode de la Langue Latine* have been much indebted to this work. 2. The Art of Speaking, and the Method of translating Authors. 3. Several other learned pieces on grammar. He died in 1600, in his 77th year.

(2.) SANCHEZ, Francis, a Portuguese physician who settled at Toulouse, and, though a Christian, was born of Jewish parents. He is said to have been a man of genius and a philosopher. His works have been collected under the title of *Opera Medica. His juncti sunt tractatus quidam philosophici non insubtilis*. They were printed at Toulouse in 1636; where Sanchez died in 1632.

(3.) SANCHEZ, Thomas, an illustrious Spanish Jesuit, born at Corduba, in 1551. He joined the Society in 1567. He is celebrated by his brethren, for sobriety, austerity, voluntary mortifications, chastity, and intense study. His learning was undoubtedly great, as appears from his works in 5 vols. folio, Genoa, 1592. He died at Grenada, May 19, 1610.

(1.) SANCHO, surnamed *the Strong*, king of Castile, the son of Ferdinand, dethroned his brothers, the kings of Leon, and Galicia, and seized their territories: but was slain in 1072.

(2.) SANCHO, Ignatius, an extraordinary negro, born in 1729, on board a ship, in the slave trade, a few days after it had left the coast of Guinea. At Carthagena he was baptized by the bishop. His mother died from the change of climate, and his father unable to survive her, killed himself. The orphan, Ignatius, was brought to England, and experienced the kindness of the D. of Montagu, who gave him education, in which he made such progress, that he commenced author. His *Letters* obtained a numerous and respectable subscription, and prove him to have been possessed of just ideas, as well as of uncommon genius. In short his acquirements afford a decisive refutation of the doctrine urged by the advocates for the slave trade, that the Africans are of inferior abilities to the whites and incapable of improvement. This negro showed not only a genius for literature, but a taste for elegant fashionable enjoyments; such as drinking, gaming, &c. whereby, however, he at last ruined his constitution, and died of a complication of disorders in 1780.

SANCHONIATHO, or SANCHONIATHON, a Phenician philosopher and historian, who is said to have flourished before the Trojan war, about the time of SEMIRAMIS. Of this most ancient writer, the only remains extant are sundry fragments of cosmogony, and of the history of the gods and first mortals, preserved by Eusebius and Theodoret; both of whom speak of Sanchoniatho as an accurate and faithful historian; and the former adds, that his work, which was translated by Philo Byblius from the Phenician in the Greek language, contains many things relating to the history of the Jews which deserve great credit, both because they agree with the Jewish writers, and because the author received these particulars from the annals of Hierombalus, a priest of the god Jao. Several modern writers, however, of great learning, have called in question the very existence of Sanchoniatho, and have contended that the fragments which Eusebius adopted as genuine, upon the authority of Porphyry, were forged by that author, or the pretended translator Philo, from enmity to the Christians, that the Pagans might have something to show of equal antiquity with the books of Moses. These opposite opinions have produced a controversy that has filled volumes. We shall therefore in few words state what to us appears to be the truth, and refer such of our readers as are desirous of fuller information to the works of Bochart, Scaliger, Vossius, Cumberland, Dodwell, Stillingfleet, Mosheim, Cudworth, and Warburton. The controversy includes two questions: 1. Was there in reality such a writer: 2. Was he of the very remote antiquity which his translator claims for him? That there was really such a writer, and that the fragments preserved by Eusebius are indeed parts of his history interpolated perhaps by the translator, we are fully persuaded by the following reasons. Eusebius, who admitted them into his work as authentic, was one of the most learned men of his age and a diligent searcher into antiquity. His conduct at the Nicene council shows, that no theory subject he thought for himself, neither blindly by authority to the one side, nor carried away the rage of innovation to the other. He had better means than any modern writer can have of satisfying himself with respect to the authenticity of a very extraordinary work, which had then lately been translated into the Greek language, and made generally known; and there is nothing in the work itself, or at least in those parts of it which he has preserved, that could induce a wise and good man to obtrude it upon the public as genuine, had he himself suspected it to be forged. Too many of the Christian fathers were much too credulous, and ready to admit the authenticity of writings without duly weighing the merits of their claim; but then such writings were always believed to be favourable to the Christian cause, and inimical to Paganism. That writer of common sense could suppose the composition Sanchoniatho favourable to the cause of revealed religion, a farther proof cannot be required than the following extract: "He affirms, that the principles of the universe were a dark and windy air, or a wind made of dark air, and a turbulent chaos, being *chaos*; and that these things were bounded and for a long time had no bound or figure. But when this wind fell in love with his own principles, and a mixture was made, that mixture was called *desire* or *Cupid*. (ἔρωτος.) This mixture completed, was the beginning of the [illegible] of all things. But that wind did not know its own production; and of this, with that it was begotten *Mot*, which some call *Mud*, or the putrefaction of a watery mixture. And of this came all the seed of this building, and the [illegible]

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of the univerſe. But there were certain ani-
, which had no ſenſe, out of which were be-
en intelligent animals, and were called *Zophe-ſe-*
that is, the ſpies or overſeers of Heaven; and
: formed alike in the ſhape of an egg. Thus
e out *Mot*, the ſun and the moon, the leſs
the greater ſtars. And the air ſhining tho-
hly with light, by its fiery influence on the ſea
earth, winds were begotten, and clouds and
t defluxions of the heavenly waters. And when
ieſe things firſt were parted, and were ſeparat-
om their proper place by the heat of the ſun,
then all met again in the air, and dathed a-
ſt one another, and were ſo broken to pieces;
nce thunders and lightenings were made: and
e ſtroke of theſe thunders the fore-mentioned
ligent animals were awakened, and frighted
the ſound; and male and female ſtirred in the
and in the ſea: This is their generation of
als. After theſe things Sanchoniatho goes
aying: Theſe things are written in the *Cosmo-*
of TAAUTUS, and in his memoirs; and out
he conjectures, and ſurer natural ſigns which
mind ſaw, and found out, and wherewith he
enlightened us. Afterwards declaring the
es of the winds, *north* and *ſouth* and the reſt, he
es this epilogue. 'But theſe firſt men conſecrat-
he plants ſhooting out of the earth, and judg-
em gods, and worſhipped them; upon whom
themſelves lived, and all their poſterity and
ſore them: to theſe they made their meat
drink offerings.' Then he concludes: 'theſe
: the devices of worſhip agreeing with the
kneſs and want of boldneſs in their minds."
us ſuppoſe Euſebius to have been as weak and
ulous as the darkeſt monk in the darkeſt age
Europe, a ſuppoſition which no man will
e, who knows any thing of his writings,
t could he ſee in this ſenſeleſs jargon, which
a dreaming monk would think of employing
ipport of Chriſtianity? Euſebius juſtly ſtyles
ireſt atheiſm, but could he imagine that an an-
t ſyſtem of atheiſm would contribute ſo much
ake the Pagans of his age admit as divine re-
ions the books of the Old and New Teſtaments,
he ſhould be induced to adopt, without exa-
tion, an impudent forgery not 200 years old
enuine remains of the moſt remote antiquity?
is Phenician coſmogony be a fabrication of
phyry, or of the pretended tranſlator, it muſt
ly have been fabricated for ſome purpoſe; but
impoſſible to conceive what purpoſe either of
: writers could have intended to ſerve by forg-
a ſyſtem ſo extravagantly abſurd. Porphyry,
gh an enemy to the Chriſtians, was not an athe-
and would never have thought of making an
iſt of him whom he meant to obtrude upon
world as the rival of Moſes. His own princi-
were thoſe of the Alexandrian Platoniſts; and
he been the forger of the works which bear the
e of Sanchoniatho, inſtead of the incomprehen-
jargon about *dark wind, evening chaos, Mot, overſeers of heaven in the ſhape of an egg*, and
nation proceeding from the ſound of thunder, we
ld doubtleſs have been amuſed with refined
ulations concerning the operations of the *De-*
gus and the other perſons in the Platonic Tri-
See PLATONISM, and PORPHYRY. F. Simon
of the oratory imagines (*Bib. Crit.* vol. 1. p. 140) that the purpoſe for which the hiſtory of Sanchoniatho was forged, was to ſupport Paganiſm, by taking from it its mythology and allegories, which were perpetually objected to it by the Chriſtian writers; but this learned man totally miſtakes the matter. The primitive Chriſtians were too much attached to allegories themſelves to reſt their objections to Paganiſm on ſuch a foundation: what they objected to that ſyſtem was the immoral ſtories told of the gods. To this the Pagan prieſts and philoſophers replied, that theſe ſtories were only *mythologic allegories*, which veiled all the great truths of Theology, Ethics, and Phyſics. The Chriſtians ſaid, this could not be; for that the ſtories of the gods had a ſubſtantial foundation in fact, theſe gods being only dead men deified, who, in life had like paſſions and infirmities with other mortals. This then was the objection which the forger of the works of Sanchoniatho had to remove, if he really forged them in ſupport of Paganiſm; but inſtead of doing ſo, he gives the genealogy and hiſtory of all the greater gods, and ſhows, that they were men deified after death for the exploits, ſome of them groſsly immoral, which they had performed in this world. We have elſewhere (See POLYTHEISM, *page* 121.) given his account of the deification of *Chryſor*, and *Ouranos*, and *Ge*, and *Hypſiſtos*, and *Muth*; but our readers may wiſh to accompany him through the hiſtory of *Ouranos* and *Cronus*, two of his greateſt gods; whence it will appear how little his writings are calculated to ſupport the tottering cauſe of Paganiſm againſt the objections urged to it by the Chriſtian apologiſts. "Ouranos (ſays he), taking the kingdom of his father, married Ge his ſiſter, and by her had four ſons; *Ilus*, who is called *Cronus*; *Betylus*; *Dagon* who is *Siton*, or the *god of corn*; and *Atlas*. But by other wives Ouranos had much iſſue, wherefore Ge being grieved at it and jealous, reproached Ouranus, ſo as they parted from each other. But Ouranos though he parted from her, yet by force invading her, and lying with her when he liſted, went away again; and he alſo attempted to kill the children he had by her. Ge alſo often defended or avenged herſelf, gathering auxiliary powers unto her. But when Cronus came to man's age, uſing Hermes Triſmegiſtus as his counſellor and aſſiſtant, (for he was his ſecretary;) he oppoſed his father Ouranos, avenging his mother. But Cronus had children, Perſephone and Athena; the former died a virgin, but by the counſel of the latter Athena, and of Hermes, Cronus made of iron a ſcimitar and a ſpear. Then Hermes, ſpeaking to the aſſiſtants of Cronus with enchanting words, wrought in them a keen deſire to fight againſt Ouranos in the behalf of Ge; and thus Cronus warring againſt Ouranus, drove him out of his kingdom, and ſucceeded in the imperial power. In the fight was taken a well-beloved concubine of Ouranos big with child. Cronus gave her in marriage to Dagon, and ſhe brought forth at his houſe what ſhe had in her womb by Ouranos, and called him *Demaroon*. After theſe things Cronus build a wall round about his houſe, and founds *Byblus* the firſt city in Phenicia. Afterwards Cronus, ſuſpecting his own brother Atlus, with the advice of Hermes, throwing

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throwing him into a deep hole of the earth, there buried him, and having a son called *Saaid*, he dispatched him with his own sword, having a suspicion of him, and deprived his own son of life with his own hand. He also cut off the head of his own daughter, so that all the gods were amazed at the mind of Cronus. But in process of time, Ouranos being in banishment, sends his daughter Astarte, with two other sisters Rhea and Dione, to cut off Cronus by deceit, whom Cronus taking, made wives of these sisters. Ouranus, understanding this, sent Eimarmene and Hore, Fate and Beauty, with other auxiliaries, to war against him: but Cronus, having gained the affections of these also, kept them with himself. Ouranos devised *Baetulia*, contriving stones that moved as having life. But Cronus begat on Astarte 7 daughters called *Titanides* or *Artemides*; and he begat on Rhea 7 sons, the youngest of whom, as soon as he was born, was consecrated a god. Also by Dione he had daughters, and by Astarte two sons, *Pothos* and *Eros*, i. e. Cupid and Love. But Dagon, after he had found out bread, corn, and the plough, was called *Zeus Arotrius*. To *Sadus*, or *the just*, one of the *Titanides* bare *Asclepius*. Cronus had also in *Peraea* three sons, 1. *Cronus* his father's namesake. 2. *Zeus Arbelus*. 3. *Apollo*." Is it conceivable, that a writer so acute as Porphyry, or indeed that any man of common sense, would forge a book filled with such stories as these, to remove the christian objections to the immoral characters of the Pagan divinities? The supposition is impossible. Nor is Sanchoniatho here writing allegorically, and by his tales of *Ouranos*, and *Ge*, and *Cronus*, as only personifying the *heaven*, the *earth*, and *time*. On the contrary, he assures us, that *Ouranus*, or *Hypsistus*, or *Aliercheion*, was the son of one *Rhaan* or *Hypsheus*, who dwelt about Byblus, and that from him the element which is over us was called *heaven*, on account of its excellent beauty, as the earth was named *Ge* after his sister and wife. And his translator is very angry with the Neoteric Greeks, as he calls them, because that, "by a great deal of force and straining, they laboured to turn all the stories of the gods into allegories and physical discourse." The proves, that the author of this book did not mean to veil the great truths of religion under the cloak of mythologic allegories; and therefore, if it was forged by Porphyry in support of Paganism, the forger so far mistook the state of the question between him and his adversaries, that he contrived a book, which, if admitted to be ancient, totally overthrew his own cause. The next inquiry with respect to Sanchoniatho is his antiquity. Did he really live and write at so early a period as Porphyry and Philo pretend? We think he did not; and what confirms our opinion, is that mark of national vanity and partiality, in making the sacred mysteries of his own country original, and conveyed from Phenicia into Egypt. This, however, furnishes an additional proof that Porphyry was not the forger of the work; for he well knew that the mysteries had their origin in Egypt (see MYSTERIES), and would not have fallen into such a blunder. He is guilty, indeed, of a very great anachronism, when he makes Sanchoniatho contemporary with Semiramis, and yet pretends that what he writes of the Jews is compiled from the records of Hierombaal the priest of the god Jao; for Bochart has made it appear highly probable, that *Hierombalus* or *Jerom-baal* is the *Jerub-baal* or *Gideon* of scripture. Between the reign of Semiramis and the Trojan war, a period elapsed of near 800 years, whereas Gideon flourished not above 70 years before the destruction of Troy. But supposing Sanchoniatho to have really consulted the records of Gideon, it by no means follows that he flourished in the same period with that judge of Israel. His atheistic cosmogony he does not indeed pretend to have got from the priest of Jao, but from records deposited in his own town of Berytus by Thoth, a Phenician philosopher, who was afterwards king of Egypt. Stillingfleet indeed thinks it most probable that Sanchoniatho became acquainted with the most remarkable passages in the life of Jerub-baal from annals written by a Phenician pen. He observes, that immediately after the death of Gideon, the Israelites, with their usual proneness to idolatry, worshipped *Baal-berith*, or the idol of Berytus, the town in which Sanchoniatho lived; and from this circumstance he concludes, that there must have been such an intercourse between the Hebrews and Berytians, that in process of time the latter people might assume to themselves the Jerub-baal of the former, and hand down his actions to posterity as those of a priest instead of a great commander. All this may be true; but if so, it amounts to a demonstration, that the antiquity of Sanchoniatho is not to high by many ages as that which is claimed for him by Philo and Porphyry, though he may still be more ancient, as we think Vossius has proved him to be, than any other profane historian whose writings have come down to us either entire or in fragments. (*De Hist. Græc.* lib. 1. c. 1.) But granting the authenticity of Sanchoniatho's history, what, it may be asked, is the value of his fragments, that we should take the trouble to ascertain whether they be genuine remains of high antiquity, or the forgeries of a modern impostor? We answer, with the learned Stillingfleet, that though those fragments contain such absurdities as it would be a disgrace to reason to suppose credible; though the whole cosmogony is the grossest sink of atheism; and though many persons make a figure in the history, whose very existence may be doubted; yet we, who have in our hands the light of divine revelation, may in this dungeon discover many excellent relics of ancient tradition, which throw no feeble light upon many passages of holy scripture, as they give us the origin and progress of that idolatry which was so long the opprobrium of human nature. They furnish too a complete confutation of the extravagant chronology of the Chaldeans and Egyptians, and show, if they be genuine, that the world is indeed not older than it is said to be by Moses. We would therefore recommend to our readers an attentive perusal of *Cumberland's* SANCHONIATHO.

(1.) SAN-CHOUI, a town of the kingdom of Corea; 570 miles E. of Pekin. Lon. 144. 30. E. Lat. 41. 9. N.

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3.) SAN-CHOUI, 2 towns of China: 1. in ·fi; ·15 miles NE. of Ping: 2. in Quang- ; 25 miles W. of Canton.

N-CIAN, an iſland of Aſia, near Hai-Nan, e coaſt of the province of Quang-Tong, in ; about 42 miles in circumference. It is is for the death of St Francis Xavier: his is ſtill to be ſeen on a ſmall hill, at the bot- of which is a plain covered on one ſide with , and on the other ornamented with ſeveral ns. This iſland contains 5 villages; the in- nts of which have nothing to ſubſiſt on but nd fiſh.

NCOINS, a town of France, in the dep. of and late prov. of Berry, ſeated on the Ar- 15 miles SW. of Nevers, and 25½ SE. of res. Lon. 20. 35. E. Ferro. Lat. 46. 50. N.

NCONA, an ancient name of the *Saone*. See and SAONE.

NCRI, a town of Thibet; 60 miles SE. of .

NCROFT, William, Abp. of Canterbury, orn at Freſingfield, in Suffolk, in 1616; and ted into Emanuel college, Cambridge, in In 1642 he was elected a fellow; and, for ng to take the covenant, was ejected. In he was choſen one of the univerſity preach- n 1663 was nominated dean of York; and 64, dean of St Paul's. In this ſtation he nſelf to repair the cathedral, till the fire of on in 1666 employed his thoughts on the noble undertaking of rebuilding it, toward he gave 1400l. He alſo rebuilt the deanry, nproved the revenue of it. In 1668 he was ted archdeacon of Canterbury, on the king's ſtation. In 1677, being prolocutor of the cation, he was promoted to be Abp. of rbury. In 1678 he was committed to the , with ſix other biſhops, for preſenting a on to the king againſt reading the declara- f indulgence. Upon king James II.'s with- ng himſelf, he concurred with the lords in a ation to the prince of Orange for a free nent, and due indulgence to the Proteſtant ers. But when that prince and his conſort leclared king and queen, his grace refuſing the oaths, he was ſuſpended and depriv- le lived privately till he died in 1693. His g, integrity, and piety, made him an ex- rnament of the church. He publiſhed a in 12mo, entitled *Modern Politics*, taken Machiavel, Borgia, and other authors; Fa- Letters to Mr North, an 8vo pamphlet; ree of his ſermons were printed together af- death.

* SANCTIFICATION. *n. ſ.* [*ſanctifica-* r. from *ſanctifico*, low Latin.] 1. The ſtate freed, or act of freeing from the dominion for the time to come.—The grace of his *ation* and life, which was firſt received in ight paſs from him to his whole race.

2. The act of making holy; conſecra- After this follows a long prayer for the *ation* of that new ſign of the croſs. *Stil- g.*

SANCTIFICATION is defined by the re- divines, to be an act of God's grace, by a perſon's deſires and affections are alie- nated from the world: and by which he is made to die to ſin, and to live to righteouſneſs; or, in other words, to feel an abhorrence of all vice, and a love of religion and virtue.

* SANCTIFIER. *n. ſ.* [from *ſanctify.*] He that ſanctifies or makes holy.—To be the *ſanctifier* of a people. *Derham.*

* *To* SANCTIFY. *v. a.* [*ſanctifier*, Fr. *ſancti- fico*, Lat.] 1. To free from the power of ſin for the time to come.—For if the blood of bulls, ſprinkling the unclean, *ſanctifieth* to the purifying of the fleſh, how much more ſhall the blood of Chriſt? *Heb.* ix. 13. 2. To make holy.—What actions can expreſs the intire purity of thought, which refines and *ſanctifies* a virtuous man? *Addiſon.* 3. To make a means of holineſs.—The goſpel, by not making many things unclean, as the law did, hath *ſanctified* thoſe things generally to all, which particularly each man to himſelf muſt *ſanctify* by a reverend and holy uſe. *Hooker.* —Thoſe judgments God hath been pleaſed to ſend upon me, are ſo much the more welcome, as a means which his mercy hath *ſanctified* to me. *King Charles.*—The grace of God is pleaſed to *ſanctify* theſe ſenſible helps to higher purpoſes. *South.* 4. To make free from guilt.—

The holy man, amaz'd at what he ſaw,
Made haſte to *ſanctify* the bliſs by law. *Dryd.*

5. To ſecure from violation.—

Truth guards the poet, *ſanctifies* the line. *Pope.*

* SANCTIMONIOUS. *adj.* [from *ſanctimonia*, Latin.] Saintly; having the appearance of ſanc- tity.—A *ſanctimonious* pretence, under a pomp of form, without the grace of an inward integrity, will not ſerve the turn. *L'Eſtrange.*

* SANCTIMONY. *n. ſ.* [*ſanctimonia*, Latin.] Holineſs; ſcrupulous auſterity; appearance of holineſs.—If *ſanctimony*, and a frail vow between an errant Barbarian and a ſuperſubtle Venetian, be not too hard for my wit, and all the tribe of hell, thou ſhalt enjoy her. *Shak.*—Her pretence is a pilgrimage, which holy undertaking, with moſt auſtere *ſanctimony*, ſhe accompliſh'd. *Shak.* —All diſcreet princes ſhould beware of yielding haſty belief to the robes of *ſanctimony*. *Raleigh.*

(1.) * SANCTION. *n. ſ.* [*ſanction*, Fr. *ſanctio*, Lat.] 1. The act of confirmation which gives to any thing its obligatory power; ratification.—

I have kill'd a ſlave,
And of his blood cauſ'd to be mix'd with wine:
Fill every man his bowl. There cannot be
A fitter drink to make this *ſanction* in. *Catil.*

Againſt the publick *ſanctions* of the peace,
With fates averſe, the rout in arms reſort. *Æn.*

—There needs no poſitive law or *ſanction* of God to ſtamp an obliquity upon ſuch a diſobedience. *South.*—Gratitude is not enjoined by the *ſanction* of penalties, to be inflicted upon the perſon that ſhall not be found grateful. *South.*—The ſtricteſt profeſſors of reaſon have added the *ſanction* of their teſtimony. *Watts.*—This word is often made the *ſanction* of an oath. *Swift.*—Wanting *ſanction* and authority, it is only yet a private work. *Baker.* 2. A law; a decree ratified. Improper.—

'Tis the firſt *ſanction* nature gave to man,
Each other to aſſiſt in what they can. *Denham.*

(2.) SANCTION, in law, is the authority given to

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to a judicial act, by which it becomes legal and authentic.

* SANCTITUDE. *n. f.* [from *sanctus*, Latin.] Holineſs; goodneſs; ſaintlineſs.—

The image of their glorious Maker ſhone,
Truth, wiſdom, *ſanctitude*, ſerene and pure.
Milton.

* SANCTITY. *n. f.* [*ſanctitas*, Lat.] 1. Holineſs; the ſtate of being holy.—

Such *ſanctity* hath Heaven given his hand,
They preſently amend. *Shak.*

God attributes to place
No *ſanctity*. *Milton.*

2. Goodneſs; the quality of being good; purity; godlineſs.—

This youth
I reliev'd with *ſanctity* of love. *Shak.*

—Their empire had not more increaſed by the ſtrength of their arms than the *ſanctity* of their manners. *Addiſon.* 3. Saint; holy being.—

About him all the *ſanctities* of heav'n
Stood thick as ſtars. *Milton.*

SANCTIUS. See SANCHEZ, N° 1.

SANCTORIUS, or SANTORIUS, a moſt ingenious and learned phyſician, was a profeſſor in the univerſity of Padua, in the beginning of the 17th century. He contrived a kind of ſtatical chair, by means of which, after eſtimating the aliments received, and the ſenſible diſcharges, he was enabled to determine with great exactneſs the quantity of inſenſible perſpiration, as well as what kind of victuals and drink increaſed or diminiſhed it. On theſe experiments he erected a curious ſyſtem, which he publiſhed under the title of *De medicina ſtatica*; of which we have an Engliſh tranſlation by Dr Quincy. Sanctorius publiſhed ſeveral other treatiſes, which ſhewed great abilities and learning.

* *To* SANCTUARISE. *v. n.* [from *ſanctuary*.] To ſhelter by means of ſacred privileges. Not in uſe.—

No place indeed ſhould murder *ſanctuariſe*.
Shak.

(1.) * SANCTUARY. *n. f.* [*ſanctuaire*, Fr. *ſanctuarium*, Lat.] 1. A holy place; holy ground. Properly the *penetralia*, or moſt retired and awful part of a temple.—

Shall we deſire to raze the *ſanctuary*,
And pitch our evils there? *Shak.*

They often plac'd
Within his *ſanctuary* their ſhrines. *Milton.*

—Let it not be imagined, that they contribute nothing to the happineſs of the country who only ſerve God in the duties of a holy life, who attend his *ſanctuary*. *Rogers.* 2. A place of protection; a ſacred aſylum: whence a *ſanctuary man*, one who takes ſhelter in a holy place.—

Come, my boy, we will to *ſanctuary*. *Shak.*
I'll hence forthwith unto the *ſanctuary*. *Shak.*
Oft have I heard of *ſanctuary* men;
But *ſanctuary* children, ne'er 'till now. *Shak.*

—He and divers of his company regiſtered themſelves *ſanctuary* men. *Bacon.*—Howſoever the *ſanctuary* man was protected from his creditors, yet his goods out of *ſanctuary* ſhould not. *Bacon.* 3. Shelter; protection.—He that's worſted will be ſure to take *ſanctuary* in the fens. *L'Eſtrange.*

—The admirable works of painting were made fuel for the fire; but ſome reliques of it took *ſanctuary* under ground. *Dryden.*

(2.) SANCTUARY, among the Jews, alſo called *Sanctum ſanctorum*, or *Holy of holies*, was the higheſt and moſt retired part of the temple of Jeruſalem, in which the ark of the covenant was preſerved, and into which none but the high prieſt was allowed to enter, and that only once a-year, to intercede for the people. Some diſtinguiſh the ſanctuary from the *ſanctum ſanctorum*, and maintain that the whole temple was called the *ſanctuary*. To try and examine any thing by the weight of the ſanctuary, is to examine it by a juſt and equal ſcale; becauſe, among the Jews, it was the cuſtom of the prieſts to keep ſtone weights to ſerve as ſtandards for regulating all weights, though theſe were not at all different from the royal or profane weights.

(3.) SANCTUARY, in the Romiſh church, is ſo uſed for that part of the church in which the altar is placed, encompaſſed with a rail or baluſtrade.

(4.) SANCTUARY, in ancient cuſtoms. See ASYLUM; and EDINBURGH, § 19.

SANCTUS, } SANGUS, a deity of the Sabines
SANCUS, or } introduced among the gods of ancient Rome, by the name of *Dius Fidius*. He was the father of SABINUS, the firſt king of the Sabines. *Ital.* viii. 421. *Virg.* L. L. 4.

SANCY, or SANCY LE BAS, (which epithet ſeems to imply that there was another Sancy called *higher*,) a town of France, in the department of Moſelle, and capital of a canton; 6 miles E. of Briey, and 9 W. of Thionville.

(1.) * SAND. *n. f.* [*ſand*, Daniſh and Dutch.] 1. Particles of ſtone not conjoined, or ſtones broken to powder.—That finer matter called ſand no other than very ſmall pebbles. *Woodward.*

Here i' th' *ſands*,
Thee I'll rake up.

The *ſands* are number'd that make up my life.

—*Sand* hath always its root in clay, and there are no veins of *ſand* any great depth within the earth. *Bacon.*—King Philip ſhewed him the difference betwixt the ink box and *ſand* box. Break a quickſilver be put into a convenient glaſs veſſel, and that veſſel exactly ſtopped, and kept for ſix weeks in a *ſand* furnace, whoſe heat may be conſtant, the corpuſcles that conſtitute the quick will, after innumerable revolutions, be ſo connected to one another, that they will appear in the form of a red powder. *Boyle.*

Engag'd with money bags, as bold
As men with *ſand* bags did of old. *Hudibras.*

—The force of water caſts gold out from the bowels of mountains, and expoſes it among the *ſands* of rivers. *Dryden.*—Shells are found in the great *ſand* pit at Woolwich. *Woodward.*—

Celia and I, the other day,
Walk'd o'er the *ſand* hills to the ſea. *Prior.*

2. Barren country covered with ſands.—He and a few of his friends, fought to ſave themſelves by flight over the deſert *ſands*. *Knolles.*—

Her ſons ſpread
Beneath Gibraltar to the Lybian *ſands*.
Sudden th' impetuous hurricanes deſcend

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'heel through the air, in circling eddies play,
ear up the *ſands*, and ſweep whole plains a-
way. *Addiſon.*

.) SAND, in natural hiſtory, a genus of foſſils,
:haracters of which are, that they are found
inute concretions; forming together a kind
)wder, the genuine particles of which are all
tendency to one determinate ſhape, and ap-
regular though more or leſs complete con-
ons; not to be diſſolved or diſunited by wa-
or formed into a coherent maſs by means of
ut retaining their figure in it; tranſparent,
iable by extreme heat, and not diſſoluble in,
fferveſcing with acids. Sands are ſubject to
ariouſly blended, both with homogene and
ogene ſubſtances, as that of talks, &c. and
:, as well as from their various colours, are
vided into, 1. White ſands, whether pure
ixed with other arenaceous or heterogeneous
cles; of all which there are ſeveral ſpecies,
ng no leſs in the fineneſs of their particles
in the different degrees of colour, from a
t and ſhining white, to a browniſh, yellow-
reeniſh, &c. white. 2. The red and reddiſh
, both pure and impure. 3. The yellow
, whether pure or mixed, are alſo very nu-
us. 4. The brown ſands, diſtinguiſhed in
ime manner. 5. The black ſands, whereof
are only two ſpecies, viz. a fine ſhining
ſh black ſand, and another of a fine ſhining
ſh black colour. 6. The green kind; of
a there is only one known ſpecies, viz. a
: variegated duſky green ſand, common in
nia. Sand is of great uſe in the glaſs manu-
:e; a white kind of ſand being employed for
ng of the white glaſs, and a coarſe greeniſh
ng ſand for the green glaſs. In agriculture,
ms to be the office of ſand to make unctuous
s fertile, and fit to ſupport vegetables, &c.
arth alone, we find, is liable to coaleſce, and
r into a hard coherent maſs, as appears in
and being thus embodied, as it were glued
ber, is no way diſpoſed to nouriſh vegeta-
But if ſuch earth be mixed with ſand, its
are thereby kept open, and the earth itſelf
ſo as thus to give room for the juices to aſ-
land for plants to be nouriſhed thereby. A
able planted only in ſand, or in a fat glebe,
earth, receives little growth or increaſe;
mixture of both renders the maſs fertile. In
, earth is in ſome meaſure made organical by
s of ſand; pores and ſpaces, ſomething ana-
s to veſſels, being thereby maintained, by
i the juices may be conveyed, prepared, di-
l, circulated, and at length diſcharged.
non ſand is, therefore, a very good addition,
ay of manure, to all ſorts of clay lands; it
s them, and makes them more open and
See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV.
I. *Ord.* III. *Gen.* IV. *Sp.* 1.

) SAND FLOODS, a name given to the flowing
id ſo common in the deſerts of Arabia. Mr
: gives the following accurate deſcription of
that he ſaw in travelling through that long
lreary deſert: "At one o'clock (ſays he) we
:d among ſome acacia trees at Waadi el Hal-
, having gone 21 miles. We were here at
ſurpriſed and terrified by a ſight ſurely one
of the moſt magnificent in the world. In that vaſt expanſe of deſert from W. to NW. of us, we ſaw a number of prodigious pillars of ſand at different diſtances, at times moving with great celerity, at others ſtalking on with a majeſtic ſlowneſs; at intervals we thought they were coming in a few minutes to overwhelm us; and ſmall quantities of ſand did actually more than once reach us. Again they would retreat ſo as to be almoſt out of ſight, their tops reaching to the very clouds. There the tops often ſeparated from the bodies; and theſe, once diſjoined, diſperſed in the air, and did not appear more. Sometimes they were broken near the middle, as if ſtruck with a large cannon ſhot. About noon they began to advance with conſiderable ſwiftneſs upon us, the wind being very ſtrong at north. Eleven of them ranged alongſide of us about the diſtance of 3 miles The greateſt diameter of the largeſt appeared to me at that diſtance as if it would meaſure ten feet. They retired from us with a wind at SE. leaving an impreſſion upon my mind to which I can give no name, though ſurely one ingredient in it was fear, with a conſiderable deal of wonder and aſtoniſhment. It was in vain to think of flying, the ſwifteſt horſe or faſteſt ſailing ſhip could not carry us out of this danger; and the full perſuaſion of this riyetted me as if to the ſpot where I ſtood, and let the camels gain on me ſo much in my ſtate of lameneſs, that it was with ſome difficulty I could overtake them. The ſame appearance of moving pillars of ſand preſented themſelves to us this day in form and diſpoſition like thoſe we had ſeen at Waadi Halboub, only they ſeemed to be more in number and leſs in ſize. They came ſeveral times in a direction cloſe upon us, that is, I believe, within leſs than two miles. They began immediately after ſun-riſe, like a thick wood, and almoſt darkened the ſun: his rays ſhining through them for near an hour, gave them an appearance of pillars of fire. Our people now became deſperate: the Greek ſhrieked out, and ſaid it was the day of judgment. Iſmael pronounced it to be hell, and the Tucorories, that the world was on fire. I aſked Idiris if ever he had before ſeen ſuch a ſight? He ſaid he had often ſeen them as terrible, though never worſe; but what he feared moſt was that extreme redneſs in the air, which was a ſure preſage of the coming of the ſimoom." See SIMOOM. The flowing of ſand, though far from being ſo tremendous and hurtful as in Arabia, is of very bad conſequences in Britain, as many valuable pieces of land have thus been entirely loſt; of which we give the following inſtances from Mr Pennant, together with a probable means of preventing them in future. "I have more than once (ſays he), on the E. coaſts of Scotland, obſerved the calamitous ſtate of ſeveral extenſive tracts, formerly in a moſt flouriſhing condition, at preſent covered with ſands, unſtable as thoſe of the deſerts of Arabia. The pariſh of Fyvie, in the county of Aberdeen, is now reduced to two farms, and above 500l. a-year loſt to the Errol family, as appears by the oath of the factor in 1600, made before the court of ſeſſion, to aſcertain the miniſter's ſalary. Not a veſtige is to be ſeen of any buildings, unleſs a fragment of the church. The eſtate of Coubin, near Forres, is a-

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nother melancholy inſtance. This tract was once worth 300l. a-year, at this time overwhelmed with ſand. This ſtrange inundation was ſtill in motion in 1769, chiefly when a ſtrong wind prevailed. Its motion is ſo rapid, that I have been aſſured, that an apple tree has been ſo covered with it in one ſeaſon, that only the very ſummit appeared. This diſtreſs was brought on about 90 years ago, and was occaſioned by the cutting down ſome trees, and pulling up the bent or ſtar which grew on the ſand-hills; which at laſt gave riſe to the act of 15 George II. c. 33. to prohibit the deſtruction of this uſeful plant. I beg leave to ſuggeſt to the public a poſſible means of putting a ſtop to theſe deſtructive ravages. Providence hath kindly formed this plant to grow only in pure ſand. Mankind was left to make, in after-times, an application of it ſui able to their wants. The ſand hills, on a portion of the Flintſhire ſhores, in the pariſh of Llanaſa, are covered with it naturally, and kept firm in their place. The Dutch perhaps owe the exiſtence of part at leaſt of their country to the ſowing of it on the *mobile ſolum*, their ſand banks. My humane and amiable friend, the late Benjamin Stillingfleet, Eſq. recommended the ſowing of this plant on the ſandy wilds of Norfolk, that its matted roots might prevent the deluges of ſand which that country experiences. It has been already remarked, that wherſoever this plant grows the ſalutary effects are ſoon obſerved to follow. A ſingle plant will fix the ſand, and gather it into a hillock; theſe hillocks, by the increaſe of vegetation, are formed into larger, till by degrees a barrier is made often againſt the encroachments of the ſea; and might as often prove preventative of the calamity in queſtion. I cannot, therefore, but recommend the trial to the inhabitants of many parts of North Britain. The plant grows in moſt places near the ſea, and is known to the Highlanders by the name of *murab*; to the Engliſh by that of *bent-glar*, *matgraſs*, or *marram*. Linnæus calls it *arundo arenaria*. The Dutch call it *helm*. This plant hath ſtiff and ſharp-pointed leaves, growing like a ruſh, a foot and a half long: the roots both creep and penetrate deeply into their ſandy beds: the ſtalk bears an ear 5 or 6 inches long, not unlike rye; the ſeeds are ſmall, brown, and roundiſh. By good fortune, as old Gerard obſerves, no cattle will eat or touch this vegetable, allotted for other purpoſes, ſubſervient to the uſe of mankind."

(4.) SANDS, GOODWIN. See GOODWIN.

(1.) SANDA, a ſmall iſland of Scotland, on the coaſt of Argyllſhire, ſeparated by a ſtrait of one mile broad, near the Mull of Kintyre. It is about 1½ mile long, and half a mile broad; and was anciently the place of rendezvous for the Daniſh fleets, during their expeditions to the W. coaſts; whence it was named *Avona Porticoſa*, and is ſtill occaſionally called *Avon*. It has the ruins of an old chapel dedicated to St Columba. About 3 miles S. of it, is a dangerous ſunk rock, about a mile in circumference. Lon. 2. 24. W. of Edinb. Lat. 55. 22. N.

(2.) SANDA. See SANDY.

SANDABAD, a town of Perſia, in the province of Irak: 21 miles SSW. of Amadan.

(1.) * SANDAL. *n. ſ.* [*ſandale*, Fr. *ſandalium*, Lat.] A looſe ſhoe.—

The ſtill morn went out with *ſandals* grey. *Milt.*
With golden *ſandals*

His feet are ſhod. *Prior.*

The *ſandals* of celeſtial mold
Surround her feet. *Pope's Odyſſ.*

(2.) *The* SANDAL, in antiquity, was a rich kind of ſlipper worn on the feet by the Greek and Roman ladies, made of gold, ſilk, or other precious ſtuff; conſiſting of a ſole, with an hollow at one extreme to embrace the ancle, but leaving the upper part of the foot bare.

(3.) SANDAL is alſo uſed for a ſhoe or ſlipper worn by the pope and other Romiſh prelates when they officiate. It is alſo the name of a ſort of ſlipper worn by ſeveral congregations of reformed monks. This laſt conſiſts of no more than a neat leathern ſole, faſtened with latches or buckles, the reſt of the foot being left bare. The capuchins wear ſandals; the recollects, clogs; the former are of leather, and the latter of wood.

(4.) SANDAL, in geography, a lake of Ruſſia, in Olonetz; 24 miles long and 1 broad; 48 miles of Petrozavodſk.

(5.) SANDAL WOOD. See SANTALUM, and SANDERS, N° 1, 2, 5–7.

SANDALA, a town of Africa, in Jemaara.

SANDALIUM, 1. an iſland in the Ægean ſea, near Leſbos: 2. a ſea port of Piſidia. *Strab.*

SANDANUS, a river of Thrace, near Palene.

(1.) SANDARAC, or } or SANDARAH, a fine
(1.) SANDARACH, } natural hiſtory, a very beautiful native foſſil, though too often confounded with the common factitious red arſenic, and with the red matter formed by melting the common yellow orpiment. It is a pure ſubſtance, of a very even and regular ſtructure, is throughout of that colour which our dyers term an orange *ſcarlet*, and is conſiderably tranſparent even in the thickeſt pieces. But though, with reſpect to colour, it has the advantage of cinnabar when in maſs, it is vaſtly inferior to it when both are reduced to powder. It is moderately hard, but remarkably heavy; and, when expoſed to a moderate heat, melts and flows like oil: if ſet on fire, it burns very briſkly. It is found in Saxony and Bohemia, in the copper and ſilver mines; and is uſed by the painters, who find it a very fine and valuable red: but its virtues or qualities in medicine are no more aſcertained at this time than thoſe of the yellow orpiment.

(2.) SANDARACH, GUM, is a dry and hard reſin uſually met with in looſe granules, of the bigneſs of a pea, a horſe-bean, or larger; of a pale whitiſh yellow colour, tranſparent, and of a reſinous ſmell; brittle, very inflammable, of an acrid and aromatic taſte, and diffuſing a very pleaſant ſmell when burning. It is ſaid to be produced from a ſpecies of juniper. (See JUNIPERUS.) It flows only from theſe trees in hot countries: but the natives promote the diſcharge of it by making inciſions in the bark. Sandarach is eſteemed good in fluxes and in hæmorrhagies. The varniſh-makers make a kind of varniſh of it, by diſſolving it in oil of turpentine or linſeed, or in ſpirit of wine. That GUM SANDARAC is only produced from a ſpecies of juniper, was long a very common opinion

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inion; but M. Schousboe has lately proved it be a miſtake, in a *Daniſh Journal*, entitled, *The ſical, Medical, and Economical Library*, Part , 1799. The *juniperus communis*, from which ny have derived this gum, does not grow in A-a; and ſandarac ſeems to belong excluſively that part of the world. The gum ſandarac of ſhops is brought from the ſouthern provinces Morocco. About 6 or 700 quintals are exported ry year from Santa Cruz, Mogador, and Saffy. he language of the country it is called *el graſ-*

The tree which produces it is a *Thuia*, found by M. Vahl in Tunis. It was made known ſe-l years ago by Dr Shaw, who named it *Cypreſ-fructu quadrivalvi, Equiſeti inſtar articulatis*; but her of theſe learned men were acquainted with economical uſe of this tree; probably becauſe, g not common in the northern part of Bar-, the inhabitants find little advantage in col-ng the reſin which exudes from it. M. Schouſ-, who ſaw the ſpecies of *thuia* in queſtion, ſays it does not riſe to more than 20 or 30 feet at t, and that the diameter of its trunk does not ed 10 or 12 inches. It diſtinguiſhes itſelf, on firſt view, from the two other ſpecies of the genus, cultivated in gardens, by having a diſtinct trunk, and the figure of a real tree; reas in the latter the branches riſe from the , which gives them the appearance rather of es. Its branches are alſo more articulated and le. Its flowers which are not very apparent, themſelves in April; and the fruits, which f a ſpherical form ripen in September. When nch of this tree is held to the light, it ap-s to be interſperſed with a number of tranſ-nt veſicles which contain the reſin. When veſicles burſt in the ſummer months, a reſi-juice exudes from the trunk and branches, the caſe in other coniferous trees. This re-the ſandarac, which is collected by the inha-ts of the country, and carried to the ports, which it is tranſported to Europe. It is em-d in making ſome kinds of ſealing wax, and fferent ſorts of varniſh. In 1793 one cwt. coſt in Morocco from 13 to 13½ piaſtres, h make from about 3 l. 5 s. to 3 l. 7 s. 6 d. ſter-er quintal. Sandarac, to be good, muſt be bright yellow colour, pure and tranſparent. an article very difficult to be adulterated. however, muſt be taken, that the Moors do nix with it too much ſand. It is probable a tree of the ſame kind produces the gum rac of Senegal, which is exported in pretty derable quantities.

SANDARACH, POUNDED. See POUNCE.

* SANDARAK, *n. f.* [*ſandaraque*, French; *raca*, Latin.] 1. A mineral of a bright co-not much unlike to red arſenick. *Bailey.* 2. hite gum oozing out of the juniper-tree.

SANDARAK. See SANDARACH, N° 1 and 2.

NDARLIK, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in ia, 4 miles S. of Pergamo.

SANDAU, a town of Bohemia, in the cir-Leitmeritz, 6 miles WNW. of Leypa.

SANDAU, a town of Germany, in Magde-on the Elbe, 48 miles ENE. of Magdeburg.

NDAY, or SANDA, an iſland of Scotland, one of the Orkneys, 12 miles long, and from 1 to 3 broad. Its form is irregular and reſembles that of a lobſter. It is ſeparated from STRONSAY on the S. by a channel 3 miles broad; from EDA, or EDAY, on the W. by a channel of 1¼ miles broad; and from N. RONALDSAY on the N. by a channel of from 1 to 2¼ leagues. The ſurface is flat, particularly on the E. coaſt, which renders it ſubject to inundations during the ſpring tides, accompanied with an E. wind. The ſoil is mixed with ſand, but produces good crops, when well manured with ſea ware; which abounds on the coaſt, and is made into kelp in greater quantity than in any other iſland in Orkney. About 550 tons are made annually, and in one ſeaſon 620 tons were made. The 2 chief harbours are *Kettleſoſit* on the S. and Otterſwick on the N. both commodious. The iſland is divided into 3 pariſhes, Croſs, Burneſs, and Ladykirk; but the 2 firſt are united. See BURNESS, CROSS, § IV, N° 3; and LADYKIRK, N° 2. The total population of the iſland in 1792, was 1772, beſides 420 in N. RONALDSAY, which is annexed to it. The number of ſheep 4200; horſes 856; ſwine, 140; and black cattle 1314.

SANDBACH. See SANDBACH.

SAND-BAGS, in the art of war. See SACK, § 6.

SANDBERG, a mountain of Sileſia in Schweidnitz 3½ miles SSE. of Waldenburg.

* SANDBLIND. *adj.* [*ſand* and *blind*.] Having a defect in the eyes, by which ſmall particles appear to fly before them.—My true begotten father, being more than *ſandblind*, high gravelblind, knows me not. *Shak.*

(1.) * SANDBOX TREE. *n. ſ.* [*bura*, Latin.] A plant.—The fruit of this plant, if ſuffered to remain on 'till they are fully ripe, burſt in the heat of the day with a violent exploſion, making a noiſe like the firing of a piſtol, and hereby the ſeeds are thrown about to a conſiderable diſtance. Theſe ſeeds, when green, vomit and purge, and are ſuppoſed to be ſomewhat a-kin to *nux vomica*. *Miller.*

(2.) SAND BOX TREE. See HURA.

(1.) SANDE, a town of Norway, in the province of Agger-huus; 10 miles from Stromſoe.

(2.) SANDE, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira, 3 miles N. of Lamego.

SANDECZ, a ſtrong town of Galicia, ci-devant Little Poland, in the late palatinate of Cracow. It has mines of gold and copper in its environs; and is ſeated at the foot of Mount Krapack, 32 miles SE. of Cracow, and 75 SSW. of Sandomirz. Lon. 20. 32. E. Lat. 49. 43. N.

* SANDED. *adj.* [from *ſand*.] 1. Covered with ſand; barren.—In well *ſanded* lands little or no ſnow lies. *Mortimer.*—

Reſiſtleſs, roaring dreadful down it comes;
Then o'er the *ſanded* valley floating ſpreads.
Thomſon.

2. Marked with ſmall ſpots; variegated with duſky ſpecks.—

My hounds are bred out of the Spartan kind,
So flew'd, ſo *ſanded*. *Shak.*

SAND-EEL, in ichthyology. See AMMODYTES.

SANDEFIOERD, a ſea port town of Norway, in Chriſtiania; with a good harbour, 6 miles S. of Tonſberg.

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SANDEMAN, Robert, an ingenious writer, born at Perth, of a respectable family, in 1723, and educated at the university of St Andrew's. Becoming a member of the Society of GLASSITES or INDEPENDENTS, he, in 1757, published a work entitled, *Letters on Theron and Aspasio*, 2 vols 8vo, which made no small noise in the religious world. In this work, he not only attacked the rev. James Hervey, author of *Theron and Aspasio*, (see HERVEY,) in the most severe terms, and analyzed all the most popular doctrines advanced in that work, with the most satirical criticism; but also attacked, without mercy, many of the most popular writers on divinity in both establishments, particularly the celebrated Thomas Boston; (see BOSTON, N° 4.) and endeavoured to prove, that, according to his view of Scripture, none of them, for all the large volumes they had written, knew any thing of the genuine faith and hope of the gospel, but led their readers and hearers to build their hopes of salvation upon a false foundation. This work, though reprobated, as was to be expected, by the orthodox, in both kingdoms, made so much noise in England, that the whole party, who adhere to Mr Glas's system (see GLASS, N° 1.) have been ever since chiefly known in that kingdom by the name of SANDEMANIANS. (See the next article.) Mr Sandeman, in 1766, went over to America, where a meeting was erected for him; but preaching the scripture doctrine of "submission to the powers that be," this did not suit the spirit of resistance to British taxation, which was then becoming daily more popular in the American colonies. The consequence was, that he fell under persecution; and died in New England, in 1772. As a writer, his style is pure, and his satire keen.

SANDEMANIANS, a sect of Independents, so named in England from the preceding writer; but better known, in Scotland, by the general title of *Independents*, (see INDEPENDENTS, § 3.) and the particular distinctive name of GLASSITES, from Mr John Glas, the founder of the sect. (See GLASS, N° 1.) In consequence of Mr Glas's deposition in 1728, his adherents, formed themselves into churches, conformable in their institution and discipline to what they apprehended to be the plan of the first churches recorded in the New Testament. (See their peculiar tenets, with their reasons, under INDEPENDENTS, § 5—7.) And the peculiar doctrine maintained by them may be learned from the works of Mr John Glas, and from Mr Robert Sandeman's Letters to Mr Hervey; (see last article;) in which he endeavours to show, that his notion of faith is contradictory to the scripture account of it, and could only serve to lead men, professedly holding the doctrines commonly called *Calvinistic*, to establish their own righteousness upon their *graces, inward feelings*, and various *acts of faith*. In these letters Mr Sandeman attempts to prove, that faith is neither more nor less than a simple assent to the divine testimony concerning Jesus Christ, recorded in the New Testament: and he maintains, that the word *faith*, or *belief*, is constantly used by the writers to signify what is denoted by it in common discourse, viz. a perfuasion of the truth of any proposition, and that there is no difference between believing any common testimony, and believing the apostolic testimony, except that which results from the nature of the testimony itself. This led the way to a controversy, among those who were called *Calvinists*, concerning the nature of justifying faith: and those who adopted Mr Sandeman's notion of it, and who got the denomination of *Sandemanians*, formed themselves into church order, in strict fellowship with the independent churches in Scotland, but holding no kind of communion with other churches. The chief opinions and practices, in which this sect differs from other Christians, are, their weekly administration of the Lord's Supper; their love-feasts, of which every member is not only allowed but required to partake, and which consist of their dining together at each other's houses, in the interval between the morning and afternoon service; their kiss of charity used on this occasion, at the admission of a new member, and at other times, when they deem it to be necessary or proper; their weekly collection before the Lord's Supper, for the support of the poor, and defraying other expences; mutual exhortation; abstinence from blood and things strangled; washing each other's feet, the precept concerning which, as well as other precepts, they understand literally; community of goods, so far as that every one is to consider all that he has in his possession and power as liable to the calls of the poor and the church; and the unlawfulness of laying up treasures on earth, by setting apart for any future, future, and uncertain use. They allow of public and private diversions, so far as they are not connected with circumstances really sinful; but apprehending a lot to be sacred, disapprove of playing at cards, dice, &c. They maintain a plurality of elders, pastors, or bishops, in each church; and the necessity of the presence of two elders in every act of discipline, and at the administration of the Lord's Supper. In the choice of their elders, want of learning, and engagements in trade, &c. are no sufficient objection; but second marriages disqualify for the office; and they ordain by prayer and fasting, imposition of hands, and giving the right hand of fellowship. In their discipline they are strict and severe; and think themselves obliged to separate from the communion and worship of all such religious societies as appear to them not to profess the simple truth for their only ground of hope, and who do not walk in obedience to it. We shall only add, that in every church transaction they esteem unanimity to be absolutely necessary.

SANDEND, a village of Scotland, in Banffshire, in the parish of Fordyce, 4 miles from Portsoy.

SANDERA, or SANDERAY, one of the small Western Islands of Scotland, so called from BARRAY, to which it is annexed. It is 4 miles long and 2 broad, and contains about 70 inhabitants. There is a large Danish *Dun*, or monument on the E. coast. Lon. 4. 19. W. of Edinburgh. Lat. 56. 52. N.

* SANDERLING. *n. s.* A bird. We have coots, *sanderlings*, pewets, and mews. *Carew.*

(1.) * SANDERS. *n. s.* [*santalum*, Latin.] A species kind of Indian wood, of which there are

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ſe ſorts, red, yellow, and green. *Bailey.*—Aro-ize it with *ſanders*. *Wiſeman*.

1.) SANDERS, or SAUNDERS, in botany. See ERIOCARPUS, and SANTALUM. There is alſo a *ite* kind of ſanders. The red ſanders is uſed as e ſtuff, but generally in a manner which is very dvantageous. In *Crell's Chemical Annals* Mr ler gives the following directions for dyeing this wood: 1. Into a ſolution of tin made aquafortis or nitric acid, and mixed with 3 s as much ſalt water, put clean waſhed wool, linen, and cotton. After ſix hours, take them and waſh them carefully in 3 different quan-s of clean cold water, wringing them well each e. Let them dry, and then put half the quan-of each article into the ſpirituous tincture of ſanders, deſcribed in N° 6. letting them ſoak ein, without heat, from half an hour to an r. To aſcertain the ſuperiority of his different ceſſes, the other half of each article muſt be ed in the tincture of ſanders mixed with wa-deſcribed in N° 7. a quarter of an hour. Af-being taken out, wrung, and dried in the ſhade, f them will be dyed throughout of a fine rich py colour. 2. Take 3 drams of powdered a-, and diſſolve it in 12 oz. of clean hot water. this ſolution, while yet warm, put ſome well-hed wool, ſilk, linen, and cotton. After ſuf-ig them to remain therein 12 hours, take them waſh them well in 3 quantities of clean cold er, (wringing them each time,) and dry them. n ſteep the half of each article in the cold ſpi-ous tincture of ſanders (N° 6.), from half an r to an hour; and boil the other half of each in diluted tincture of ſanders (N° 7.) for 6 or 7 mi-s. After being taken out, wrung, and dried in ſhade, they will be found to have acquired a beautiful and rich ſcarlet colour. 3. Diſſolve 3 ns of blue vitriol, or vitriol of copper, in 12 oz. ot water. Steep in this ſolution, for 12 hours, l, ſilk, linen, or cotton; and having ſufficient-rathed the ſtuff in clean cold water, immerſe one half of it in the ſpirituous tincture of ſan-(N° 6.), from half an hour to an hour; and the other half of each for 6 or 7 minutes in diluted tincture, N° 7. Being then taken out, ng, and dried in the ſhade, they will have ac-ed a beautiful, rich, bright, crimſon colour. teep wool, ſilk, linen, and cotton, which has well waſhed, during 12 hours, in a ſolution drams of white vitriol, in 12 oz. of hot water. r being taken out, well waſhed in clean cold er, and dried, immerſe one half of each in the ſpirituous tincture of ſanders (N° 6.), and the other half in the diluted tincture (N° 7.) efore. When taken out, wrung, and dried, will be of a fine, rich, deep, crimſon colour. Diſſolve 3 drams of common green vitriol, or ol of iron, in 12 oz. of hot water: ſteep well hed wool, ſilk, linen, and cotton, in the ſolu-, for 12 hours. When taken out, waſhed ſe-l times in clean cold water, and dried, treat n, as in N° 4. and they will be generally found e of a fine, rich, deep violet colour; though, repeating his experiments, our author ſome-s found the colour a dark browniſh red. The ture in which the ſtuffs are to be dyed muſt prepared in the following manner: 6. Take half an ounce of red ſanders wood, beat or ground to powder, as it is ſold at the ſhops. Having put it into a large glaſs bottle, pour upon it 12 oz. of malt ſpirit or common brandy; then cork the bottle, and ſet it in a moderately warm place. In 48 hours, the ſpirit will have extracted all the colouring matter from the red ſanders, and thereby acquired a bright red colour. The bottle ſhould be often ſhaken during the digeſtion; and the tincture, thus prepared, may be uſed for dying without heat, and without ſeparating the powdered ſanders from the liquor. The articles to be dyed (after the application of the proper mordants, N° 1, 2, 3, 4, 5,) are to be ſteeped in the tincture for half an hour, or a whole hour: they are then to be taken out, wrung, and dried in the ſhade. This tincture does not loſe its dyeing quality by age; but dyes ſubſtances, after being kept a long time, almoſt as well as when juſt made. Its colouring power is indeed weakened by the frequent immerſion and dyeing different articles in it; and when that is the caſe, it muſt be again digeſted with ſome freſh ſanders wood. 7. Mix the ſpirituous tincture of ſanders, with from ſix to ten times as much clean cold water. The mixture was made by our author without any ſeparation of the colouring particles worth noticing; and in this diluted tincture, the various articles (having their proper mordants firſt applied, N° 1, 2, 3, 4, 5,) were boiled, as before mentioned. Linen and cotton, by being dipped in glue-water, after the application of the mordants, acquire, in this diluted tincture, a much deeper and richer colour.—If a very fine and bright colour be deſired, the above ſpirituous tincture of ſanders ſhould not be too old, nor ſhould the digeſtion be protracted beyond 48 hours; for after that period, the ſpirit appears to extract brown and yellow colouring particles from the wood. The powder of ſanders need not be ſeparated from the diluted tincture which is made uſe of by boiling; nor is it abſolutely neceſſary to wath the articles in cold water after they are dyed; as the powder which adheres to them may eaſily be taken off by rubbing and ſhaking. M. Volger, however, found it advantageous, after the articles were taken out of the dye, and wrung, to ſteep them for a few minutes in a cold ſolution of half an ounce of common ſalt, and a quarter of an ounce of alum, in 12 ounces of pure water. In this caſe, they ſhould afterwards be waſhed ſeveral times in clean cold water, then wrung and dried in the ſhade. By this method the colours are not only more beautiful, but are alſo more permanent. All the articles of wool, ſilk, linen, and cotton, which were dyed as is above mentioned, bore perfectly well the teſt of alkaline ley, ſoap, and acids; but, by expoſure to the open air and the ſun, the colours were more eaſily diſcharged, eſpecially from linen and cotton. Red ſanders, by being ground to a fine powder, anſwers much better for dyeing by this proceſs, than when cut into ſmall pieces; but the powder of red ſanders ſold at the ſhops is ſometimes adulterated, by being mixed with other ſubſtances, and moiſtened with acids. The beſt kind is not light, but rather heavy; and is not of a dark red colour, but clear and bright.

(3.) SANDERS,

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(3.) SANDERS, Nicolas, a native of Charlewood, in Surry, who flouriſhed early in the 16th century. He was educated at Weſtminſter ſchool, afterwards at New College, Oxford; where he was created LL. D. He afterwards was appointed royal profeſſor of Common Law in Oxford; but upon the reformation, he reſigned, and went to the council of Trent. He was afterwards appointed Pope's Nuncio in Ireland; where he died in 1580.

(4.) SANDERS, Robert, a Scottiſh author, born near Breadalbane, in 1727. He went to London, and compiled partly from his own ſurvey, and partly from books, a work entitled, *The Complete Engliſh Traveller*, in folio. He next compiled *The Newgate Calendar*. He afterwards became amanuenſis to Lord Lyttleton; and Dr Johnſon mentions, that he was in his lordſhip's employment, when he wrote his *Hiſtory of Henry* II. But of all his writings, that which made moſt noiſe, was his *Gaffer Greybeard*, an illiberal work, in 4 vols. 12mo, in which the moſt eminent diſſenting miniſters of the age were treated with very little ceremony. He died in 1783.

(5.) SANDERS, RED. See N° 2; and PTEROCARPUS, N° 4.

(6.) SANDERS, WHITE. See SANTALUM, N° 1.

(7.) SANDERS, YELLOW. See SANTALUM, N° 2.

SANDERSLEBEN, a town of Upper Saxony, in Anhalt Deſſau, on the Wipper: 16 miles SE. of Quedlingburg, and 31 SW. of Deſſau. Lon. 11. 22. E. Lat. 51. 38. N.

(1.) SANDERSON, Robert, F. R. S. a learned and laborious antiquary, who was uſher of the Court of Chancery, and clerk of the chapel of the Rolls. He aſſiſted Mr Ryder, in publiſhing his valuable work entitled *Fœdera*; (See RYMER, N° 1.) and continued it after his death; beginning with the 16th vol. the title of which ſays, *Ex ſchedis Thomæ Rymer, potiſſimum edidit Robertus Sanderſon*, 1715; and ending with the 20th, Aug. 21, 1735. He died Dec. 25, 1741.

(2, 3.) SANDERSON. See SAUNDERSON, N° 1, 2.

SANDERSON'S HOPE, a cape on the E. coaſt of N. America, on Davis's Straits, in the Atlantic. Lon. 67. 0. W. Lat. 66. 20. N.

SANDERSTED, a village of England, in Surry, on the S. of Croydon; famous for its delightful proſpect, on the N. to Croydon, and on the NW. to Harrow on the Hill, extending to Buckinghamſhire, Berkſhire, Hampſhire, and over all Banſtead Downs.

(1.) * SANDEVER. *n. ſ.* That which our Engliſh glaſsmen call *ſandever*, and the French, of whom probably the name was borrowed, *ſuindever*, is that recrement that is made when the materials of glaſs, namely, ſand and a fixt lixiviate alkali, having been firſt baked together, and kept long in fuſion, the mixture caſts up the ſuperfluous ſalt, which the workmen afterwards take off with ladles, and lay by as little worth. *Boyle.*

(2.) SANDEVER. See SANDIVER.

SANDFLETH, a town of Lower Saxony, in Bremen, near the Weſer: 11 miles S. of Carlſburg.

SAND FLOODS. See SAND, § 3.

SANDGATE, a ſmall town of England, on the coaſt of Kent, defended by a caſtle mounted with 16 guns: 11 miles S. of Dover, and 75 ESE. of London.

SANDHAMN, a ſea port town of Sweden, in the province of Upland: 10 miles E. of Stockholm; where all veſſels, in their paſſage to and from Stockholm, are examined. Lon. 18. 20. E. Lat. 59. 20. N.

SANDHED, a town of Sweden, in the province of Dalecarlia: 5 miles SE. of Fahlun.

SANDHEM, a town of Sweden, in the province of W. Gothland: 18 miles NW. of Jonkioping.

SANDHURST, a town of England, in Kent, near the Rother, 4 miles SE. of Cranbrook; with a fair on May 25.

SANDILAND, a ſmall iſland of Scotland, on the W. coaſt of MULL.

SANDILLON, a town of France, in the dep. of the Loiret: 9 miles SE. of Orleans.

* SANDISH. *adj.* [from *ſand.*] Approaching to the nature of ſand; looſe; not cloſe; not compact.—Plant the tenuifolias and ranunculuſes in freſh *ſandiſh* earth, taken from under the turf. *Evelyn.*

SANDIVER, a whitiſh ſalt, continually riſing up from the *metal*, as it is called, whereof glaſs is made; and, ſwimming on its ſurface, is ſkimmed off. (See SANDEVER.) Sandiver is alſo plentifully thrown out in the eruptions of volcanoes; and is of a fine white, and others tinged blueiſh or yellowiſh. Sandiver is ſaid to be detergent, and good for foulneſſes of the ſkin. It is alſo uſed by gilders of iron.

SANDIUS, Chriſtopher, a famous Socinian writer, born at Konigſberg in Pruſſia, in 1608. He wrote *Nucleus Hiſtoriæ Eccleſiaſticæ*, and various other works in favour of his opinions; and died at Amſterdam, in 1680.

SANDIX, a kind of minium, or red-lead, made of ceruſe, but much inferior to the true minium.

(1.) SANDNESS, a pariſh of Scotland, in the W. part of the Mainland of Shetland, named with thoſe of *Walls*, *Papaſtour*, and *Fowla*. In 1700 it contained 533 inhabitants. See WALLS.

(2.) SANDNESS, a town of Norway, in Chriſtianſand; 36 miles NE. of Chriſtianſand.

SANDO, an iſland of Japan, on the N. coaſt of Niphon; about 87 miles in circumference, with a town of the ſame name. Lon. 139. 30. E. Lat. 38. 55. N.

SANDOE, one of the FARO or FERRO ISLANDS, in the North Sea; about 10 miles long and 5 broad. On the S. ſide there are rocks, and a dangerous whirlpool.

(1.) SANDOMIR, or } a ci-devant palatinate of
(1.) SANDOMIRZ, } Little Poland, one of the 3 provinces into which it was divided: now included in the new Auſtrian province of GALICIA. The ſoil is very fertile, and it has mines of gold, ſilver, and copper.

(2.) SANDOMIRZ, the capital of the above palatinate, is ſeated on the Viſtula. The Swedes blew up the caſtle in 1656; and here, in 1659, was a dreadful battle between the Tartars and Ruſſians. It is 84 miles SE. of Cracow. Lon. 20. 10. E. Lat. 49. 26. N.

SANDORICUM, in botany, a genus of the

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ygynia order, belonging to the decandria class
nts; and in the natural method ranking un-
ne 23d order, *Tribillatæ*. The calyx is quin-
entate; the petals five, and linear shaped:
:ctarium has ten dentæ, on which the anthe-
ow; the fruit is a drupa, and five in number,
of which has one seed. There is only one
s, viz.

IDORICUM INDICUM, a native of Africa and
ast Indies.

SANDOWN BAY, a large bay of the Eng-
hannel, on the E. coast of the isle of Wight,
en White Cliffe and Dunnose.

SANDOWN CASTLE, a fort of England, in
unty of Kent, near Deal.

D-PIPER, in ornithology. See TRINGA.

NDPU, SANPOO, or ZANCU, the vulgar
of one of the most mighty rivers in the
The name it generally goes by, and by
it is best known, is that of *Burrampooter*.
RRAMPOOTER. This name signifies in the
rit language *the son of Brahma*, (See BRAH-
or no less than a *divine* origin was thought
e for this vast river, by the superstitious na-
Sanpoo, the name given it in Thibet, signi-
ly *the River*.

ÖRART, Joachim, a celebrated German
and author; born at Franckfort, in 1606.
s early sent to a grammar school, but show-
inclination for engraving, he was allowed
w his genius. He went on foot to Prague,
t himself under Giles Sadler, a celebrated
r, who observing his genius advised him
y painting. He accordingly went to U-
and studied under Gerard Huntorst, who
m to England, where he staid till 1627.
n went to Venice, where he copied the
gs of Titian and Paul Veronese; and thence
Rome, where he became eminent. He
nt to Naples, and thence to Sicily and
and through Lombardy to Franckfort,
ie married. The manor of Stokau having
him, he was at great expence repairing
had hardly got it finished, when it was
y the French. Upon their retreat, he re-
in a better stile than ever; but fearing a
ion, sold it, and settled in Augsburg;
on his wife's death, he left, and went to
urg, where he set up an academy of paint-
ere he also published several volumes on
relating to his profession; the most es-
of which is, *The Lives of the Painters, with*
gies; being an abridgment of the biogra-
orks of *Vasari*, *Ridolfi*, and *Van Mander*.
ed and wrote till he was 70 years of age,
in 1683, aged 77.

DROCOTTUS, an Indian of mean birth,
rary with Alexander the Great, who, from
gy of a lion licking the sweat from his
day as he was sleeping, prognosticated
eatness to himself. For impertinence to
, he had been ordered out of his pre-
it on the death of that conqueror, he ac-
ide himself master of a part of the coun-
hands of Seleucus. *Justin*, xv. c. 4.

SEE, a town of Franconia, in Aichstadt,
N. of Aichstadt, and 4 ENE. of Spalt.

SANDSIO, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland: 24 miles NNW. of Carlscrona.

SANDSLAKE, a river of Norway, in Christiansand; which runs into Aardelsfiord; 25 miles NNE. of Stavanger.

SANDSTING. See SANSTING.

(1.) * SANDSTONE. *n. s.* [*sand* and *stone*.] Stone of a loose and friable kind, that easily crumbles into sand.—Grains of gold in *sandstone*, from the mine of Costa Rica. *Woodward*.

(2.) SANDSTONE, in the old system of mineralogy, was ranked as a genus of stones belonging to the order of saxa; including all those which consist of such minute particles, that they cannot easily be discerned by the eye. There were 8 species enumerated by Cronstedt, which it is now needless to specify.

(3.) SANDSTONE, in the new system of mineralogy, is ranked as a genus of the order of aggregates; and is divided into 4 species. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *Ord.* III. *Sect.* II. *Gen.* I.

SANDSVOR, a town of Norway, in the province of Aggerhuus: 35 miles SW. of Christiania.

SANDUGAL, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira, seated on the Coa; 12 miles SSE. of Guarda.

SANDVLIET, or SANTVLIET, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Two Nethes, and ci-devant province of Austrian Brabant; first founded as a fortress in 1624, by the marquis of Spinola. It was taken by the Dutch in 1628; by the Spaniards in 1629; and by the allies with a garrison of 700 men, on the 30th Oct. 1705. It is 12 miles NNE. of Antwerp, and 25 SW. of Breda. Lon. 4. 12. E. Lat. 51. 22. N.

(1.) SANDUSKY, a town of the United States, in the North-Western Territory; on the SW. coast of lake Erie. Lon. 82. 28. W. Lat. 41. 47. N.

(2.) SANDUSKY, a navigable river of the North-Western Territory, which rises near a branch of the Great Miami, with which it communicates by a portage of 9 miles; and after running a NE. course, falls into

(3.) SANDUSKY LAKE, a lake on the SW. bank of Lake Erie, 8 miles from the town of Sanduſky. This lake is 35 miles in circumference, and communicates with lake Erie.

(1.) SANDWICH, John Montague, Earl of, a late eminent British statesman, born about 1722. He had all the advantages of an excellent genius, improved by education and travel. He visited most of the courts in Europe, and travelled into the east, visiting Constantinople, Grand Cairo, &c. In the course of these travels he formed a valuable collection of coins and other antiquities. On taking his seat in the house of Lords, he soon distinguished himself as an orator, and was of course early engaged in public business. In 1744, he was appointed 2d lord of the admiralty, under the D. of Bedford. In 1746, he was sent minister plenipotentiary to the United Provinces, and in 1748, to the treaty of Aix la Chapelle. During King George II's absence in 1748 and 1750, he was one of the administrators of government. In 1755, he was paymaster of Ireland, and treasurer at war.

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In 1763 and 1771, he was made first lord of the admiralty in Britain. In 1763—1765, 1770 and 1771, he was secretary of state. In 1740, he married Judith, daughter of Charles lord visc. Fane, by whom he had 3 sons and a daughter. He died April 30, 1792. He was a great patron of Capt. Cook.

(2.) SANDWICH, in geography, a town of Kent, one of the cinque ports. It consists of about 1500 houses, most of them old, and built with wood, though there are a few new ones built with brick and flints. It has 3 long narrow streets paved, and 30 cross-streets or alleys, with about 6000 inhabitants, but no particular manufactory. The town is walled round, and fortified with ditches and ramparts; but the walls are much decayed, on account of the harbour being so choaked up with sand, that a ship of 100 tuns burthen cannot get in. Lon. 1. 20. E. Lat. 51. 20. N.

(3.) SANDWICH, a small town of England, on the coast of Dorsetshire, S. of Purbeck Island.

(4.) SANDWICH, a post town of Massachusetts, in Barnstable county, at the bottom of Barnstable Bay. It contained 1991 citizens in 1790. It is 60 miles SE. of Boston, and 407 from Philadelphia. Lon. 70. 24. W. Lat. 41. 17. N.

(5.) SANDWICH BAY, a bay on the coast of Dorsetshire.

(6.) SANDWICH BAY. See NETSBUCKTORE.

(7.) SANDWICH HARBOUR, a sea port of the island of Mallicollo, on the NE. coast; very commodious for any operations, having a good depth of water, &c. Lon. 167° 5′ 53″ E. Lat. 16° 25′ 20″ S.

(8.) SANDWICH ISLAND, an island in the E. Indian Ocean, near the W. coast of New Ireland. Lon. 149. 15. E. Lat. 3. 5. S.

(9.) SANDWICH ISLANDS, a group of islands in the South Sea, lying near New Ireland, which were among the last discoveries of captain Cook, who so named them in honour of the Earl of SANDWICH. They consist of 11 islands, called by the natives OWHYHEE, MOWEE, RANAI, *Morotoi*, TAHOOROWA, WOAHOO, ATOOI, ONEEHEOW, or *Nechecksow*, *Oreenoa*, *Mowtinne*, and TAHOORA, all inhabited except the two last. (See these articles.) The climate is temperate, without any of those violent hurricanes, which render the stormy months in the West Indies so dreadful. There is also more rain at the Sandwich Isle, the mountainous parts being generally enveloped in a cloud, successive showers fall in the inland parts, with fine weather, and a clear sky, on the sea shore. Hence few of those inconveniences, to which many tropical countries are subject, either from heat or moisture, are experienced here. The winds, in winter, are generally from ESE. to NE. The vegetable productions are the same as those of the other islands in this ocean; but the *taro root* is here of a superior quality. The bread-fruit trees are not so numerous as in Otaheite, but produce double the quantity of fruit. The sugar-canes are of a very unusual size, some of them measuring 11¼ inches in circumference, and having 14 feet eatable. There is also a root of a brown colour, shaped like a yam, and from 6 to 10 lb. in weight, the juice of which is very sweet, of a pleasant taste, and is an excellent substitute for sugar. The quadrupeds are only hogs, dogs, and rats. The fowls are of the common sort; and the birds are beautiful and numerous, though not various. Goats, pigs, and European seeds, were left by captain Cook; but the goats soon gave rise to a contest between two districts, in which the breed was destroyed. The inhabitants are of the same race with those that possess the islands S. of the equator; and in their persons, language, customs, and manners, approach nearer to the New Zealanders, than to their less distant neighbours in the Society or Friendly Islands. They are above the middle size, and well made; they walk gracefully, run nimbly, and can bear great fatigue. Both sexes have fine open countenances: and the women have good eyes and teeth, with a sweetness and sensibility of look, that render them very engaging. There is one peculiarity, characteristic of every part of these islands, that even in the handsomest faces there is a fulness of the cheeks, without any flatness or spreading of the nose. They suffer their beards to grow, and wear their hair after various fashions. The dresses of both sexes resemble those of New Zealand, and both wear necklaces of small variegated shells. Tatowing the body is practised by every colony of this nation. The hands and arms of the women are also very neatly marked, and they have the singular custom of tattowing the tip of the tongue. They live together in villages, containing from 100 to 200 houses, built pretty closely together, without order, with a winding path between them. They are generally flanked, towards the sea, with walls, for shelter and defence. These walls consist of loose stones, and the inhabitants are very dexterous in shifting them suddenly to such places as the direction of the attack may require. In the sides of the hills, they have also caves, the entrance to which is secured by a fence of the same kind. They serve for retreat in cases of extremity, and may be defended by a single person against several assailants. Their houses are of different sizes, some large and commodious, from 40 to 50 feet long, and from 20 to 30 broad; while others are mere hovels. The food of the lower class consists principally of fish and vegetables, to which those of higher rank add the flesh of dogs and hogs. They rise with the sun, and, after enjoying the cool of the evening, retire to rest, a few hours after sun-set. The making of canoes, mats, &c. forms the occupations of the men; the women manufacture cloth, and the servants are engaged in the plantations and fishing. Their idle hours are filled up with dancing, boxing, wrestling, &c. Their agriculture and navigation resemble those of the South Sea islands. Their plantations, which are spread over the whole sea coast, consist of the taro, or eddy-root, and sweet potatoes, with plants of the cloth-trees set in rows. The bottoms of their canoes are of a single piece of wood, hollowed out to the thickness of an inch, and brought to a point at each end. The sides consist of 3 boards, each about an inch thick, neatly united to the bottom. Some of their double canoes measure 70 feet in length, 3½ in depth, and in breadth. Their cordage, fish-hooks, and fishing tackle, resemble those of the other islands. Among other arts they make salt, which they have [illegible]

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in great abundance. Their inſtruments of are ſpears, daggers, clubs, and ſlings, and efenſive armour they wear ſtrong mats, which ot eaſily penetrated. As the iſlands are not d under one ſovereign, wars are frequent a- ; them, which reduces the number of inha- ts. The total population does not exceed oo. The ſame ſyſtem of ſubordination pre- here as at the other iſlands, the ſame abſo- ute authority on the part of the chiefs, and the unreſiſting ſubmiſſion on the part of the peo- The government is likewiſe monarchical and litary. At Owhyhee there is a regular ſocie- prieſts living by themſelves, and diſtinct from ſt of the people. Human ſacrifices are fre- ; not only the commencement of a war, or gnal enterpriſe, but the death of every con- ble chief, calls for a repetition of theſe hor- tes. Notwithſtanding the irreparable loſs in eath of captain Cook, who was here mur- through ſudden reſentment, (See COOK, N° 5.) they are acknowledged to be of the mild and affectionate diſpoſition. They live in moſt harmony and friendſhip with each other; a hoſpitality to ſtrangers they are not exceed- en by the inhabitants of the FRIENDLY DS. Their natural capacity ſeems, in no , below the common ſtandard of mankind; heir improvements in agriculture, and the ction of their manufactures, are certainly a- te to their circumſtances and natural advan- Theſe iſlands lie in Lon. from 150° 54′ to 14′ W. Lat. 18° 54′ to 22° 15′ N.

.) SANDWICH LAND, a name given by Capt. , to the moſt ſouthern land diſcovered in the antic Ocean: otherwiſe called SOUTHERN LE. Capt. Cook was uncertain whether this iſland or continent. See COOK, N° III, § 9. 9. 13. S.

SANDWICK, [Norſe, *i. e.* Sandy Bay,] a of Scotland, in Shetland, united with thoſe *uroſſneſs*, and *Koningsberg* or Cunningſburgh. united pariſhes lie in the S. extremity of and. See DUNROSSNESS.

SANDWICK, a pariſh of Scotland, in Ork- nited with that of STROMNESS. Sandwick, dy of a circular form. The two extend 9 in length, and from 2¼ to 5¼ in breadth; thending about 32 ſquare miles, or 20,160 of ground. The whole W. coaſt is bold and d, riſing perpendicularly from 100 to 500 The height of the rocks, together with that mountains of HOY, makes this coaſt eaſily niſhed at ſea. Along the W. coaſt the wa- rom 40 to 50 fathoms deep. There are no in Hoy Sound but two, and theſe are vi- t a diſtance. The velocity of the ſpring 7 miles an hour; that of neap tides 3. The theſe united pariſhes is various; black earth, ſtiff clay, and a mixture of all theſe. The is raw and damp. Hence rheumatiſms obutic eruptions are frequent. In other s the people are healthy. The W. coaſt for 5 miles in length and 2 in breadth. are about 2146 acres of arable ground; rafs and meadow; under moſſes 500; lakes hills and barren ground 14,158. Oats and barley are the only crops. Sea ware is the chief manure, and renders the ſoil fertile. Marl and lime-ſtone are found in ſome places. The population of Sandwick, in 1794, was 873; of both pariſhes 3012; increaſe 12, ſince 1755; the number of houſes 570; that of horſes in Sandwick was 518; ſheep 1000; ſwine 250; and black cattle 1060: in both pariſhes the total of horſes was 858; ſheep, 2100; ſwine 500; and black cattle 1795. Coarſe woollen cloths and ſtuffs, ſtockings and linens are made; and about 50 tons of kelp annually. Cod, ling, ſkate, holybuts, haddocks, ſillocks, and lobſters are caught on the W coaſt. There is a good mill-ſtone quarry on the W. coaſt, and a druidical temple on the E. The inhabitants treat with great humanity people who are ſhipwrecked on theſe coaſts. Not above 9 veſſels have been wrecked on them within 33 years preceding 1794. See STROMNESS, N° 1 and 2.

SANDWYCH, a town of Norway, in the prov. of Chriſtiania: 24 miles SSW. of Chriſtiania.

SANDWYCK, a town of Norway, in the prov. of Drontheim: 56 m. NNE. of Romſdal.

(1.) * SANDY. *adj.* [from *ſand.*] 1. Abounding with ſand; full of ſand.—

I ſhould not ſee the *ſandy* hourglaſs run,
But I ſhould think of ſhallows. *Shak.*

Safer ſhall he be on the *ſandy* plains,
Than where caſtles mounted ſtand. *Shak.*

—A region ſo deſert, dry, and *ſandy*, that travellers are fain to carry water on their camels. *Brown.*

Rough unwieldy earth, nor to the plough
Nor to the cattle kind, with *ſandy* ſtones
And gravel o'er-abounding. *Philips.*

O'er *ſandy* wilds were yellow harveſts ſpread. *Pope.*

2. Conſiſting of ſand; unſolid —Favour, ſo bottomed upon the *ſandy* foundation of perſonal reſpects only, cannot be long lived. *Bacon.*

(2—5.) SANDY BAY, the name of 4 bays: 1. on the W. coaſt of Newfoundland, 43 miles S of Point Rich: 2. on the N. coaſt of St Chriſtophers, 1 mile ESE. of Diep Town: 3. on the NE. coaſt of New Zealand: 4. in the Straits of Magellan. Lon. 72. 13. W. Lat. 53. 10. S.

(6.) SANDY HALL BAY, a bay on the NE. coaſt of St Chriſtophers, W. of Windward Point.

(7.) SANDY HILL POINT, a cape on the N. coaſt of Barbadoes.

(8.) SANDY HOOK, an iſland of the United States, near the coaſt of New Jerſey; 7 miles S. of Long Iſland. It was formerly a peninſula, but the ſea broke through the iſthmus, and made it an iſland, in winter 1777—8.

(9, 10.) SANDY ISLAND, 2 iſlands of Antigua: 1. on the S. coaſt, one mile S. of Willoughby: 2. on the W. coaſt. Lon. 67. 31. W. Lat. 17. 4. N.

(11.) SANDY ISLAND, an iſland in the E. Ind. Ocean. Lon. 112. 48. E. Lat. 10. 40. N.

(12.) SANDY ISLAND, one of the Weſtern Iſles of Scotland. Lon. 3. 26. W. of Edinburgh. Lat. 57. 7. N.

(13, 14.) SANDY POINT, 2 towns of St Chriſtophers: 1. on the NW. coaſt: 2. on the SW. coaſt, in St Anne's pariſh, on Fig-tree Bay. Lon. 62. 45. W. Lat. 17. 27. N.

(15—17.) SANDY POINT, the name of 3 capes:

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1. of W. Florida, on the N. coaſt of St Roſa Bay; 2. in the Straits of Magellan; in Lat. 53. 10. S. 3. on the N. point of the iſland of Nantucket. Lon. 69. 0. W. Lat. 41. 22. N.

(18.) SANDY RIVER, a river of Canada, which runs into Lake Superior, 30 miles S. of Cape Chaillons.

(19.) SANDY RIVER, a river of the United States, which riſes in Cumberland county, in Maine, runs a NE. courſe, and falls into the Kennebeck.

(1.) SANDYS, Edwin, D. D. and Abp. of York, an eminent Engliſh prelate, and zealous reformer, born at his father's ſeat, at Hawkſhead, in Lancaſhire, in 1519, and deſcended from anceſtors of rank. He was educated at St John's college, Cambridge, where he graduated. About 1547, he was choſen maſter of Catherine-Hall, and, in 1553, vice-chancellor of the univerſity. Having early embraced the proteſtant religion, he, on the death of K. Edward VI. zealouſly eſpouſed the cauſe of Lady Jane Gray; preached a pathetic ſermon in favour of her title, and even printed it. Two days after, being ordered to proclaim Queen Mary, he refuſed, and was thereupon deprived of all his preferments, and ſent priſoner to the tower, where he lay above 7 months, and was then removed to the Marſhalſea. He was afterwards liberated; but Bp. Gardiner hearing he was an incorrigible heretic, made ſtrict ſearch after him. The Dr eſcaped, however, in May 1554, to Antwerp, and thence went to Augſburg, and Straſburg; where he fixed for ſome time and his wife came to him, but died with her child. In 1558, he went to Zurich, and lodged 5 weeks with Peter Martyr, with whom he maintained an intimate correſpondence ever after. On Q. Mary's death he returned to England, Jan. 19th, 1558—9. In March, he was appointed by Q. Elizabeth, one of the 9 proteſtant divines to diſpute with 9 Roman Catholics before the parliament. He was alſo appointed one of the commiſſioners for preparing the Liturgy. He was then made Bp. of Worceſter, and being well ſkilled in the dead languages, he was, in 1565, one of the biſhops appointed to make a new tranſlation of the Bible; and he accordingly tranſlated the books of Kings and Chronicles. In 1570, he was appointed biſhop of London; and in 1571, aſſiſtant to the Abp. of Canterbury, in the commiſſion againſt papiſts and puritans. In 1576, he was promoted to be Abp. of York. In his zeal againſt the papiſts, he was reckoned rather ſevere; but it ſhould be remembered, that in Mary's reign they had carried perſecution to its utmoſt pitch. He died July 10th, 1588, aged 69. He was twice married. By his 2d wife Cecilia, daughter of Sir Thomas Wilford of Hartridge, in Kent, he had 7 ſons and 2 daughters.

(2.) SANDYS, Sir Edwin, 2d ſon of Abp. Sandys, was born about 1561, and educated at Oxford, under Mr Hooker, author of the *Eccleſiaſtical Polity*. In 1581 he was collated to a prebend in the cathedral of York. He travelled into foreign countries; and, upon his return, grew famous for learning, prudence, and virtue. While he was at Paris, he drew up a tract, publiſhed under the title of *Europæ Speculum*. In 1602, he reſigned his prebend; and, in 1603, was knighted by king James I. who employed him in ſeveral important affairs. He was very active, and a good patriot. But, oppoſing the court with vigour in parliament in 1621, he, with Mr Selden, was committed to cuſtody for a month. He died in 1629, and left 1500 l. to the univerſity of Oxford, for a metaphyſical lecture.

(3.) SANDYS, George, youngeſt brother of Sir Edwin, was born in 1577. He was a refined complimiſhed gentleman; travelled over ſeveral parts of Europe and the Eaſt; and publiſhed an account of his journey in folio, in 1635. He made a elegant tranſlation of Ovid's Metamorphoſis; and compoſed ſome poetical pieces of his own, which were greatly admired. He alſo paraphraſed the Pſalms; and left behind him a Tranſlation, with Notes of one Sacred Drama written by Grotius, entitled *Chriſtus Patiens*; on which, and *Adam Exul*, and *Maſenius*, is founded Lauder's incident charge of plagiariſm againſt the immortal Milton. (See LAUDER, N° 4.) He became one of the privy chamber to Charles I. and died 1643.

SANDYSTON, a townſhip of New Jerſey, in Suſſex county.

(1.) * SANE, *adj.* [*ſanus*, Lat.] Sound; healthy. *Barnard* wrote a poem on preſerving the body in a *ſane* and ſound ſtate.

(2.) SANE, in ancient geography, a town of Macedonia.

(3.) SANE, in modern geography, a river of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Friburg. The city of Friburg is ſeated on it. See FRIBURG, N° 3.

(1.) SANEN, or SARNE, a river of the Helvetic republic, which riſes in the mountains between Berne and the Valais, and runs into the Aar, 7 miles W. of Berne.

(2.) SANEN, or *Geſſenay*, a town of the Helvetic republic, in Berne, on the above river, 8 miles S. of Friburg, and 25 ESE of Lauſanne.

SANETSH, a mountain of the Helvetic republic, between Berne and the Valais; N. lat.

SANFORD, a poſt town of the United States in Maine; 98 miles N. of Boſton.

SANFRÒ, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and late principality of Piedmont, 5 miles NW. of Cheraſco, and 6½ S. of Carmagnola.

* SANG. The preterite of *ſing*.—Then ſang Moſes and Iſrael this ſong unto the Lord. Exod.

Thee next they *ſang*, of all creation firſt.

SANGALA, a town of India, deſtroyed by Alexander the Great. *Arrian* 5. See INDIA, §

SANGAMA, a river of Africa, which runs croſs the kingdom of Awerri, and falls into the Atlantic, near Cape Formoſa.

(1.) SANGARIS. See SAGARIS.

(2.) SANGARIS, or) in ancient geography, a mythology, a river of Phrygia, riſing in Mount Dindymus, and falling into the Euxine. This river-god was fabled to have been the father of HECUBA, queen of Troy, and that ſhe or another daughter of Sangarius became pregnant of *Attes*, by gathering bough of an almond tree on its banks.

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NGARTE, a river of Chinese Tartary, which into the Saghalien: 70 miles NE. of Oualin.
NGAY. See SANGUAY.
NGAYA, a town of Africa, in Bacl.
NGENON, in mineralogy. See OPAL, § 1.
NGERFIELD, a township of New York, in emer county; containing 1459 citizens, ing 238 electors, in 1795.
NGERSHAUSEN, a town of Upper Saxin Thuringia, near the Hartz Forest, con- 700 houses: 35 miles N. of Erfurt, and of Leipsic.
NGIAC, *n. s.* in the Turkish polity, the gor of a province.
NGIACATE, or NGIACHEG, *n. s.* in Turkish polity, the government of a pro; also by metonymy, the province itself. ASHAW, § 2.
NGRO, a river of Naples, which rises in penmines, near Lavora, and runs into the tic, 6 miles from Lanciano in Abruzzo Ci- During the temporary Neapolitan republic, e name to a department. See NEAPOLI- § 2.
NGUAY, a volcano of Peru, in the pro- of Quito, and jurisdiction of Macas. It is rodigious height, and the greater part of its e is covered with snow. From its top a ual fire issues, with astonishing explosions; are heard at Quito, though 135 miles dis- The country around it is rendered totally , by the enormous quantities of stones and s constantly ejected from the crater of the ain.
NGUELOUK, or SANQUELOUK, a town of in the kingdom of Siam. Lon. 99. 0. E. 8. 30. N.
NGUESA, a town of Spain, in Navarre, on ragon; anciently called *Iturissa*, and SUES- M: 27 miles SSW. of Pampeluna, (Dr es makes it SE.) and 51 NNW. of Saragossa. . 17. W. Lat. 42. 34. N.
NGUICIJA, a river of Asia, which runs h the city of Erivan.
NGUIETO, a town of the Italian republic, dep. of the Mincio, district and late duchy ona: 19 miles SSE. of Verona.
ANGUIFEROUS. *adj.* [*sanguifer*, Lat.] ying blood.—The fifth conjugation of the is branched to the muscles of the face, par- ly the cheeks, whose *sanguiferous* vessels it about. *Derham.*
* SANGUIFICATION. *n. s.* [*sanguificatio*, Lat. *sanguis* and *facio*, Lat.] The production d; the conversion of the chyle into blood. e the lungs are the chief instrument of *sanion*, the animal that has that organ faulty ver have the vital juices, derived from the in a good state. *Arbuthnot.*—Asthmatick have voracious appetites, and consequent- want of a right *sanguification*, are leuco- atick. *Arbuthnot.*
SANGUIFICATION. See BLOOD, § 8.
NGUIFIER. *n. s.* [*sanguis* and *facio*, Lat.] er of blood.—Bitters, like choler, are the guifiers. *Floyer.*
* SANGUIFY. *v. n.* [*sanguis* and *facio*, Lat.] To produce blood.—I walk, see, hear, digest, *sanguify*, and carnify, by the power of an individual soul. *Hale.*

SANGUIN, or ZANWIN, a town of Africa, on the Grain Coast, at the mouth of a river so named, where the English formerly had a factory.

SANGUINAIRES, an island of the French empire, on the W. coast of Corsica: 11 miles W. of Ajaccio.

SANGUINARIA, in botany, BLOOD-WORT, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the polyandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 27th order, *Rhoeadæ*. The corolla is octopetalous: the calyx diphyllous; the siliqua ovate and unilocular. There is only one species, viz.

SANGUINARIA CANADENSIS, a native of the northern parts of America, where it grows plentifully in the woods; and in spring, before the leaves of the trees come out, the surface of the ground is in many places covered with the flowers, which have some resemblance to our wood anemone; but they have short naked pedicles, each supporting one flower at top. Some of these flowers will have 10 or 12 petals, so that they appear to have a double range of leaves, which has occasioned their being termed *double flowers*; but this is only accidental, the same roots in different years producing different flowers.—The plant can bear the open air in this country, but should be placed in a loose soil and sheltered situation, not too much exposed to the sun. It is propagated by the roots; which may be taken up and parted, in September, every other year. The Indians paint themselves yellow with the juice of these plants.

(1.) * SANGUINARY. *adj.* [*sanguinarius*, Lat. *sanguinaire*, Fr. from *sanguis*, Lat.] Cruel; bloody; murtherous.—We may not propagate religion by wars, or by *sanguinary* persecutions to force consciences. *Bacon.*—The scene is now more *sanguinary*, and fuller of actors. *Howel.*—Passion transforms us into a kind of savages, and makes us brutal and *sanguinary*. *Broome.*

(2.) * SANGUINARY. *n. s.* [*sanguis*, Lat.] An herb. *Ainsworth.*

(3.) SANGUINARY, in botany. See SANGUINARIA.

(1.) * SANGUINE. *adj.* [*sanguin*, Fr. *sanguineus*, from *sanguis*, Lat.] 1. Red; having the colour of blood.—

The *sanguine* colour of the leaves
Did represent my master's blushing cheeks.
Shak.

A stream of nect'rous humour issuing flow'd *Sanguine*. *Milton.*

Dire Tisiphone there keeps the ward,
Girt in her *sanguine* gown. *Dryden.*

Sanguine streamers seem the flood to fire.
Dryden.

2. Abounding with blood more than any humour; cheerful.—The choleric fell short of the longevity of the *sanguine*. *Brown.*—Though their faults differ in their complexions as *sanguine* from melancholy, yet they are frequently united. *Government of the Tongue.* 3. Warm; ardent; confident. —A set of *sanguine* tempers ridicule, in the number of fopperies, all such apprehensions. *Swift.*

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(1) * SANGUINE. *n. f.* [from *sanguis*.] Blood colour.—

Forth gush'd a stream of gore, blood thick,
That all her goodly garments stain'd around,
And in deep *sanguine* dy'd the grassy ground.
Fairy Queen.

(2) SANGUINE, in geography, a handsome and well built town of the Italian republic, in the department of the Mincio, district and late territory of Verona; with a castle seated between the Sanuda and the Tregnon.

* SANGUINENESS. SANGUINITY. *n. f.* [from *sanguine*.] Ardour; heat of expectation; confidence. *Sanguinity* is perhaps only used by *Swift*. —Rage, or sanguinity it may be, in some perhaps natural courage, or *sanguineness* of temper in others; but true valour it is not, if it knows not as well to suffer as to do. *Decay of Piety.*—I very much distrust your *sanguinity*. *Swift.*

* SANGUINEOUS. *adj.* [*sanguineus*, Latin; *sanguin*, French.] 1. Constituting blood.—This animal of Plato contain'eth not only *sanguineous* and red stable particles, but is made up of veins, nerves, and arteries. *Brown.* 2. Abounding with blood. —A plethorick constitution, in which true blood abounds, is called *sanguineous*. *Arbuthnot.*

* SANGUINITY. See SANGUINENESS.

SANGUIN-TAI GUIN, a large lake of Chinese Tartary, of an oval form: 30 miles long, and 4 broad. Lon. 119. 22. E. Ferro. Lat. 48. 9. N.

SANGUISORBA, in botany, GREATER WILD BURNET, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the tetrandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 54th order, *Oleraceæ*. The calyx is diphyllous; the germen situated betwixt the calyx and corolla. The most remarkable species is

SANGUISORBA OFFICINALIS, with oval spikes. This grows naturally in moist meadows in many parts of Britain. The stalks rise from 2 to 3 feet high, branching towards the top; and are terminated by thick oval spikes of flowers of a greyish brown colour, which are divided into 4 segments at the bottom. These are succeeded by 4 oblong covered seeds. The leaves of this sort are composed of 5 or 6 pair of lobes placed along a midrib, terminated by an odd one. These are heart-shaped, deeply sawed on their edges, and a little downy on their under sides. The cultivation of this plant has been greatly recommended as food to cattle. See RURAL ŒCONOMY, *Part*, I. S. VI.

SANGUITE. See SANCTUS.

SAN-HAN, a town of Arabia Felix, in the province of Yemen; 4 miles S. of Sana.

(1) * SANHEDRIM, *n. f.* [*synedrium*, Lat.] The chief council among the Jews, consisting of seventy elders, over whom the high-priest presided.

(2) SANHEDRIM, or SANHEDRIN, [סנהדרין, *Heb.* from σὺν, *Gr.* i. e. together, and ἕδρα, *Gr.* i. e. judgment.] Signifies a council or assembly of persons sitting together, and was the name whereby the Jews called the great council of the nation, assembled, in an apartment of the temple of Jerusalem to determine the most important affairs both of their church and state. This council consisted of 70 senators. The room they met in was a round hall of which was built without the temple, the half within; that is, one semicircle was within the compass of the temple; the other semicircle was without, for the senators to sit in; it being unlawful for any one to sit down in the temple. The Nasi, or prince of the sanhedrim, sat upon a throne at the end of the hall, having his deputy at his right hand, and his sub-deputy on his left. The other senators were ranged in order on each side. The rabbins pretend that the sanhedrim has always subsisted in their nation from the time of Moses down to the destruction of the temple by the Romans. They date the establishment of it from what happened in the wilderness, some time after the people departed from Sinai, in A. M. 2514. (See Numb. xi. 16.) The Lord, therefore, (say the rabbins,) poured out his spirit upon these men, who began at that time to prophesy, and have not ceased from that time. The sanhedrim was composed of 70 counsellors, or rather 71 out of each tribe; and Moses, as president, made up the number 73. To prove the uninterrupted succession of the judges of the sanhedrim, there is nothing unattempted by the rabbins. They say a proof where others cannot perceive any shade of it. See *Grotius's Commentaries*, and his book *De jure belli & pacis*, lib. 1. c. 3. art. 20. and book *de Synedriis veterum Hebræorum*. Also, Cunæus's Dissertation on the polity of the ancient Hebrews, before his comment upon the Book of Numbers. As to the qualifications of the judges, they were to be untainted. They were often taken from the race of the priests or Levites, out of the number of the inferior judges, or from the lesser sanhedrim, which consisted only of 23 judges. They were to be skilful in the law, traditional and written. They were to study magic, divination, fortune-telling, physic, astrology, arithmetic, and languages. The Jews say, they were to know to the number of 70 tongues; that is, that they were to know *all* languages, for the Hebrews acknowledged but 70 in all. Eunuchs were excluded from the sanhedrim, usurers, corrupted persons, players at games of chance, incestuous, any bodily deformities, those that had trained up pigeons to decoy others to their pigeon-houses, and those that made a gain of their fruits in the sabbatical year. Some also exclude the high priest and the king, because of their power; but others insist, that the kings always presided in the sanhedrim, while there were any kings in Israel. Lastly, the members of the sanhedrim were to be of a mature age, a handsome person, and of considerable fortune. Such at least are the requisites mentioned by the rabbins. The authority of the great sanhedrim was vastly extensive. This council decided such causes as were brought before it by appeal from the inferior courts. The sons of the high priest, the prophets, were under its jurisdiction. If the king offended against the law, if he married above 18 wives, if he kept too many horses, if he hoarded up too much gold and silver, the sanhedrim had him stripped and whipped in their presence. But whipping among the Hebrews was not ignominious; and the king bore this correction by way of penance, and himself made choice of the person that was to execute

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his diſciſline. The general affairs of the nation ere alſo brought before the ſanhedrim. The ght of judging in capital caſes belonged to this ourt, and this ſentence could not be pronounced any other place, but in the hall called *Laſchat ggazith*, or the *hall paved with ſtones*, ſuppoſed y ſome to be the Δεξαμενὴν, or *pavement*, men oned in John xix. 13. Hence the Jews were ced to quit this hall when the power of life d death were taken out of their hands, 40 years efore the deſtruction of their temple, and three ars before the death of Jeſus Chriſt. In the ne of Moſes this council was held at the door the tabernacle of the teſtimony. As ſoon as e people were in poſſeſſion of the land of proiſe, the ſanhedrim followed the tabernacle. It as kept ſucceſſively at Gilgal and Shiloh, at ri-ath-jearim, at Nob, at Gibeon in the houſe Obed-edom; and laſtly, it was ſettled at Jeruem, till the Babyloniſh captivity. During the ptivity it was kept up at Babylon. After the turn from Babylon, it continued at Jeruſalem the time of the SICARII, or ASSASSINS. Then ding that theſe profligate wretches, whoſe numr increaſed every day, ſometimes eſcaped puniſhent by the favour of the preſident or judges, it as removed to Hanoth, which were certain aades ſituated, as the rabbins tell us, upon the ountain of the temple. From thence they came own into the city of Jeruſalem, withdrawing emſelves by degrees from the temple. Afterards they removed to Jamnia, thence to Jericho, Uzza, to Sepharvaim, to Bethſanim, to Sephos, laſt of all to Tiberias, where they continued to e time of their utter extinction. This is the Jews count give us of the ſanhedrim. But the learned not agree with them in all this. F. Petau fixes e beginning of the ſinhedrim not earlier than Gabinius was governor of Judea, who, accordg to Joſephus, erected tribunals in the five prinpal cities of Judea; Jeruſalem, Gadara, Amaus, Jericho, and Sephora or Sephoris, in Galie. Grotius places the origin of the ſanhedrim der Moſes, as the rabbins do; but he makes it termine at the beginning of Herod's reign. Mr ſnage thought that the ſanhedrim began under abinius; but afterwards he places it under Jus Maccabæus, or his brother Jonathan. We indeed, under Jonathan Maccabæus, (1 Macc. 6.), in the year 3860, that the ſenate with e high prieſt ſent an embaſſy to the Romans. he rabbins ſay, that Alexander Janneus, king of e Jews, of the race of the Aſmonæans, appeared before the ſanhedrim, and claimed a right of ting there, whether the ſenators would or not. ſephus informs us, that when Herod was but governor of Galilee, he was ſummoned before e ſenate, where he appeared. It muſt be therere acknowledged, that the ſanhedrim was in beg before the reign of Herod. It was in being terwards, as we find from the Goſpel and from e Acts. Jeſus Chriſt in St Matthew (v. 22.) diſtinguiſhes two tribunals. "Whoſoever is angry ith his brother without a cauſe ſhall be in danger of the judgment." This, they ſay, is the trinal of the 23 judges. "And whoſoever ſhall ſay his brother Raca, ſhall be in danger of the coun;" that is, of the great ſanhedrim, which had the right of life and death, at leaſt generally, and before this right was taken away by the Romans. It is certain that the ſinhedri was ſuperior to this council. See Mark xvi. 9. xiv. 55. xv. 1.; Luke xxii. 52, 66.; John xi. 47.; Acts iv. 15. v. 21. where mention is made of the SYNEDRION, or ſanhedrim. From all this it may be concluded, that the origin of the ſanhedrim is involved in uncertainty; for the council of the 70 elders eſtabliſhed by Moſes was not what the Hebrews underſtand by *ſanhedrim*. Beſides, we cannot perceive that this eſtabliſhment ſubſiſted either under Joſhua, the judges, or the kings. We find nothing of it after the captivity, till the time of Jonathan Maccabæus. The tribunals erected by Gabinius were very different from the ſanhedrim, which was the ſupreme court of judicature, and fixed at Jeruſalem; whereas Gabinius eſtabliſhed five at five different cities. Laſtly, this ſenate was in being at the time of Jeſus Chriſt; but they had no longer then the power of life and death. John xviii. 31.

SAN-HO, a town of China of the 3d rank, in the province of Pe-tche-li, 32 miles E. of Pekin.

SANJACKS, a people inhabiting the Curdiſtan, or Perſian mountains, ſubſiſting chiefly by plunder, and the ſcanty pittance afforded by their own mountainous country. "They were much reduced (ſays Mr Ives) by the late baſhaw Achmet of Bagdad, who purſued them in perſon to their ſubterranean retreats, and deſtroyed many by the ſword, and carried off great numbers of priſoners, who were ſold for ſlaves. Notwithſtanding this check, in 1758, they were again become ſo daring that they would attack caravans of 700 men, and ſometimes carry all off. They are ſaid to be the worſhippers of the evil principle.

SANJALLI, or JOALLI, a kingdom of Africa, in Senegal; between that of Burſalo and the Atlantic; extending about 30 miles along the N. bank of the Gambia.

(1.)* SANICLE. *n. ſ.* [*ſanicle*, Fr. *ſanicula*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) SANICLE, } or SELF-HEAL, in botany, a
SANICULA, } genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 45th order, *Umbellatæ*. The umbels are cloſe together, almoſt in a round head; the fruit is ſcabrous; the flowers of the diſk abortive. There are 3 ſpecies, viz.

1. SANICULA CANADENSIS, *Sanicle of Canada*;
2. SANICULA EUROPÆA, *European Self-heal*; and,
3. SANICULA MARILANDICA, *the Sanicle of Maryland*; all of which are found in many parts both of Scotland and England. Theſe plants were long celebrated for healing virtues; but are now diſregarded.

SANIDIUM, in the old ſyſtem of mineralogy, the name of a genus of foſſils of the claſs of the ſelenitæ, but neither of the rhomboidal nor columnar kinds, nor any other way diſtinguiſhable by its external figure; being made up of ſeveral plain flat plates.

(1.)* SANIES. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] Thin matter; ſerous excretion.—It began with a round crack in the ſkin, without other matter than a little *ſaniés*. *Wiſem.*

(2.) SANIES,

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(2.) SANIES, in ſurgery, is a ſerous putrid matter, iſſuing from wounds. It differs from pus, which is thicker and whiter.

* SANIOUS. *adj.* [from *ſanies*.] Running a thin ſerous matter, not a well digeſted pus.—Obſerving the ulcer *ſanious*, I propoſed digeſtion as the only way to remove the pain. *Wiſeman.*

SANIR, a town of Arabia, in the province of Hedjias, 120 miles NW. of Medina.

* SANITY. *n. ſ.* [*ſanitas*, Lat.] Soundneſs of mind.—

A happineſs that often madneſs hits on,
Which *ſanity* and reaſon could not be
So prolp'rouſly delivered of. *Shak.*

SANITZ, a town of Ruſſia, in the province of Riga, 16 miles NE. of Valk.

SAN JUAN. See SAN, N° 12.

* SANK. The preterite of *ſink*. Her heart could not abide the violent iſſue, ſhe *ſank* to the ground. *Sidney.*—Our men gave divers others of their ſhips their death's wounds, whereof ſoon after they *ſank* and periſhed. *Bacon.*

* SANKSA, a town of Aſia, in Thibet, 6 miles S. of Changlaſſe.

SANKURIDURGAM, a town of Indoſtan, in Myſore, 60 miles NE. of Coimbetore, and 87 SE. of Seringapatam.

SAN-LI-KIAO, a town of Chineſe Tartary, 28 miles SSW. of Ning-Yrun.

SAN-MATHEO. See MATTHEO, ST, N° 1—3.

(1.) SANN, a town of Egypt, ſeated on a canal which runs from the Nile to Lake Menzabeh, 30 miles SSE. of Damietta, and 70 NE. of Cairo.

(2.) SANN, a river of Stiria, which riſes near Obernburg, and runs into the Koding, near Cilley.

SANNA, a town of Sweden, in the province of Nericia; 12 miles W. of Orebro.

SANNAZARIUS, James, in Latin, *Actius Cincenis Sannazarius*, a celebrated Latin and Italian poet, born at Naples in 1458. He by his wit ingratiated himſelf into the favour of king Frederic; and, when that prince was dethroned, attended him into France, where he ſtaid with him till his death, which happened in 1504. Sannazarius then returned into Italy, where he applied himſelf to polite literature, and particularly to Latin and Italian poetry. His gay and facetious humour made him ſought for by all companies; but he was ſo afflicted at the news that Philibert, prince of Orange, general of the emperor's army, had demoliſhed his country houſe, that it threw him into an illneſs, of which he died in 1530. Being informed a few days before his death, that the prince of Orange was killed in battle, he called out, "I ſhall die contented, ſince Mars has puniſhed this barbarous enemy of the Muſes." He wrote a great number of Italian and Latin poems: among thoſe in Latin, his *De Partu Virginis* and Eclogues are chiefly eſteemed; and the moſt celebrated of his Italian pieces is his *Arcadia*.

SANNE, or SENNE, a river of France, in the dep. of the Lower Seine; which runs into the ſea, about 5 miles from Dieppe.

SANNYRION, a tragic poet of Athens, who compoſed many dramatical pieces; particularly one entitled *Jo*, and another called *Demathen*. 9.

SANON, a river of France, in the department of the Meurthe; which runs into the Moſelle, 1½ miles E. of St Nicolas.

SANONA, a ſmall iſland in the Mediterranean, near the coaſt of Italy towards the NE.

(1.) SANORE, a country of Indoſtan, on the S. of Viſiapour, and N. of the Myſore; about 12 miles long, and 70 broad.

* (2.) SANORE, a fortreſs in the above country, to which it gives name, ſeated on the river Tongabudra, 110 miles SSE. of Viſiapour, and 200 NW. of Seringapatam.

(3.) SANORE BANCABOUR, a town of Hindoſtan, in Myſore; 117 miles E. by N. of Goa. Lon. 7.

SAN-PIETRO, or SAMPIERO, called *della Baſtilica*, from BASTIA, in *Corſica*, his birth-place, was a celebrated general in the French ſervice, under Francis I. Henry II. and Charles IX. and forfeited all his fame at laſt by one enormous crime. He was born with a kind of hereditary hatred to the Genoeſe, who then held Corſica in thraldom. He early bore arms againſt them, and by his valour and military ſkill, became formidable to the Genoeſe. His exploits gained him the heart of Vanini Ornano, a rich and beautiful heireſs, only daughter of the viceroy of Corſica. Still inveterate againſt the Genoeſe, he went into France with his wife and family, where he joined the court ſucceſsfully during the civil wars. He then ſet out for Conſtantinople to ſolicit the Grand Signior to ſend a fleet againſt the Genoeſe. Mean time the Genoeſe ſent their agents to his wife, then at Marſeilles, ſoliciting her to return to her native country, promiſing the reſtoration of her fortune, and even giving hopes of a pardon to her huſband. The credulous Vanini was perſuaded. She ſet out with her furniture, jewels and family, for Genoa. A friend of San-Pietro armed a ſhip, purſued her, brought her back to France, and delivered her to the parliament of Aix. San-Pietro, returning from Conſtantinople, was enraged. He ſtabbed one of his ſervants for not having oppoſed the meaſure. He then went to Aix, and demanded his wife. The parliament were unwilling to truſt the lady in his power, but the excellent woman, unconſcious of crime or fear, inſiſted on being reſtored to her huſband. Her requeſt was granted, and they ſet out for Marſeilles together. But San-Pietro, finding his houſe unfurniſhed, fell into a freſh fury, and ordered two of his ſlaves to murder his wife. "If I muſt die (ſaid the magnanimous lady,) I hope may not be by the hands of theſe wretches, but by that of the braveſt of men, whoſe valour firſt attracted my love." This melted the barbarian for a moment. He diſmiſſed his ſlaves, fell at his wife's feet, implored her pardon, embraced her with ſeeming affection, cauſed their children to be introduced, and yet after all, incredible as it may appear, the monſter ſtrangled her with his own hands! He immediately after ſet out for Paris, appeared before the king, the bloody Charles IX. confeſſed his crime, pleaded his former ſervices, and demanded a pardon. The whole court was ſhocked, but the pardon was

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ated in 1567. He was soon after, however, ssinated by the brothers of his wife, and if e- assassination was justifiable, he certainly me- d it. Such was the detestation, in which his ne was held, that his son Alphonso, afterwards arshal of France, and a distinguished warrior, obliged to change his name, and take that of amiable mother, ORNANO.

.) SANPOO. See BURRAMPOOTER, and DPU.

.) SANPOO, or TSANPOO, a river of Hindoof- which rises in Thibet, and joins the Ganges engal.

.) SANPOU, a town of China, of the 3d s, in the province of Yun-nan; 7 miles SW. anning.

.) SANPOU, a town of Asia, in Corea; 113 s ESE. of King-ki-tao. Lon. 146. 34. E. Fer- Lat. 37. 8. N.

.) SANQUHAR, [*Sanch-Car*, or *Sanch-Caer*, . i. e. the *ratifier's town*, alluding to some ient customs,] a parish of Scotland, in Dum- s-shire, about 15 miles long from N. to S. from 9 to 10 broad from E. to W. but of an gular figure. It is seated near the head of the nty, and has a gradual elevation from the sea t, of nearly 3000 feet. The surface is rug- . Within the parish is part of that Highland t, called *Lowthers*, generally reckoned among highest land in the S. of Scotland, which af- l a most extensive prospect, and though bar- and bleak on the surface, contain immense es within. The soil at the foot of the hills is ly moss, partly clay. The SW. part of the ish is a light gravelliſh soil, which in good ons affords early and luxuriant crops. The ulation in 1786, was 2600; the increase 602, e 1755, owing chiefly to the success of the l and coal mines: The number of sheep was ut 19,000; of horses, 170; and of black cat- 760. The black faced breed of sheep thrive . The parish is watered by the Nith, which ls it, and several smaller rivers. Coals abound afford employment to about 40 people, al- ugh these pits have been wrought for some uries. There is one peculiar stratum of coal, ut 40 inches thick, of a close texture, contain- sulphur and iron. When burnt in a common , the ashes appear red resembling ochre; but n burnt in a furnace, the iron melts, and runs ough the grate in a fluid form, combined with hur, forming a *sulphuret of iron*. The argilla- us strata, which cover the lime stone, exhibit y specimens of petrified cockle shells and ve- bles, and among the coals are found pieces petrified wood. The chief antiquity is the castle of Sanquhar, which has been formerly uilding of considerable strength and extent. out a mile from it is the house of *Elliock*, re- tly possessed by the late lord Elliock, and me- rable for having been the birth-place of the *irable Crichton*. See CRICHTON, N° III. § 4.

2.) SANQUHAR, a royal borough, in the above ish, seated on the Nith, on the borders of rshire; nearly equidistant from the Solway th and the Atlantic. It has one principal et, about a quarter of a mile long, but has in- creased rapidly within these few years both in ex- tent and population. It has long been famed for its woollen manufactures. Before the American war, its chief trade consisted in the manufacture of knit stockings of various fineness. This was carried to such an extent, that one person, for many years, sent to a house in Glasgow 4800 pairs of stockings annually. This manufacture was checked by the American war, but is still carried on; and the carpet manufacture has more than supplied all deficiencies. Sanquhar was e- rected into a burgh of barony in 1484; but had previously been a burgh from time immemorial, as that charter relates. K. James VI. made it a royal borough in 1596. It is governed by a pro- vost, 3 bailies, dean of guild, treasurer, and 11 councellors. Its revenue, besides an extensive common, is about 50l. sterling a-year. It joins with the boroughs of Dumfries, Annan, Kirk- cudbright, and Lochmaben, in electing a repre- sentative in the imperial parliament. It lies 27 miles NNW. of Dumfries, 32 N. of Kirkcud- bright, and 33 from Ayr. Lon. 3. 56. W. Lat. 55. 30. N.

(1.) * SANS. *prep.* [French.] Without. Out of use.—

Second childishness and mere oblivion,
Sans teeth, *sans* eyes, *sans* taste, *sans* every thing. *Shak.*
For nature so prepostrously to err,
Sans witchcraft could not. *Shak.*

(2.) SANS FROID, [Fr. *i. e.* without reserve,] a proverbial phrase, often used by English writers, for carelessly, indifferently; without regard.

(3.) SANS SOUCI, [Fr. *i. e.* without care,] in geography, the name of a town of Brandenburg, in the Middle Marche, near Potzdam, where the king of Prussia has a palace; in which he some- times relaxes himself from the *cares* of govern- ment, whence probably the name.

SANSAC, a town of France, in the depart- ment of the Charente; 10 miles S. of Rochefou- cauld.

SANSANDING, a town in Africa, situated near the banks of the Niger. It is inhabited by Moors and Negroes to the number of from 8, to 10,000. The Negroes are kind, hospitable, and credulous; the Moors are at Sansanding, as eve- rywhere else in the interior parts of Africa, fana- tical, bigotted, and cruel. Lon. 2. 33. W. Lat. 14. 24. N.

SANS-CULOTTES, *n. s. plur.* [Fr. from *sans*, without, and *culottes*, breeches:] a term of con- tempt, used by the proud nobility of France un- der the former despotism, towards those of the inferior ranks. This and numberless other injus- tices and oppressions rankled in the minds of the people, when they got the power into their hands, and rendered the REVOLUTION 100 times more bloody, than it otherwise would have been. The plebeians, in the pride of their power, at last *ennobled* this term of reproach, and some of their bravest generals, in their dispatches announc- ing their victories, gloried in having been born *Sans-culottes*. The term and its fate merit pre- servation in a work of science, as a caveat against the pride of the higher ranks, and the folly of the lower.

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SANS-CULOTTIDES, [from *Sans-culottes*,] the name firſt given by the learned authors of the new FRENCH CALENDAR, to the five laſt days of their year, now with much more propriety denominated *Supplementary days*. See CALENDAR, § 3. This term, too, though aboliſhed, merits preſervation in a work of ſcience, as an evidence, that when a people are driven by oppreſſion to the deſperate crais of a bloody revolution, the moſt learned and judicious men in the nation will be obliged to comply with and flatter their prejudices, however contemptible. Theſe learned citizens, to flatter the people ſtill more, even gave the term a claſſical origin. In their report to the National Aſſembly, on the new Calendar, they traced its antiquity thus:—"Our anceſtors, the Gauls, from the remoteſt antiquity, had conceived themſelves honoured by this denomination. Hiſtory informs us, that a part of Gaul, afterwards called *Lyonoiſe*, the country of the Lyonois, was entitled *Gallia Braccata, breeched Gaul*." (See GALLIA, N° 6.) "Conſequently the reſt of Gaul, as far as the banks of the Rhine, was *Gallia non braccata, unbreeched Gaul*. Our forefathers were therefore *Sans-culottes*."—But Bonaparte has compietely overthrown the whole ſyſtem of the Sans-culottes, and extinguiſhed every particle of rational liberty along with it, both in France and Italy. See REVOLUTION, § VI. 45, 47, 48.

SANSIO, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland; 26 miles SE. of Jonkioping.

SANSON, Nicholas, a celebrated French geographer, born at Abbeville, in Picardy, Dec. 12, 1600. Having finiſhed his ſtudies, he entered into buſineſs as a merchant, but meeting with conſiderable loſſes, he gave up merchandiſe, and applied himſelf to geography; to which he had a kind of hereditary attachment, his father having ſtudied that ſcience and publiſhed ſeveral maps. In 1619, he compieted a map of ancient Gaul, which was very favourably received, and encouraged him to further exertions. After this he publiſhed about 300 large maps of different countries, ancient and modern; and caſted 100 tables to be engraved, exhibiting the diviſions of modern Europe. He alſo publiſhed ſeveral tracts, to illuſtrate his maps; as, 1. *Remarks upon the ancient Gauls*: 2. *A Treatiſe on the 4 parts of the World*: 3. *Two Tables of the cities and places in the maps of the Romans, and Italy*: 4. *A Deſcription of the Roman Empire, of France, Spain, Italy, Germany, and the Britiſh Iſles*; together with the *ancient Itineraries*. He alſo wrote, 5. *The Antiquity of Abbeville*, which involved him in a controverſy with F. L'Abbe, the Jeſuit, and others: 6. *Sacred Geography*; and, 7. *A Geographical Index of the Holy Land*. Cardinals Richelieu and Mazarine patronized him greatly; and the latter appointed him royal geographer. He died at Paris, while preparing an *Atlas* of all his maps, in 1667; leaving two ſons who inherited his geographical genius.

SANSONATE, a ſea port town of Mexico, in the province of Guatimala, at the mouth of a river ſo named; 120 miles SE. of Guatimala.

SANSOVINO, James, an eminent ſculptor and architect, born at Florence in 1479. The mint, and the library of St Mark, at Venice, were magnificent ſpecimens of his ſkill. He was ſo highly eſteemed at Venice, that when a general tax was laid on the inhabitants, he and Titian alone were exempted. He died in that city, in 1570, in the age of 91.

SANSTING, a pariſh of Scotland, in Zetland, united with that of *Aithſting*. The united pariſh of Aithſting and Sanſting are ſeated in the middle of the Mainland, bounded on the S. by the Ocean, and extend 9 miles in length and 6 in breadth; but are in many places interſected by long narrow bays, called VOES, or Friths. The ſurface is hilly, but the hills are not remarkably high, and many of them are green to the top; but thoſe on the W. have a moſſy ſoil, and afford little paſture. In the middle, and on the N. they abound with rocks and heath. There are above 40 freſh-water lochs, and a few rivulets, which abound with excellent trouts, but no rivers. The coaſt is high and rocky, and has ſome curious caves, frequented by wild fowls. The air is moiſt, but not unhealthy. Neither heat nor cold is ever extreme. In 1789, a man died aged 107. The ſoil is partly ſand, partly clay, but chiefly a deep black moſs. The wretched ſyſtem of huſbandry by *runrig* proves. The produce in good ſeaſons maintains the inhabitants, but they never ſow before the 15th April. Proviſions of all kinds are extremely cheap. Its population, in 1792, was 1285: increaſe ſince 1755. The number of horſes; which are very ſmall, but of high mettle, was above 800; cows about 900, and of black cattle above 1000. The language is a mixture of Norwegian, Dutch and Engliſh; but all the people underſtand Engliſh.

SANSUND, a town of Norway, ſeated on Glammen; 24 miles NE. of Frederickſtadt.

(1.) SANTA, a city of China, of the ſecond rank, in the province of Yun-nan, ſurrounded with mountains, on the borders of Ava, with a ſtrong caſtle; 1593 miles SW. of Peking. Lon. 115. 25. E. Lat. 24. 40. N.

(2, 3.) SANTA, a rapid river of Peru, running through a valley ſo named, and falling into the Pacific Ocean; 30 miles N. of Lima. Lon. 81. W. Ferro. Lat. 8. 50. S.

(4, 5.) SANTA, a town of Peru, ſeated on the above river, and capital of a juriſdiction of the ſame in the province of Lima. It was originally built on the ſea coaſt, from which it is now a mile and a half diſtant; for being pillaged by the Engliſh in 1685, the inhabitants deſerted it, and placed themſelves in this ſpot; which is not populous, there being only about 50 families of Indians, Mulattoes, and Meſtizoes. It is 210 miles NW. of Lima, and 70 SSE. of Truxillo.

(6.) SANTA, a town of Spain, in New Caſtile, on the Xucar; 20 miles S. of Alarcon.

(7.) SANTA BARBARA, a town of Cuba, 15 miles S. of Bayamo.

(8.) SANTA BARBARA, a town of New Biſcay, 90 miles SW. of Parral.

(9.) SANTA CALOMA, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; 11 miles SE. of Servera.

(10.) SANTA CLARA. See CLARA, N° 5.

(11.) SANTA CRUZ, [Span. i. e. *Holy Croſs*,] a town of Africa, on the coaſt of Barbary, and the province of Suez and kingdom of Morocco, with a harbour and a fort. The Moors took it from the Portugueſe in 1536. It is ſeated on the ea[illegible]

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mity of Mount Atlas, on the Cape Aguer. 10. 7. W. Lat. 30. 38. N.

(.) Santa Cruz, a river of Africa, in Morocco, which runs into the Atlantic, near Cape Aguer.

(.) Santa Cruz, a sea port town of Brazil, e coast of the Atlantic, 15 miles N. of Porto 10.

(.) Santa Cruz, or St Croix, one of the bee islands, 54 miles long, and from 9 to 12 l. Mr Cruttwell makes it only 8 leagues long, others make it 18. It was discovered by mbus; but the Spaniards having extirpated natives, who made a stout resistance, it lay desolate. In 1643, it was inhabited by Dutch English, who soon became enemies to each o- and in 1650 were both driven out by 1200 iards, who arrived there in five ships. The ph of these lasted but a few months. The ns of that numerous body, which were left he defence of the island, surrendered without ance to 160 French, who had embarked in , from St Christopher's, to make themselves rs of the island. These new inhabitants soon themselves acquainted with a country so disputed. On a soil, in other respects ex- nt, they found only one river which furnish- ly a brackish water, and 2 or 3 springs. The were mostly dry. The construction of re- irs required time. Nor was the climate more ing. The island being flat, and covered with rees, scarce afforded an opportunity for the s to carry off the poisonous vapours of its ffes. There was but one remedy, which was rn the woods. The French set fire to them, several months after, when the flames were guished, went on shore again. They found oil fertile beyond belief. Tobacco, cotton, to, indigo, and sugar, flourished. So rapid the progress of this colony, that in 11 years its commencement there were upon it 822 e persons, with a proportionable number of s. It was rapidly advancing to prosperity, such obstacles were thrown in the way of dity as made it decline again. This decay as sudden as its rise. In 1696 there were only men, with their wives and children, and 623 ks remaining; and these were transported to lomingo. This determination arose from the ers of the French revenue, who found that contraband trade of Santa Cruz with St Tho- was detrimental to their interests. The spi- finance hath in all times been injurious to merce. Santa Cruz continued without inha- ts, or cultivation, till 1733, when it was sold rance to Denmark for 30,750 l. though others the price at 262,000 l. Soon after the Danes there the fortress of Christianstadt: but the t laid the plantation under exclusive privileges. strious people of all sects, particularly Mora- s, strove in vain to overcome this difficulty. ly attempts were made to reconcile the inte- of the colonists and their oppressors, but out success. At length the government, with mmon moderation, purchased, in 1754, the ileges and effects of the company. The e was fixed at 412,500 l. From this time the gation to the islands was opened to all the subjects of the Danish dominions. Of 348 plantations, which were seen at Santa Cruz, 150 were covered with sugar canes, and every habitation limited to 3000 Danish feet in length, and 2000 in breadth. About 1794, it was inhabited by 2136 white men, 22,244 slaves, and 155 freed men. It was taken by the British under Adm. Duckworth, and Lieutenant Gen. Prigge, on the 31st March, 1801; but restored by the treaty of Amiens, in 1801-2. Its revenue to Denmark is estimated at 210,000 l. Str. annually. Lon. 64. 35. W. Lat. 17. 45 N.

(15.) Santa Cruz, a considerable sea port town of the island of Cuba, on the N. coast about 30 miles E. by N. of the Havannah, according to Dr Morse, and 115 NW. by N. of Cadiz: but Mr Cruttwell makes it 50 miles, and Dr Brookes 60 E. of the Havannah. Lon. 81. 16. W. Lat. 23. 10 N.

(16, 17.) Santa Cruz, a town and bay on the W. coast of the island of Curaçoa.

(18.) Santa Cruz, the capital of the island of Cuzumel. See Cuzumel.

(19.) Santa Cruz, a town of Mexico, 75 miles N. by E. of St Salvador; seated near the coast of the Pacific Ocean, on the Gulf of Dulce, which communicates with the Bay of Honduras.

(20.) Santa Cruz, a town of Mexico, in the province of New Biscay: 150 miles NNW. of Durango.

(21.) Santa Cruz, a fort of S. America, at the entrance into the harbour of Rio Janeiro.

(22.) Santa Cruz, a river of S. America, in Patagonia, which runs into the Atlantic in Lat. 50. 25. S.

(23.) Santa Cruz, a large island in the S. Sea, and one of the most considerable of those of Solomon, being about 250 miles in circumference. Lon. 130. 0. W. Lat. 10. 21. S.

(24.) Santa Cruz, a town on the E. side of the isle of Teneriff, defended by a strong fort and several small batteries. The town is very irregularly built. The principal street is broad and nearly square. At the upper end is the governor's house, a mean building, more like an inn than a palace. At the lower end is a square monument, in memory of the supposed appearance of the Virgin Mary, to the Guanches, the original inhabitants. See Teneriff. Lon. 16. 31. W. Lat. 28. 31. N.

(25.) Santa Cruz de Caravacca. See Caravacca.

(26.) Santa Cruz de La Sierra, a town of S. America, and capital of a province of that name in Peru, and in the audience of Los Charcas, with a bishop's see. It is seated at the foot of a mountain, in a country abounding in good fruits, on the river Guapy. Lon. 59. 35. W. Lat. 20. 40. S.

(27.) Santa Cruz de Monroz, a town of Terra Firma, in Carthagena, on the Madelaine.

(28.) Santa Cruz la Zarza, a town of Spain, in New Castile: 29 miles SSE. of Madrid.

(29.) Santa Fe, [Span. *holy faith.*] A town of Buenos Ayres, at the conflux of the Salado with the Plata, built by Ferdinand V. It is square, surrounded with walls, flanked with towers, and a deep ditch. Its two chief streets intersect each other in form of a cross. The environs abound with

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with corn, wine, fruits, and silk. Lon. 43. 15. W. of Ferro. Lat. 31. 50. S.

(30.) SANTA FE, a city of Spain, in Arragon; 5 miles S. of Saragoſſa.

(31.) SANTA FE, a town of Spain, in Grenada, near the Xenil; built by Ferdinand and Iſabella, in 1491; during the ſiege of Grenada: 5 miles NW. of Grenada, and 35 S. of Jaen.

(32.) SANTA FE D'ANTIOCHIA, a town of Terra Firma, in Popayan, on the St Martha: 150 miles S. of Carthagena.

(33.) SANTA FE DE BOGOTA, a town of S. America, and capital of New Grenada, with an archbiſhop's ſee, a ſupreme court of juſtice, and an univerſity. The city is ſituated at the foot of a ſteep and cold mountain, at the entrance of a vaſt and ſuperb plain. In 1774 it contained 1770 houſes, 3246 families, and 16,233 inhabitants. Population muſt neceſſarily increaſe there, ſince it is the ſeat of government, the place where the coin is ſtruck, the ſtaple of trade; and the reſidence of an archbiſhop, whoſe immediate juriſdiction extends over 32 Spaniſh towns; 195 Indian colonies, anciently ſubdued; and 28 miſſions, eſtabliſhed in modern times. This archbiſhop hath likewiſe, as metropolitan, a ſort of inſpection over the dioceſes of Quito, of Panama, of Caracca, of St Martha, and of Carthagena. It is by this laſt place, though at the diſtance of 100 leagues, and by the river Magdalena, that Santa Fe keeps up its communication with Europe. There are ſilver mines in the mountains about the city. Lon. 60. 5. W. Lat. 3. 58. N.

(34.) SANTA FE, or } DE GRENADA, the capital
(34.) SANTA FEZ, } of New Mexico; a well built, rich, and handſome town, with a biſhop's ſee, and the reſidence of a governor; 279 miles E. of Plata, and 340 leagues NW. of New Orleans, and 377 NNW. of Mexico. Lon. 91. 2. E. Ferro. Lat. 30. 50. N.

(35.) SANTA MARIA, one of the AZORE ISLANDS, the moſt ſouthern of the whole, is about 30 miles in circumference; and was diſcovered by Gonſalvo Velho Cabral, in 1432. It is ſurrounded by high mountains and ſteep rocks. It is fertile, populous, and well cultivated. It contains a town, (N° 43.) ſeveral villages, and about 5000 inhabitants.

(36.) SANTA MARIA, an iſland in the S Pacific Ocean, near the coaſt of Chili. Lon. 55. 45. W. of Ferro. Lat. 37 0. S.

(37.) SANTA MARIA, a river of South America, which runs into the bay of Panama, 60 miles SW. of Panama.

(38.) SANTA MARIA, a river of S. America, in the province of Panama, which runs into the gulf of St Michael, at the town of SANTA MARIA; (N° 39.) 180 miles ESE. of Panama: in Lon. 148. 30. W. Lat. 7. 0. N.

(39.) SANTA MARIA. See MARIA, ST, N° 4.

(40.) SANTA MARIA D'ARVAS, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon: 24 miles N. of Leon.

(41.) SANTA MARIA DE DARIEN, a town of Terra Firma, in Darien, on the Santa Maria, in a marſhy ſoil, ſurrounded with mountains, which abound with wild beaſts. Lon. 78. 21. W. Lat. 7. 35. N.

(42.) SANTA MARIA DE GUADALOUPE. See GUADALOUP.

(43.) SANTA MARIA LA PRAINHA, the cap of SANTA MARIA. (N° 2.) It is famous for manufacture of Porcelain; which is nearly equ to that of China. Lon. 25. 9. W. Lat. 36. 57.

(44.) SANTA MARINA, a town of Spain, in province of Leon; 8 miles E. of Aſtorga.

(45.) SANTA PAZ, a town of Cuba; 18 mi ESE. of Trinidad.

(46.) SANTA ROSA, a large bay in the Gulf Mexico, on the S. coaſt of W. Florida. Lon. 5. to 86. 32. W. Lat. 30. 33. N.

(47.) SANTA ROSA, an iſland in the above ba 36 miles long, and 2 broad. Lon. 86. 30. W. L 30. 26. N.

(48.) SANTA YSABEL. See YSABEL.

(49.) SANTA YSABELLA. See YSABELLA.

SANTABUCA, a town in the iſland of Cub 10 miles NNW. of Spirito Santo.

SANTAELLA, a town of Spain, in the pr vince of Cordova: 10 miles WSW. of Monti

SANTALLA, a town of Spain, in the prov of Aſturias: 46 miles W. of Ovido.

SANTALUM, in botany, a genus of the m nogynia order, belonging to the octandria cla plants; and in the natural method ranking w thoſe of which the order is doubtful. The ca is ſuperior; the corolla monopetalous; the ſ mina placed in the tube; the ſtigma is fimp the fruit a berry. It grows to the ſize of a w nut-tree. Its leaves are entire, oval, and plac oppoſite to each other. Its flower is of one fing piece, charged with 8 ſtamina, and ſupported o on the piſtil, which becomes an inſipid berry, re ſembling in form that of the laurel. Its wood white in the circumference, and yellow in the centre when the tree is old. This difference colour conſtitutes two kinds of ſanders, both em ployed for the ſame purpoſes, and having equ a bitter taſte, and an aromatic ſmell. With a powder of this wood a paſte is prepared, wi which the Chineſe, Indians, Perſians, Arabs and Turks, anoint their bodies. It is likewi burnt in their houſes, and yields a fragrant wholeſome ſmell. The greateſt quantity of wood, to which a ſharp and attenuating virtu aſcribed, remains in India.

1. SANTALUM ALBUM, *white ſanders*, is brought from the Eaſt Indies in billets about the thickneſs of a man's leg, of a pale whitiſh colour. It is that part of the yellow ſanders wood which is next the bark. Great part of it, as met with in the ſhops, has no ſmell or taſte, nor any ſenſible quality that can recommend it to the notice of the phyſician.

2. SANTALUM FLAVUM, *yellow ſanders*, is the interior part of the wood of the ſame tree which furniſhes the white, is of a pale yellowiſh colour, of a pleaſant ſmell, and a bitteriſh aromatic taſte accompanied with an agreeable kind of pungency. This elegant wood might undoubtedly be applied to valuable medical purpoſes, though at preſent very rarely uſed. Diſtilled with water, it yields a fragrant eſſential oil, which thickens in the cold into the conſiſtence of a balſam. *Digeſted* in proof ſpirit, it imparts a rich yellow tincture; which being committed to diſtillation, the ſpirit will without bringing over any thing conſiderable of the flavour of the ſanders. The reſiduum or

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the virtues of six times its weight of the d. Hoffman looks upon this extract as a me- e of similar virtues to ambergris; and recom- ds it as an excellent restorative in great debi- .

SANTALUM RUBRUM, *red sanders*, though s estimation, and less generally used, is sent reference into Europe. This is the produce different tree, which is common on the coast romandel. Some travellers confound it with wood of Caliatour, which is used in dyeing. PTEROCARPUS, N° 4.

) SANTANDER, a sea port town of Spain, province of Asturias, with a bishop's see, d on the coast, at the foot of a hill. The our is good, and large enough to contain a rous fleet. It is protected by a mole, which ts far into the sea, and defended by 2 cas- well fortified. It is 73 miles N. of Burgos. 12. 56. E. of Teneriff. Lat. 43. 27. N.

) SANTANDER, a town of N. America, in Mexico, in the province of New Leon.

NTANO, a town in the isle of Cuba, 25 N. of Havannah.

NTANS, a town of France, in the depart- of the Jura: 7½ miles SE. of Dole.

NTAREN, a handsome town and district rtugal in Estremadura. The town is seated mountain near the Tajo. The district is very in wheat, wine, and oil. They get in their t here two months after they have sown corn. It was taken from the Moors in 1447. 7. 45. W. Lat. 39. 12. N.

NTAUGUSTINE, an absurd spelling of *St stine*. See AUGUSTINE, ST, N° 2—4.

N-TCHEOU, an island in the Chinese ar- lago: 24 miles SW. of Macao.

2.) SANTEE, a large navigable river of S. ina, formed by the junction of the CON- and WATEREE, the largest and longest in that state. From the junction it runs a ourse of 20 miles; thence it runs E. about les; then turns to the N. for 2 miles; thence E. 5; when suddenly turning to the SE. it s and falls into the Atlantic by two channels, *North* and *South Santee*, a little S. of George- .

SANTEE HILLS, hills of S. Carolina; 10 NNE. of Amelia.

NTEN, a town of Germany, in the circle stphalia, and late duchy of Cleves; on the bank of the Rhine. It has a very hand- church belonging to the Roman Catholics, in is an image of the Virgin Mary, which pretend performs many miracles. Here the alks begin that run as far as Wesel, from it is 5 miles distant on the NW. Lon. 6. Lat. 51. 38. N.

NTERRE, a ci-devant territory of France, late prov. of Picardy. It was bounded on . by Cambresis, on the E. by Vermandois, e W. by Amienois, and on the S. by the ie. It is very fertile, Peronne was the ca- It is now included in the department of mme.

SANTEUIL, or rather SANTEUL, John DE, in Latin *Santolius Victorinus*, an ex- Latin poet, was born at Paris in 1630. Having finished his studies in Lewis XIV's college, he applied himself entirely to poetry, and cele- brated in his verse the praises of several great men; by which he acquired universal applause. He en- riched Paris with a great number of inscriptions, which are to be seen on the public fountains, and monuments. At length some new hymns being to be composed for the Breviary of Paris, Claude Santeuil his brother, and M. Bossuet, persuaded him to undertake that work; and he succeeded in it with the greatest applause. On which the order of Clugny desiring him to compose some for their Breviary, he complied with their request; and that order, out of gratitude, granted him let- ters of filiation, with an annual pension. San- teuil was caressed by all the learned men of his time; and had for his admirers the two princes of Conde, the father and son, from whom he fre- quently received favours. Lewis XIV. also gave him a pension. He attended the duke of Bour- bon to Dijon, when that prince went thither to hold the states of Burgundy; and died there in 1697, as he was preparing to return to Paris. Be- sides his Latin hymns, he wrote a great number of Latin poems, which have all the fire and marks of genius discoverable in the works of great poets. He was a poet whose genius was as im- petuous as his muse was decent. La Bruyere has painted the character of this singular and truly original poet in the most lively but exaggerated co- lours. He represents him both as a *wise man* and an *idiot*, and yet after all as an *excellent* man.

(2.) SANTEUIL, Claud DE, brother of the a- bove, a learned ecclesiastic, who also wrote seve- ral hymns in the Paris Breviary under the name of *Santolius Magliorannus*, a name given him from his having lived long in the seminary of St Mag- gliore at Paris, in quality of secular ecclesiastic. He was esteemed not only for his poetical abilities, but also for his profound erudition and his exem- plary piety. He died at Paris in 1684, aged 57. He wrote several other pieces of poetry, besides his hymns, which are printed with his brother's works.

SANTI, Titus, an historical and portrait pain- ter, born at Florence, in 1538. There are some beautiful paintings by him in that capital. He died in 1603.

SANTIAGO, an erroneous spelling of *St Jago*. See JAGO, ST, N° 3—16.

SANTIANES, a town of Spain, in the prov. of Asturias: 15 miles SSW of Oviedo.

SANTILLANA, or SANTILLANE, a sea-port town of Spain, in the province of Aus- turias, of which it is the capital. It is seated on the sea-coast, 55 miles east of Oviedo, and 200 NW. of Madrid. Lon. 4. 33. W. Lat. 43. 30. N.

(1.) SANTO See SPIRITU.

(2.) SANTO ESPIRITU, a fertile province on the E. coast of Brazil, between Seguro and Rio Ja- neiro.

(3.) SANTO ESPIRITU, the capital of the above province, contains about 900 inhabitants, and is seated on a large bay. Lon. 39. 56. W. Lat. 20. 36. S.

(4—6.) SANTO, ESPIRITU. See ESPIRITU, N° 1—3.

SANTOLINA, LAVENDER-COTTON, in bo-

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tany: A genus of the order of polygamia æqualis, belonging to the fyngeneſia claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compoſitæ*. The receptacle is paleaceous; there is no pappus; the calyx imbricated and hemiſpherical. The moſt remarkable ſpecies are theſe:

1. SANTOLINA CHAMÆCYPARISSUS, the common *lavender-cotton*, has been long known in the Engliſh gardens; it was formerly called *abrotanum famina*, or *female ſouthernwood*, and by the corruption *brotany* by the market people: it grows naturally in Spain, Italy, and the warm parts of Europe. It hath a ligneous ſtalk, dividing into many branches, garniſhed with ſlender hoary leaves, that are four ways indented, and have a rank, ſtrong odour when handled. The branches are terminated by a ſingle flower, compoſed of many hermaphrodite florets, which are fiſtular, cut into five parts at the top, of a ſulphur colour, and are collected in one common ſcaly empalement, having no borders or rays. Theſe are ſucceeded by ſmall oblong, ſtriated ſeeds, which are ſeparated by ſcaly chaff, and ripen in the empalement, the plants love a dry ſoil and a ſheltered ſituation.

2. SANTOLINA CHAMÆMELIFOLIA, with obtuſe woolly leaves, hath ſhrubby ſtalks, which riſe three feet high, garniſhed with broader leaves than any of the other, whoſe indentures are looſer, but double; they are hoary, and when bruiſed have an odour like chamomile. The leaves are placed pretty far aſunder, and the ſtalks are garniſhed with them to the top. The ſtalks are divided likewiſe at the top into two or three foot-ſtalks, each ſuſtaining one pretty large ſulphur-coloured flower.

3. SANTOLINA DECUMBENS, with linear leaves, is of lower ſtature than either of the former, ſeldom riſing more than 15 or 16 inches high. The branches ſpread horizontally near the ground, and are garniſhed with ſhorter leaves than either of the former, which are hoary and finely indented; the ſtalks are terminated by ſingle flowers, of a bright yellow colour, which are larger than thoſe of the firſt ſort.

4. SANTOLINA MINOR, with linear obtuſe leaves, is ſomewhat like the fifth; but the branches are ſhorter, thicker, and cloſer garniſhed with leaves, which come out in cluſters. The flower-ſtalks are ſparſedly diſpoſed, and have leaves to their top; the flowers are ſmall, and of a yellow colour.

5. SANTOLINA ROSMARINIFOLIA, with linear entire leaves, hath ſhrubby ſtalks, which riſe about three feet high, ſending out long ſlender branches, garniſhed with ſingle linear leaves of a pale-green colour. The ſtalks are terminated by large, ſingle, globular flowers, of a pale ſulphur colour.

6. SANTOLINA VILLOSA, with woolly leaves, has a ſhrubby ſtalk, which branches out like the firſt, but the plants ſeldom grow ſo tall. The branches are garniſhed very cloſely below with leaves ſhaped like thoſe of the other ſort, but ſhorter, thicker, and whiter; the flowers are much larger, and the brims of the florets are more reflexed: they are of a deeper ſulphur colour than the other. It grows naturally in Spain.

7. SANTOLINA VIRENS, with very long linear leaves, riſes higher than either of the former. The branches are more diffuſed; they are likewiſe ſmooth, and garniſhed with very narrow long leaves, which are of a deep green colour, but not ſo much indented; the ſtalks are ſlender, naked towards the top, and terminated by ſingle flowers of a gold colour. All theſe plants may be cultivated ſo as to become ornaments to a garden, particularly in ſmall boſquets of ever-green trees, where, if they are artfully intermixed with other plants of the ſame growth, and placed in the front line, they will make an agreeable variety; eſpecially if care be taken to trim them twice in a ſummer, to keep them within bounds, otherwiſe their branches are apt to ſtraggle, and in wet weather to be borne down and diſplaced, which renders them unſightly; but when they are kept in order, their hoary and different-coloured leaves will have a pretty effect in ſuch plantations. They may be propagated by planting ſlips or cuttings during the ſpring, in a border of freſh earth, but muſt be watered and ſhaded in hot dry weather, until they have taken root; after which they will require no farther care than to keep them clean from weeds till autumn, when they ſhould be tranſplanted where they are deſigned to remain: but if the ground is not ready by that time to receive them, let them remain in the border until ſpring; for if they are tranſplanted late in autumn, they are liable to be deſtroyed by cold in winter.

(1.) SANTONÆ, } an ancient town of Gaul,
(1.) SANTONES, } now called SAINTONGE. *Lucan*, i. 412.

(2.) SANTONES, or SANTONÆ, a people of Gaul, who inhabited the above city and its environs. *Martial*, iii. *ep.* 96.

SANTORIN, or } an iſland of the Archipe-
SANTORINI, } go, N. of Candia, and S.W. of Naxphio: anciently called THERA and CALLISTE. It is 8 miles long and nearly as broad, and almoſt covered with pumice-ſtone, whence the ſoil in general muſt be dry and barren: it is however, greatly improved by the labour and induſtry of the inhabitants, who have turned it into a garden. It affords a great deal of barley, plenty of cotton, and large quantities of wine. Fruit is ſcarce except figs; and it has neither oil nor wood. The inhabitants are Greeks, and about 10,000 in number. Pyrgos is the capital town, and there are ſeveral little towns and villages. They have but one ſpring in the iſland, for which reaſon they preſerve the rain-water in ciſterns. It belongs to the new republic of the SEVEN ISLANDS. Lon. 25. 5. E. Lat. 39. 10. N.

(1.) SANTOS, a town of Brazil, in the government of St Paul, ſeated on a river, having a league broad and 5 fathoms deep, 9 miles from the ſea, and defended by a rampart and a caſtle. It has a church, a monaſtery, a college, and about 200 inhabitants, and lies 153 miles S.E. of St Paul. Lon. 42. 30. W. Lat. 24. 15. S.

(2.) SANTOS, or LOS SANTOS, a town of Terra Firma, in the province of Panama; inhabited by a mixed breed of Spaniards and Indians.

SANTRIEH, a ſandy deſert of Africa, in the pro-

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li, on the S. of Siwah; where there was anently a temple of Jupiter Ammon.

SANUDA, a river of the Italian republic, in department of the Mincio, district and late chy of Verona.

SANXAY, a town of France, in the dep. of enne; 6 m. NW. of Lufignan, and 15 WSW. Poitiers.

SAN-YA, a town of Asia, in the kingdom of rea: 13 miles W. of Tsin-tcheou.

SANYENG, a town of Africa, in the kingdom Kayor, inhabited by Portuguese.

SAN-YUEN, a town of China, of the 3d rank, the province of Chen-si: 15 miles S. of Yao.

SANZ, ——, a learned Spanish Dominican, o was made a bishop by the pope, and was sent t as a missionary to China in 1715. The pope erwards appointed him vicar for the province of kien. But a persecution arising against the ristians, he was beheaded at Macao, in 1747.

SANZIO, Raphael. See RAPHAEL.

(1.) SAO, a kingdom of Africa, on the Gold ast of Guinea, hardly two miles in length along shore. It produces abundance of Indian corn, ns, potatoes, palm-wine, and oil. The inhaants are said to be very treacherous, but the Euean traders set them a good example. It conns several villages, of which Sabo is the princi; and the Dutch have a fort here called *Nassau*.

(2.) SAO, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in prov. of Se-tchuen: 36 miles SSW. of Souicou.

(1.) SAON, a town of France, in the dep. of ome, 4½ SSE. of Creft, and 13½ ENE. of Monmart.

(2, 3.) SAON, 1. an ancient historian, mentioned Dionysius of Halicarnassus: 2. the man who t discovered the cave of TROPHONIUS.

(1.) SAONA, an island near the SE. coast of Hisniola, 24 miles long from E. to W. and 6 broad m N. to S. discovered by Columbus in 1494. is 75 miles in circumference; abounds with asant woods and pastures, and is frequented by tles. The N. and S. coasts are rocky: on the ships may ride in 7 or 8 fathoms water, but posed to the winds. It lies E. of St Catherine nd. Lon. 68. 58. W. Lat. 18. 10. N.

(2.) SAONA, a river of Naples, which runs into Mediterranean, 12 miles W. of Capua.

(1.) SAONE, a considerable river of France, ich rises in mount Vosges in the dep. of the ges, 6 miles E. of Darney; passes by Darney, atillon, Jonville, Jussey, Seey, Gray, Pont-œil, Auxonne St Jean de Losne, Seurre, Verdun, ons, Tournus, Maçon, Belleville, and Treux; and falls into the Rhone at Lyons. It was iently called ARAR.

(2.) SAONE AND LOIRE, a department of France, mprehending part of the ci-devant province of RGUNDY: It is bounded on the N. by the dep. Cote d' Or; E. by that of Jura; S. by those of Ain, and the Rhone and Loire; and W. by the of the Allier, and the Nievre. It is about 70 les long, from E. to W. and from 30 to 45 ad, from N. to S. The Loire waters the SW. of it, and the Saone crosses part of it on the ver which it separates this department from t of the Ain. Maçon is the capital.

(3.) SAONE, UPPER, a department of France, comprehending part of the ci-devant province of the Isle of France. (See FRANCE, § 00.) It is bounded on the N. by that of the Vosges; on the E. by that of the Upper Rhine; on the S. by those of the Doubs and the Jura; and on the W. by those of the Cote d'Or, and the Upper Marne. It is about 60 miles long, and 30 broad. The capital is VEZOUL.

SAORGIO, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Maritime Alps, and ci-devant county of Nice; seated on a rock, on one side nearly surrounded by the Roia, and on the other by the Bendola, these rivers thus making it a peninsula. It contains about 4000 citizens. On the opposite bank of the Roia there is a sharp rock, insulated on all sides, and almost inaccessible, on the top of which is an ancient fort, called *Male-Mort*, defended by 3 towers. Near the town is another fort, called *St George*, in which is a garrison. Saorgio has 5 churches. It was taken by the French republicans in May 1794. It lies 5¼ miles S. of Tenda, and 17 NE. of Nice.

SAOSDUCHINUS, a king of Assyria, who succeeded Esarhaddon, A. M. 3336. See ESARHADDON.

(1.) * SAP. *n. s.* [*sæpe*, Saxon; *sap*, Dutch.] The vital juice of plants; the juice that circulates in trees and herbs.—

Now sucking of the *sap* of herbs most sweet,
Or of the dew. *Spenser.*

Now this grained face of mine be hid
In *sap* consuming Winter's drizzled snow. *Shak.*

Lest, being over-proud with *sap* and blood,
With too much riches it confound itself. *Shak.*

His presence had infus'd
Into the plant sciential *sap*. *Milton.*

The *sap* which at the root is bred
In trees, thro' all the boughs is spread. *Waller.*

—Vegetables consist of the same parts with animal substances, spirit, water, salt, oil, earth; all which are contained in the *sap* they derive from the earth. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) SAP. See PLANTS, § 10: and § 5 and 6 of this article.

(3.) SAP, in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of Orne; 13¼ miles NW. of Aigle, and 16½ NE. of Argentan.

(4.) SAP, in sieges, is a trench, or an approach made under cover of 10 or 12 feet broad, when the besiegers come near the place, and the fire from the garrison grows so dangerous that they are not able to approach uncovered.—There are several sorts of saps; the single, which has only a single parapet; the double, having one on each side; and the flying, made with gabions, &c. In all saps traverses are left to cover the men.

(5.) SAP, ANALYSIS OF. Chemistry, which investigates the nature of all substances, has been lately employed to discover the nature and properties of the sap of plants. "Since the food of plants (says Dr Thomson, in his *Syst. of Chem.* Vol. IV. p. 260.) is imbibed by their roots in a fluid state, it must exist in plants in a fluid state, and unless it undergoes alterations in its composition just when imbibed, we may expect to find it in the plant unaltered.—If we consider, that when one species of tree is grafted upon another,

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ther, each bears its own peculiar fruit, and produces its own peculiar substances, we can scarcely avoid thinking, that the *great* changes, at least which the food undergoes after absorption are produced, not in the roots, but in other parts of the plant. If this conclusion be just, the food of plants, after being imbibed by the roots, must go directly to those organs where it is to receive new modifications, and to be rendered fit for being assimilated to the different parts of the plant. There ought, therefore, to be certain juices continually ascending from the roots of plants. Now during the vegetation of plants there actually is a *juice* continually ascending from their roots. This juice has been called the *sap*, the *succus communis*, or the *lymph* of plants.—For the most complete set of experiments hitherto made upon the sap, we are indebted to Mr Vauquelin. (*Ann. de Chim.* xxxi. 32. and *Jour. de Phys.* xlix. 38.) He found, that 1039 parts of the sap of the ULMUS CAMPESTRIS, or common elm, were composed of 1027·904 water and volatile matter; 9·240 acetite of potash; 1·060 vegetable matter; 0·796 carbonat of lime; besides some slight traces of sulphuric and muriatic acids. On analysing the same sap somewhat later in the season, M. Vauquelin found the quantity of vegetable matter a little increased, and that of the carbonat of lime and acetite of potash diminished. Still later, the vegetable matter was further increased, and that of the carbonat of lime and the other two ingredients further diminished. The carbonat of lime was held in solution by carbonic acid, of which there existed a considerable excess in the sap. It is to this acid, that the air-bubbles, which so often accompany the sap as it issues from the tree, are owing. If these experiments warrant any consequence to be drawn from them, they would induce us to suppose, that the carbonat of lime and acetite of potash were contained in the pure ascending sap, and that part at least of the vegetable matter was derived from the peculiar juices altered by the secreting organs of the plant, for the 2 salts diminished in quantity, and the vegetable matter increased as the vegetation advanced. Now this is precisely what ought to have taken place, if the sap became more and more mixed with the peculiar juices of the tree. It follows, that carbonat of lime and acetite of potash are absorbed by plants as a part of their food."—"The sap of the FAGUS SYLVATICA, or beech, (see FAGUS, N° 3.) contained the following ingredients: water, acetite of lime with excess of acid; acetite of potash; gallic acid; tan; a mucous and extractive matter; acetite of alumina. The quantity of each of these ingredients increased as the vegetation advanced; for the colour of the 2d sap collected later was much deeper than that of the first. This shews us, that these ingredients were produced by vegetation, and that they did not form a part of the ascending sap. The presence of alumina, and the absence of carbonic acid gas, would seem to indicate, that all plants do not imbibe the very same food. The sap of the *carpinus sylvestris* contains water, acetite of potash, acetite of lime, sugar, mucilage, vegetable extract. It cannot be doubted, that the sugar and mucilage are the produce of vegetation. The sap of the BETULA ALBA, or common birch," (See BETULA, N° 1.) "contains water, sugar, vegetable extract, acetite of lime, acetite of alumina, and acetite of potash. These experiments certainly add to the proofs of our notions concerning the food of plants. They seem to shew, either that acetite of potash and lime are a part of the food of plants, or at least some substances, which have the property of assuming these combinations. These experiments lead to the conclusion, that acetous acid forms a component part of the sap."

(6.) SAP, CIRCULATION OF, IN PLANTS. (See PLANTS, § 1c.) As the vegetable economy is still but imperfectly understood, and experiments made for tracing the motion of the sap may lead to important discoveries, the botanical philosopher will be happy to find, that of late this subject has been revived. Dr Walker, late professor of Natural History in the university of Edinburgh, published, in the 1st vol. of *Philos. Trans. of Edinburgh*, an account of a course of very accurate and ingenious experiments, accompanied with observations and conclusions made with a candour which inspires confidence, and is indeed worthy of a disciple of Bacon. He is the first person, we know, who thought of comparing the thermometer with the motion of the sap. It is well known that in spring vegetables contain a great quantity of sap; and there are some trees, as the birch and plane, which, if wounded, will discharge a great portion of it. Whence is this moisture derived? Whether is it imbibed from the atmosphere, or does it flow from the soil through the roots? These are the questions which require first to be answered; and Dr Walker's experiments enable us to answer them with confidence. He selected a vigorous young birch, 30 feet high and 26 inches in circumference at the ground. He bored a hole just above the ground on the 1st of Feb. and cut one of its branches at the extremity. He repeated this every 2d day; but no moisture appeared at either of the places till the 5th of May, when a small quantity flowed on making an incision near the ground. He then cut 21 incisions in the trunk of the tree, on the north side, at the distance of a foot from one another, and reaching from the ground to the height of 20 feet. The incisions were solid triangles, each side being an inch long and an inch deep, and penetrating through the bark and the wood. Dr Walker visited the tree almost every day for two months, and marked exactly from which of the incisions the sap flowed. He observed that it flowed from the lowest incision first, and gradually ascended to the highest. The following table will show the progress of the sap upwards, and its correspondence with the thermometer. The first column is the day of the month on which the observation was made; the second expresses the number of incisions from which the sap flowed on the day of the month opposite; and the 3d column the degree of the thermometer at noon. Some days are omitted in March, as the incisions, though made on the 5th, did not bleed till the 11th. Some days are also passed over in April, because no observation was made on account of rain.

March.

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	N. of In.	Ther. Noon.	March.	N. of In.	Ther. Noon.
—	46		30	8	50
2	49		31	7	62
2	49				
1	44	April	2	7	46
4	48		4	10	53
5	52		7	11	49
5	47		8	11	48
4	44		9	12	50
5	47		10	13	53
6	48		11	13	45
5	44		12	13	44
7	48		13	13	43
7	45		14	14	55
8	46		15	14	49
9	47		16	16	56
9	42		18	16	50
7	39		19	19	54
8	45		20	19	56
8	49		21	20	54
8	46		22	21	52

Walker found that the ſap aſcends through wood, and ſtill more copiouſly between the and the bark; but none could be perceived ding through the pitch or bark. He found that when the thermometer at noon is about between 46 and 50, the ſap riſes about one in 24 hours; that when the thermometer is 45 at noon, it deſcends about one foot in ays; and that it does not aſcend at all un- e mid-day heat be above 40. He obſerved moves with more velocity through young hrough old branches. In one young branch ed through ſeven feet in one day, the ther- ter being at 49, while it moved in the trunk tree only ſeven feet in ſeven days. Dr r has thus explained the reaſon why the on the extremities of branches unfold firſt; ſe they are placed on the youngeſt wood, ch the ſap flows moſt abundantly. The produced by the motion of the ſap deſerve ttended to. In thoſe parts to which it has ed, the bark eaſily ſeparates from the wood, e ligneous circles may, without difficulty, ached from one another. The buds begin ll and their ſcales to ſeparate, while thoſe es to which the ſap has not aſcended re- loſely folded. When the ſap has reached remities of the branches, and has thus per- the whole plant, it is ſoon covered with g buds and ceaſes to bleed. The bleeding firſt in the upper parts of the tree, and in wer parts ſucceſſively downwards, and the becomes dry. An inverted branch flows copiouſly when cut than thoſe which are This is a proof that the aſcent of the ſap occaſioned by capillary attraction, for wa- ch has riſen in a ſmall glaſs tube by this at- will not deſcend when the tube is in-

It is evident that there is an intimate tion between heat and the aſcent of the t did not begin to flow till the thermome- d at a certain point; when it fell below was arreſted in its progreſs. The ſouth the tree, when the ſun was bright, bled rofuſely than the north ſide; and at ſun-ſet ſions at the top ceaſed to bleed, where it poſed moſt to the cold air, while it ſtill continued to flow from the inciſions next to the ground; the ground retaining its heat longer than the air.

(1.) * *To* SAP. *v. a.* [*ſapper*, *zappare*, Italian.] To undermine; to ſubvert by digging; to mine.—

Their dwellings were *ſapp'd* by floods. *Dryd.*

(2.) * *To* SAP. *v. n.* To proceed by mine; to proceed inviſibly.—For the better ſecurity of the troops, both aſſaults are carried on by *ſapping*. *Tatler.*—

In vain my heroes fight, and patriots rave,
If ſecret gold *ſaps* on from knave to knave.
Pope.

SAPA, or ST MICHAEL DE SAPA, a town in Peru, in the province of Charcos, and valley of Arica.

SAPÆI, or SAPHÆI, an ancient people of Thrace. *Ovid. Faſt.* i. 389.

SAPATA, or SAPATO, } PULO, an iſland in the E. Indian Ocean. It is high and barren, and reſembles a ſhoe in form. Lon. 109. 10. E. Lat. 10. 4. N.

SAPELLO, an iſland in the Atlantic, near the W. coaſt of Georgia, 20 miles in circumference, at the mouth of a river of the ſame name. Lon. 81. 30. W. Lat. 31. 23. N.

SAPHÆI. See SAPÆI.

SAPHÆNA, in anatomy, [from פנה, Arabic ; *ραφη*, Gr. i. e. eaſy to be ſeen.] the crural vein which goes down under the ſkin of the thigh and leg, and turns toward the upper part of the foot, where it ſends forth ſeveral branches.

SAPHAN, or SAPHON, the Hebrew name of a quadruped mentioned in ſcripture, about which there have been many diſputes among the learned. In our verſion, it is tranſlated *rabbit*, but the character of this animal does not ſuit that of the *ſaphan*. Bochart thinks it is the DIPUS JACULUS, or common *jerboa*, and diſplays a vaſt deal of learning on the ſubject. (See DIPUS, N° III.) But this opinion is refuted by Mr Bruce, who obſerves that the ſaphon is gregarious, and builds in rocks; being likewiſe diſtinguiſhed for its feebleneſs, which it ſupplies by its wiſdom; and none of theſe characters apply to the jerboa; "therefore (adds Mr Bruce,) though he chews the cud in common with ſome others, and was in great plenty in Judæa, ſo as to be known to Solomon, yet he cannot be the ſaphon of ſcripture." He ſuppoſes with great probability, that it is the creature termed the *moule*, in Iſaiah lxv. 17.; and ſays, that in the Arabic verſion, this word is tranſlated *Jerboa*. On the whole, he concludes, that the ſaphan of the ſcripture is the *Hyrax Syriacus*, or *Syrian Aſhbolo*. See HYRAX, N° 2.

SAPHETA, *n. ſ.* in architecture, the board over the top of a window, placed parallel and oppoſite to the window-board at bottom.

SAPHIES, *n. ſ.* a kind of charms, conſiſting of ſome ſcrap of writing, which the credulous Negroes believe capable of protecting them from all evil. The writers of ſaphies are generally Moors, who ſell ſcraps of the Koran for this purpoſe to a people who believe neither the Koran nor the prophet. Accordingly, any piece of writing may be ſold as a ſaphie; and Mr Park found the Negroes diſpoſed to place greater confidence in the ſaphies of a Chriſtian than in thoſe of a Moor. Mr

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Mr Park being at Koolikorro, a conſiderable town near the Niger, and a great market of ſalt, his landlord, hearing that he was a Chriſtian, immediately thought of procuring a ſaphie. For this purpoſe he brought out his *ewhalha*, or writing board, aſſuring me (ſays our author,) that he would dreſs me a ſupper of rice if I would write him a ſaphie to protect him from wicked men. The propoſal was of too great conſequence to me to be refuſed; I therefore wrote the board full, from top to bottom, on both ſides; and my landlord, to be certain of having the whole force of the charm, waſhed the writing from the board into a calabaſh with a little water; and having ſaid a few prayers over it, drank this powerful draught; after which, leſt a ſingle word ſhould eſcape, he licked the board until it was quite dry. A ſaphie writer was a man of too great conſequence to be long concealed: the important information was carried to the Dooty; who ſent his ſon with half a ſheet of writing paper, deſiring me to write him a *naphala ſaphie* (a charm to procure wealth.) He brought me, as a preſent, ſome meal and milk; and when I had finiſhed the ſaphie, and read it to him with an audible voice, he ſeemed highly ſatisfied with his bargain, and promiſed to bring me in the morning ſome milk for my breakfaſt. Our author contrived to turn this abſurd ſuperſtition to his own advantage, by writing ſaphies for his ſubſiſtence when his money was exhauſted.

SAPHIRE. See SAPPHIRE.

SAPHON. See DIPUS, N° III, HYRAX, N° 2, and SAPHAN.

SAPHORIN, St, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Berne, on the N. coaſt of the lake of Geneva, 2½ miles W. of Vivai.

* SAPID. *adj.* [*ſapidus*, Lat.] Taſteful; palatable; making a powerful ſtimulation upon the palate.—Thus camels, to make the water *ſapid*, do raiſe the mud with their feet. *Brown.*—The moſt oily parts are not ſeparated by a ſlight decoction, till they are diſentangled from the ſalts; for if what remains of the ſubject, after the infuſion and decoction be continued to be boiled down with the addition of freſh water, a fat, *ſapid*, odorous, viſcous, inflammable, frothy water, will conſtantly be found floating a-top of the boiling liquor. *Arbuthnot.*

* SAPIDITY. } *n. ſ.* [from *ſapid.*] Taſteful-
* SAPIDNESS. } neſs; power of ſtimulating the palate.—The body of that element is inſipid, and void of all *ſapidity*. *Brown.*—If *ſapidness* belong not to the mercurial principle of vegetables and animals, it will ſcarce be diſcriminated from their phlegm.

* SAPIENCE. *n. ſ.* [*ſapience*, Fr. *ſapientia*, Lat.] Wiſdom; ſageneſs; knowledge.—By *ſapience*, I mean what the ancients did by philoſophy; the habit or diſpoſition of mind which importeth the love of wiſdom. *Greenwood.*

They now, puft up with's deignful inſolence,
Deſpiſe the brood of bleſſed *Sapience*. *Spenſer.*

—King James, of immortal memory, among all the lovers and admirers of divine and human *ſapience*, accompliſhed at Theobalds his own days on earth. *Wotton.*—Beauty enterpriſes guided by ill counſels have equal ſucceſs to thoſe by the beſt judgment conducted, therefore had violence the ſame external figure with *ſapience*. *Raleigh.*

Sapience and love
Immenſe, and all his father in him ſhone. *Milton.*

O ſov'reign, virtuous, precious of all trees
In Paradiſe! of operation bleſt
To *ſapience*. *Milton.*

Many a wretch in Bedlam,
Still has gratitude and *ſapience*,
To ſpare the folks that give him ha'pence.
Swift.

* SAPIENT. *adj.* [*ſapiens*, Lat.] Wiſe; ſage.
There the *ſapient* king held dalliance. *Milton.*

(1—4.) SAPIENZA, 3 iſlands and a cape of European Turkey, near the S. coaſt of the Morea, oppoſite Modon. They were anciently called *Sphacteria* and *Sphagæ*. They are badly cultivated. The pirates of Barbary conceal themſelves in theſe iſlands to ſurpriſe veſſels from Italy, Sicily, &c. Lon. 21. 35. E. Lat. 36. 50. N

(5.) SAPIENZA, SEA OF, the ſea in which the above iſlands lie.

SAPINDUS, the SOAP-BERRY TREE, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the octandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 23d order, *Tribulatæ*. The calyx is tetraphyllous; the petals four; the capſules are corneous, walited, and ventricoſe. There are 5 ſpecies:

1. SAPINDUS CHINENSIS, *the Chineſe Soap-berry Tree.*

2. SAPINDUS RIGIDUS, with rigid acute-pointed leaves, grows in India. This hath a ſtrong woody ſtalk, which riſes about 20 feet high, ſending out many ſtrong ligneous branches, covered with a ſmooth grey bark, and garniſhed with winged leaves, compoſed of many ſpear-ſhaped lobes: they are of a pale green, and ſit cloſe to the main rib, which has no border or wing like the reſt. The end of the branches are divided into two or three foot-ſtalks, each ſuſtaining a looſe ſpike of flowers like thoſe of the other ſort; theſe are ſucceeded by roundiſh berries like thoſe of the former.

3. SAPINDUS SAPONARIA, with winged leaves, grows naturally in the iſlands of the Weſt Indies, where it riſes with a woody ſtalk from 20 to 30 feet high, ſending out many branches garniſhed with winged leaves compoſed of ſeveral pairs of ſpear-ſhaped lobes. The mid rib has a membranaceous or leafy border, running on each ſide from one pair of lobes to the other, with the broadeſt in the middle between the lobes: the flowers are produced in looſe ſpikes, at the ends of the branches; they are ſmall and white, make no great appearance. Theſe are ſucceeded by oval berries as large as middling cherries; ſometimes ſingle, at others, 2, 3, or 4, are joined together; theſe have a ſaponaceous ſkin or coat, which incloſes a very ſmooth roundiſh nut of the ſame form, of a ſhining black when ripe. The ſkin or pulp which ſurrounds the nuts is uſed in America to waſh linen; but is very apt to burn and deſtroy it if often uſed, being of a very acrid nature.

4. SAPINDUS SPINOSUS, *the ſpinous or ſmooth-berry tree*: and,

5. SAPINDUS TRIFOLIATUS, *the three-*

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ry tree. All these plants are propagated ls; they must be put into small pots, and d into a hot-bed of tanner's bark. In 5 or s the plants will appear, when the glasses hot-bed should be raised every day in warm r, to admit fresh air to the plants. In 3 or s after the plants appear, they will be fit ıplant, when they must be shaken out of ts, and carefully parted, so as not to injure oots, and each planted into a separate small nd plunged into the hot-bed again, observ- shade them from the sun until they have new root; after which time they must have ır admitted to them every day when the er is warm, and will require to be frequent- ered.

PIRENE, in ancient geography, an island in ulf of Arabia. *Plin.* vi. c. 29.

PIS, in ancient geography, a river of Gallia lana, running into the Adriatic, now called). *Lucan*, ii. v. 406.

APLESS. *adj.* [*saploos*, Dutch.] 1. Want- p; wanting vital juice.—

Withless arms, like to a wither'd vine,
at droops his *sapless* branches to the ground. *Shak.*

The tree of knowledge, blasted by disputes, oduces *sapless* leaves instead of fruits. *Denh.*

vain does art tie that withered bundle of to its *sapless* trunk. *Swift.* 2. Dry; old; r.—

If by this bribe, well plac'd, he would ensnare me *sapless* usurer that wants an heir. *Dryden.*

APLING. *n. s.* [from *sap.*] A young tree; a g plant.—

Look how I am bewitch'd; behold, mine arm like a blasted *sapling*, wither'd up. *Shak.*

Nurse the *saplings* tall. *Milton.*

A *sapling* pine he wrench'd from out the ground,
he readiest weapon that his fury found. *Dryden.*

What planter will attempt to yoke
sapling with a falling oak? *Swift.*

Slouch turn'd his head, saw his wife's vig'rous hand
Wielding her oaken *sapling* of command. *King.*

.)* SAPONACEOUS. SAPONARY. *adj.* [from Latin, soap.] Sopy; resembling soap; having qualities of soap.—By digesting a solution of of tartar with oil of almonds, I could reduce n to a soft *saponary* substance. *Boyle.*—Any ture of an oily substance with salt, may be cal- a soap: bodies of this nature are called *sapo- ceous. Arbuthnot.*

2.) SAPONACEOUS MATTER FORMED BY PU- TREFACTION. Among the many surprising facts, ently discovered by modern chemists, this is that animal matter, in certain circumstances, converted into a saponaceous substance. Dr omson, in his *Syst. of Chem*, vol. iv. p. 527, es the following account of this phenomenon. er enumerating the common phænomena at- ding putrefaction, (see PUTREFACTION, § 5.) he adds, "When great numbers of carca- are crowded together into one place, and are abundant as to exclude the action of external and other foreign agents, their decomposition is entirely the consequence of the reciprocal action of their ingredients themselves upon each other, and the result is very different. The body is not entirely dissipated or reduced to mould, but all the soft parts are found diminished remarkably in size, and converted into a peculiar *saponaceous matter*. This singular change was first accurately observed in 1786. The burial ground of the Innocents in Paris having become noxious to those who lived in its neighbourhood, on account of the disagreeable and hurtful odour which it exhaled, it was found necessary to remove the carcases to another place. It had been usual to dig very large pits in that burial ground, and to fill them with the carcases of the poorer sort of people, each in its proper bier; and, when they were quite full, to cover them with about a foot deep of earth, and to dig another similar pit, and fill it in the same manner. Each pit held between 1000 and 1500 dead bodies. It was in removing the bodies from these pits, that this saponaceous substance was found. The grave-diggers had ascertained, by long experience, that about 30 years were required, before all the bodies had undergone this change in its full extent. Every part of the body acquired the properties of this substance. The intestines and viscera of the thorax had completely disappeared; but what is singular, the brain had lost little of its size or appearance, though it was also converted into the same substance. This saponaceous matter was of a white colour, soft and unctuous to the touch, and melted, when heated, like tallow. It exhibited all the properties of a SOAP, containing, however, an excess of fatty matter. Fourcroy, who analyzed it, found that it was composed of a fatty matter combined with ammonia, and that it contained also some phosphat of lime and ammonia. Diluted acids decomposed it and separated the fatty matter: alkalies and lime drove off the ammonia. When exposed to the air, it gradually lost its white colour: the ammonia, in a great measure, evaporated; and what remained had something of the appearance of wax. It absorbed water with great avidity, and did not part with it readily. Its white colour was owing to the presence of that liquid. The oily matter, when separated by means of a diluted acid, was concrete, and of a white colour, owing to the mixture of a quantity of water. When dried, it acquires a greyish brown colour, a lamellar and crystalline texture, like that of spermaceti; but if it has been rapidly dried, it assumes the appearance of wax. It melts when heated to 126°; when properly purified, by passing it through a linen cloth while fluid, it has scarcely any smell. Alcohol does not act upon it while cold, but, at the temperature of 120°, it dissolves it: when the solution cools, the fatty matter precipitates and forms a gritty mass. With alkalies it forms a *soap*; and, when set on fire, it burns precisely like oil or fat, only that it exhales a more unpleasant odour." (*Fourcroy, Ann. de Chim.* v, 154. viii. 17.) "Mr Smith Gibbes (continues the Dr,) found the same substance in the pit into which animal matters are thrown at Oxford after dissection. A small stream of water continually passes through this pit; a circumstance which

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which induced him to try, whether animal muscle exposed to the action of a running stream underwent the same change. The experiment succeeded completely. He attempted in consequence, to render this substance, to which he gave the name of SPERMACETI, useful in those manufactures which require tallow: but the fetid odour, which it constantly exhales, was an insurmountable objection. Attempts were indeed made to get over it; and a manufacture of Mr Smith Gibbes's spermaceti has even been established at Bristol."

(1.) SAPONARA, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra: 20 miles NE. of Policastro.

(2.) SAPONARA, a river of Sicily, which runs into the sea, 9 miles W. of Messina.

SAPONARIA, SOPEWORT, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the decandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 22d order, *Caryophylleæ*. The calyx is monophyllous and naked; there are five ungulated petals; the capsule is oblong and unilocular. There are 8 species, viz. SAPONARIA CRETICA, ILLYRICA, LUTEA, OCYMOIDES, OFFICINALIS, ORIENTALIS, PORRIGENS, and VACCARIA. Of these the most remarkable is the

SAPONARIA OFFICINALIS, which is a British plant, has a creeping root, so that in a short time it would fill a large space of ground. The stalks are about two feet high, and of a purplish colour. The footstalks of the flowers arise from the wings of the leaves opposite; they sustain four, five, or more purple flowers each; which have generally two small leaves placed under them. The stalk is also terminated by a loose bunch of flowers growing in form of an umbel; they have each a large swelling cylindrical empalement, and five broad obtuse petals, which spread open, of a purple colour. These are succeeded by oval capsules, with one cell filled with small seeds.—The decoction is used to cleanse and scour woollen cloths: the poor people in some countries use it instead of soap for washing; from which use it had its name.

* SAPONARY. See SAPONACEOUS, § 1.

SAPONULÆ, SAPONULES, SAPONULI, } or SAVONULES, in chemistry, terms proposed, but not yet generally adopted by modern chemists, to express combinations of volatile or essential oils with different bases. (See CHEMISTRY, *Vocabulary* II: and VOLATILE OILS.) "The French chemists (says Dr Thomson, *Syst. of Chem.* vol. II, p. 182.) have proposed to give these combinations the name of *savonules*, which Dr Pearson has translated by the term *saponules*; but these denominations have not been adopted by chemists." The Dr adds in a note, "The term *saponule* does not agree well with the idiom of our language. The word *sub-soap*, or something similar would have been better."

(1.) SAPOR I. king of Persia, succeeded his father Artaxerxes about A. D. 238. He enlarged his dominions by taking Mesopotamia, Syria, and Cilicia; but proved a most haughty and cruel tyrant, particularly to the Roman emperor VALERIAN, whom he took prisoner, and after every possible insult put him to a cruel death. (See PERSIA, § 16; and ROME, § 72.) After this he was very unsuccessful; was repeatedly defeated by the brave ODENATUS, Prince of Palmyra; and at last assassinated by his own subjects, A. D. 273. He was succeeded by his son Hormisdas.

(2.) SAPOR II. king of Persia, grandson of Sapor I. succeeded his father Hormisdas, A. D. 310. He was a very active and warlike monarch, and proved very troublesome to the Romans. His victories alarmed the emperor Julian so much, that he marched against him in person; but in a rencounter with his troops, received his mortal wound. (See CONSTANTINOPLE, § 7.) Jovian made peace with Sapor; but the latter afterwards renewed hostilities, invaded Armenia, and defeated the emperor Valens. Sapor died A. D. 380, after a long and pretty prosperous reign of 70 years. He was succeeded by his brother Artaxerxes II, or rather the Vth, reckoning from the ancient kings of Persia.

(3.) SAPOR III. the son of Sapor II. succeeded his uncle Artaxerxes V, A. D. 384. He had not the fortune of his predecessors, but being defeated by Theodosius the Great, was obliged to sue for peace. He died after a short reign of 5 years, A. D. 389.

(4.) * SAPOR. *n. s.* [Latin.] Taste; power of affecting or stimulating the palate.—There is some *sapor* in all aliments, as being to be distinguished and judged by the gust. *Brown.*—The shape of those little particles of matter which distinguish the various *sapors*, odours, and colours of bodies. *Watts.*

(5.) SAPOR, TASTE. See ANATOMY, *Index*, and TASTE.

* SAPORIFICK. *adj.* [*saporifique*, Fr. *sapor* and *facio*, Latin.] Having the power to produce tastes.

SAPOROUS. *adj.* savoury; having a taste.

SAPOTA, PLUM, in botany. See ACHRAS.

SAPOZOK, a town of Russia, in the province of Riazan, 68 miles W. of Riazan. Lon. 38. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 54. 5. N.

SAPPARE, a name given by Saussure, to the stone called *Cyanite* by others. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *Class* I. *Order* I. *Genus* III. *Species* i. *Sp.* 1.

SAPPERS, *n. s.* are soldiers belonging to the royal artillery, whose business it is to work at the saps, for which they have an extraordinary pay. A brigade of sappers generally consists of eight men, divided equally into two parties; and while one of these parties is advancing the sap, the other is furnishing the gabions, fascines, and other necessary implements. They relieve each other alternately.

(1.) SAPPHIC, *adj.* Of or belonging to SAPPHO.

(2.) SAPPHIC and ADONIAN, or ADONIC VERSE, in the ancient poetry, a beautiful kind of verse, so named from SAPPHO, the poetess, and ADONIS, the favourite of Venus. The Sapphic verse consisted of 5 feet each; of which the first was a *trochæus*; the 2d a *spondæus*; the 3d a *dactylus*; and the 2 last *trochæi*. The Adonian consisted of 2 syllables, forming a *dactylus* and a *spondæus*. Each from

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iza consisted of 3 lines Sapphic and one Adon: (See ADONIC.) thus,

Tūrĕ-	*ām quīs-*	*quīs mĕdī-*	*ōcrī-*	*tātĕm*
diri-	*git, tu-*	*tus caret*	*obſo-*	*leti*
ordi-	*bus tec-*	*ti, caret*	*invi-*	*denda*
			Sobrius	*aula.*

1.) SAPPHIRA. See ANANIAS.

2.) SAPPHIRA, the wife of a rich merchant in eldres, equally diſtinguiſhed for her beauty her virtue. Rhinſauld, a German officer, and ernor of the town of Gueldres, fell in love h her: and not being able to ſeduce her either promiſes or preſents, he impriſoned her huſd, pretending that he kept up a traiterous reſpondence with the enemies of the ſtate. phira yielded to the paſſion of the governor to eve her huſband from chains; but private or- s had already been given to put him to death. unhappy widow, overwhelmed with grief, nplained to Charles duke of Burgundy. He ered Rhinſauld to marry her, and to make o- to her all his poſſeſſions. As ſoon as the deed s ſigned, and the marriage over, Charles comnded him to be put to death. Thus the chil- n of a wife whom he had ſeduced, and of a ſband whom he had murdered, became lawful rs to all his wealth.

1.) * SAPPHIRE. *n. ſ.* [*ſapphirus*, Latin: ſo t it is improperly written *ſaphyre*.] A precious ne of a blue colour.—*Saphire* is of a bright blue our. *Woodward.*—

Like *ſaphire*, pearl, in rich embroidery. *Shak.*

He tinctures rubies with their roſy hue,
And on the *ſaphire* ſpreads a heavenly blue.
Blackmore.

That the *ſaphire* ſhould grow foul, and loſe its auty, when worn by one that is lecherous, and ny other fabulous ſtories of gems, are great arments that their virtue is equivalent to their ue. *Derham.*

2.) SAPPHIRE, a genus of precious ſtones, of a ue colour, and the hardeſt of all except the ru- and diamond, the former of which needs not w to be excepted, being conſidered as the *ſame* ue. They are found in the ſame countries with alſo in Bohemia, Alſace, Siberia, and Auvergne. Rome de l'Iſle mentions one found at Augne, which appeared quite green or blue acrding to the poſition in which it was viewed. ey are ſeldom found of a deep blue colour roughout, or free from parallel veins. The late fortunate Lewis XVI. had one with a ſtripe of e yellow topaz in the middle. Some are found lf green and half red, and are foliated like the by. The fineſt ſapphires come from the Eaſt dies. In Scotland they are found of a hardneſs d luſtre equal to the oriental, both light and ep coloured, at Bennachie in Perthſhire; Inrcauld, Aberdeenſhire; Portſoy in Banffſhire, d many other places. But now all diſtinction *colour* is diſregarded by modern mineralogiſts; not even forming a different *ſpecies*. The *blue* PPHIRE, the *red* RUBY, and the *yellow* TOPAZ, e now all ranked, not only under *one genus*, but only ſo many *varieties* of the ſame *ſpecies* of nes. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *aſs* I. *Order* I. *Gen.* I. and VI: where their cryſlization, hardneſs, ſpecific gravity, and other phenomena, are particularly deſcribed. When powdered, they are fuſible with borax, magneſia, or microcoſmic ſalt, into a tranſparent glaſs. A good ſapphire of ten carats is valued at 50 guineas; if it weighs 20 carats, it is valued at 200 guineas; and, if under ten carats, its value may be found by multiplying the carats at 10s. 6d. by the ſquare of its weight.

(3.) SAPPHIRE, ANCIENT. It is aſcertained from Pliny, *Lib.* 37. *c.* 9. that the ſapphire of the ancients was our LAPIS LAZULI, now called, by modern chemiſts, LAZULITE. See LAZULI, and MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *Claſs* I. *Order* I. *Gen.* XII. *Sp.* 9.

(4.) SAPPHIRE, OCCIDENTAL. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *Claſs* I. *Order* I. *Gen.* VI, i. *Sp.* 1. *Var.* 5.

(5.) SAPPHIRE, ORIENTAL. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *Claſs* I. *Order* I. *Gen.* I. *Var.* 3.

* SAPPHIRINE. *adj.* [*ſapphirinus*, Latin.] Made of ſapphire; reſembling ſapphire.—

She was too *ſaphirine* and clear for thee. *Dan.*

—A few grains of ſhell ſilver, with a convenient proportion of powdered cryſtal glaſs, having been kept three hours in fuſion, I found the coliquated maſs, upon breaking the crucible, of a lovely *ſaphirine* blue. *Boyle.*

SAPPHO, a famous poeteſs of antiquity, who for her excellence in her art has been called the *Tenth Muſe*, was born at Mitylene, in the iſle of Leſbos, about A. A. C. 610. She was contemporary with Steſichorus and Alcæus. The laſt was her countryman, and ſome think her ſuitor. A verſe of this poet, in which he inſinuates to her his paſſion, is preſerved in Ariſtotle, *Rhet. lib.* i. *cap.* 9. together with the fair damſel's anſwer. M. la Fevre obſerves, that Sappho was not in her uſual good humour when ſhe gave a cold anſwer to a requeſt, for which, at another time, perhaps ſhe would not have waited.—It has been thought, too, that Anacreon was one of her lovers, and his editor Barnes has attempted to prove it: but chronology will not admit this; for Sappho was probably dead before Anacreon was born. Of the numerous poems this lady wrote, nothing remains but ſome ſmall fragments which the ancient ſcholiaſts have cited; a hymn to Venus, preſerved by Dionyſius of Halicarnaſſus; and an ode to one of her miſtreſſes; which laſt piece confirms a tradition, that her amorous paſſion extended even to her own ſex. Ovid introduces her making a ſacrifice to Phaon, one of her male paramours. She fell deſperately in love with Phaon, and did all ſhe could to win him, but in vain. She followed him into Sicily, whither he retired to avoid her; and during her ſtay in that iſland compoſed the hymn to Venus, ſtill extant, in which ſhe begs ſo ardently the aſſiſtance of that goddeſs. But her prayers proved fruitleſs; Phaon was cruel to the laſt. Sappho took the dreadful leap; ſhe went to the promontory Leucas, and threw herſelf into the ſea. (See LEUCATE, N° 1.) The cruelty of Phaon will not ſurpriſe us, if we reflect, that ſhe was a widow (for ſhe had been married to a rich man in the iſle of Andros, by whom ſhe had a daughter, named *Cleis*); that ſhe had never been handſome; that ſhe had obſerved no meaſure in

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her paſſion to both ſexes; and that Phaon had long known all her charms. She was, however, a very great wit, and for that alone deſerves to be remembered. The Mitylenians held her merit in ſuch high eſteem, that they ſtamped their money with her image. The Romans afterwards erected a noble ſtatue of porphyry to her; and in ſhort, ancients as well as moderns have done honour to her memory. Voſſius ſays, that none of the Greek poets excelled Sappho for ſweetneſs of verſe; and that ſhe made Archilochus the model of her ſtyle, but ſoftened his expreſſion. Rapin obſerves, that Longinus had great reaſon to extol the admirable genius of this woman; for there is in what remains of her ſomething delicate, harmonious, and impaſſioned to the laſt degree.

SAPPHYR. See SAPPHIRE, § 1—5.

* SAPPINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ſappy*] The ſtate or the quality of abounding in ſap; ſucculence; juicineſs.

* SAPPY. *adj.* [from *ſap*.] 1. Abounding in ſap; juicy; ſucculent.—

The *ſappy* parts, and next reſembling juice,
Were turn'd to moiſture for the body's uſe. *Dryd.*

The *ſappy* boughs
Attire themſelves with bloom. *Philips.*

—The green heat the ripe, and the ripe give fire to the green; to which the bigneſs of their leaves, and hardneſs of their ſtalks, which continue moiſt and *ſappy* long, doth much contribute. *Mortimer.*

2. Young; not firm; weak. When he had paſſed this weak and *ſappy* age, he was committed to Dr Cox. *Hayward.*

(1.) SAQUEM, or SUAQUEM, an iſland in the Red Sea, near the coaſt of Nubia; ſeated in a bay, the entrance of which is narrow, and ſecure from all winds; with from 5 to 7 fathoms water. It belongs to the Turks, and is governed by a pacha.

(2.) SAQUEM, a ſea port town in the above iſland, anciently called THEON SOTER. Lon. 35. E. of Ferro. Lat. 19, 20. N.

SAR. See SARRE.

SARABAITES. See MONK, § 2.

(1.) * SARABAND. *n. ſ.* [*ſarabande*, Spaniſh; *ſarabande*, French.] A Spaniſh dance.—The ſeveral modifications of this tune-playing quality in a fiddle to play preludes *ſarabands*, jigs and gavots, are as much real qualities in the inſtrument as the thought is in the mind of the compoſer. *Arbuth. not and Pope.*

(2.) *A* SARABAND, is a muſical compoſition in the triple time, the motions of which are ſlow and ſerious. See MUSIC, § 252. Saraband is alſo a dance to the ſame meaſure, which uſually terminates when the hand that beats the time falls; and is otherwiſe much the ſame as the minuet. The ſaraband is ſaid to be originally derived from the Saracens, and is uſually danced to the ſound of the guitar or caſtanettes.

SARABOS, a town in the iſland of Sardinia; 35 miles NNE. of Cagliari.

SARACA, in botany, a genus of the hexandria order, belonging to the diadelphia claſs of plants. —There is no calyx: the corolla is funnel-ſhaped and quadrifid; the filaments are on each ſide the throat of the corolla; the legumen is pedicellated.

SARACENA. See SARRACENA.

SARACENE, a part of Arabia Petræa, inhabited by the SARACENS.

(1.) SARACENS, the inhabitants of Arabia; ſo called from the word *ſara*, which ſignifies a deſert, as the greateſt part of Arabia is; and this being the country of Mahomet, his diſciples were called Saracens. See ARABIA, § 9; BAGDAD, § 5, BARBARY, § 3; CONSTANTINOPLE, § 10; EGYPT, § 16, 17; ITALY, § 16, 17; NAPLES, § 5—8; &c.

(2.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, FROM MAHOMET'S DEATH, TO THAT OF ABU BECR. Under the Article ARABIA, § 9, and ſtill more fully under MAHOMET, N° 1. we have given an account of the riſe, progreſs, and eſtabliſhment of the Mahometan ſyſtem of impoſture and ſuperſtition; previous to which event, the name of SARACENS was hardly known in Europe. Of his flight from Mecca to Medina, A. D. 622, and conſequent origin of the Mahometan æra of the *Hegira*, we have alſo given a particular account, (See HEGIRA,) with his various and rapid ſucceſſes, for 10 years after the commencement of that æra. (See MAHOMET.) By the year 631, the 9th of the Hegira, the principal men among the Arabs, and the whole of the Koreiſh, his moſt inveterate opponents had ſubmitted; and by the year 632, the whole peninſula of Arabia was reduced under his ſubjection and ſuperſtition. But in that year, the 10th of the Hegira, while freſh embaſſies of ſubmiſſion were daily arriving, this famous impoſtor died in Medina, in the chamber of his beſt beloved wife, a conſequence of a poiſoned diſh preſented to him 3 years before, by Zainoh, the daughter of Hareth, an Arabian chief, of which he had eaten but a ſmall quantity. The death of Mahomet threw all Mecca into conſternation. The veneration of the people was ſo great, that they could hardly believe his death poſſible. Abu Becr, however, at laſt convinced them, that the God was immortal, his prophet was mortal. Warin diſputes followed between the *Moſlems* and the *Anſars*; about the election of a khalif, as his ſucceſſor. Ali, the ſon-in-law of Mahomet, who had married the prophet's daughter, Fatima, certainly had the beſt title; but Abu Becr was preferred by the influence of Omar, and choſen by both parties. Ali, after ſome remonſtrances, ſubmitted; but his ſuperior right is defended even to the preſent period, by a numerous party of Mahometans, hence called SHIITES, or Sectaries. Upon Abu Becr's acceſſion many of the Arabs refuſed to pay the tribute impoſed on them by Mahomet; whereupon Abu Becr ſent Khaled with an army of 4,500 men, who totally defeated them, brought off much plunder, and made many of them ſlaves. He alſo killed *Moſeilama*, and defeated *Toleiah*, two pretended prophets, who attempted to imitate Mahomet in his impoſture. He next ſent his ſon Oſama into Syria, where he plundered the country and did much damage to the Greeks. He ſoon after ſent Khaled to invade IRAK, which he accompliſhed, and put an end to the kingdom of *Hira*, collecting 70,000 pieces of money, and ſubjecting the people to tribute. He next prepared to invade Syria, and having collected a great army, gave Yezid Ebn Abu Sofian the command of it, with the following among other advices. "Treat your men with lenity: if you

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be victorious, kill neither old people, women, children: cut down no palm trees, nor burn fields of corn: Spare all fruit-trees, and slay attle, but such as you use: put none of the ious persons to the sword: offer no violence ie places they serve God in." The Greek eror was much alarmed, and sent a party of ks to reconnoitre the enemy, who falling in a party of Arabs, a battle ensued, in which Greeks lost 1200 men, while the Saracens lost 120. Many skirmishes followed, and much spoil was taken by the Saracens, and sent to khalif. Another party of Greeks, however more successful against Abu Obeidah, whom totally defeated, and who was therefore dis- ed by Abu Becr. Khaled was sent to reduce ra, a rich city of Syria, which he accomplish- hiefly by treachery. Being joined by Obei- s troops, he laid siege to Damascus with oo men. The Greek emperor sent an army oo,000 men, under Gen. Werdan, to relieve but they were attacked by Derar Ebn Al ar, at the head of a numerous body of Sara- ; and though the Greeks were at first so suc- ul, as even to take Derar himself prisoner, had plunged into the heart of the Christian y, killed the standard-bearer, and seized the ard, which was a cross richly adorned with ious stones,) yet the Saracens completely de- d them, Khaled himself turning the fortune e day, by arriving with a fresh body of foot 1000 horse. Werdan, however, having still rmy of 70,000 men, made a fresh attempt to ve Damascus; but being again completely ated, with the loss of 50,000 men, Damascus soon after taken, A. D. 634; and that very Abu Becr died of a consumption, aged 63.

.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, FROM THE TH OF ABU BECR TILL THAT OF OMAR I. Becr was succeeded by OMAR I. who was ted with the title of *emperor of the Believers*! replaced Abu Obeidah in the command, be- displeased with Khaled for his cruelties; where- Obeidah was mild and merciful to the Christi-

Khaled, however, bore his disgrace with nanimity, and swore he would obey the new if. Obeidah, however, some time afterwards ntarily yielded the command to Khaled, as g possessed of more military skill. Under e commanders, the Saracens soon after redu- the fortresses of Kinnisrin, Baalbec, Adestan, zar and Hems: upon which the Greek em- r, Heraclius, sent against them an army of ,000 men, under Manuel; but this numerous y was utterly defeated by Khaled, near a vil- called YERMOUK; where, according to the bian historians, the Christians lost 350,000 killed, and 40,000 prisoners; while the A- lost only 4030 men; but this seems incredi-

The defeat of Yermouk was followed by loss of Jerusalem, and all Palestine. Omar, ing of the success of his troops, immediately out to visit Jerusalem, in a kind of *pilgrimage*, g dressed in a coarse habit made of camels praying daily, and performing numberless rstitious ceremonies by the way, as well as e signal acts of justice and mercy, and giving e striking instances of humility, by causing all his followers eat with him without distinction. Upon his arrival he preached a sermon to his people; after which he signed the articles of capitulation, confirmed the inhabitants of Jerusalem in all their rights and privileges; and visited the temple of the resurrection, and other antiquities of that city, accompanied by Sophronius the patriarch, who with difficulty could prevail on him to change his dirty garments for others more becoming his dignity. After dividing the government of Syria between Abu Obeidah and Yezid Ebn Abu Sofian, ordering Amru Ebn Al As to invade Egypt, and leaving proper orders otherwise, he returned to Medina. Yezid then attacked Cæsarea, but found it stronger than he expected. Obeidah advanced to Aleppo, where Youkinna and John, two brothers, governed under Heraclius. Youkinna resolved to oppose the Saracens, and accordingly set out at the head of 12,000 troops; and meeting with a party of Arabs, defeated them; but in the mean time, the people of Aleppo, afraid of the consequences, if their city should be taken by storm, submitted to Abu Obeidah. On this Youkinna posted home to Aleppo, in a rage; ordered them to annul their treaty, and finding them not ready to comply, killed 300 of them, among whom was his own brother John. He was soon after attacked by the Saracens, but defeated with the loss of 3000 men; after which he was besieged by them in the citadel; from which he made repeated sallies, and killed great numbers of the Saracens. Abu Obeidah, after continuing the siege 4 months longer, at last wrote Omar, that the citadel was impregnable, and proposed raising it. But Omar sent him a fresh reinforcement, with 70 camels, and orders to continue it. Among these new troops was an Arab of a gigantic size, named *Dames*; who by his size and his ingenuity, in raising 7 men perpendicularly upon his own and each other's shoulders, overtopt the walls in the night, got quietly in, killed the centinels and the guards; and admitting Khaled, with a fresh party of Saracens, soon got complete possession of the citadel. Youkinna and some of the principal officers turned Mahometans. After this Youkinnah proposed to Obeidah, to betray into his hands Azar an important fort, where his own cousin Theodorus was commandant, by going to him at the head of 100 Arabs dressed as Greeks. But this piece of treachery was detected, Theodorus having heard of the plan, and Youkinna and his *pseudo-Greeks* were made prisoners. But the fort being reduced, Youkinnah recovered his liberty; but was soon after taken prisoner a 2d time, and carried before Heraclius at Antioch. Here again he dissembled, and pretended that he was still a Christian, and had only professed Mahometanism to serve the emperor the more effectually; upon which Heraclius appointed him governor of Antioch, which the traitor soon after delivered up to the Saracens. Heraclius, disconsolate by these successive losses, was put by the King of Ghassan, upon the ungenerous plan of attempting to get rid of Omar by assassination. The king accordingly employed Wathek Ebn Mosafer, a resolute young Arab of his own tribe, on this dangerous enterprise. Wathek got a fair opportunity, by finding Omar sleeping

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keeping under a tree, but was deterred by a lion, who came and licked the khalif's feet till he awoke: on which Wathek considering this as miraculous, confessed his intention, turned Mahometan, and was pardoned. Obeidah then dispatched a body of 1300 troops, under Meisurah Ebn Mesrouk, to the mountainous parts of Syria. The Greeks surrounded them, and would have cut them all off, had not Khaled appeared at the head of 3000 Arabs. On this the Greeks fled, leaving their tents and rich effects to the Arabs. But Abdallah Ebn Hodafa, one of Omar's chief favourites was taken prisoner and sent to Constantinople. Omar wrote to Heraclius, requesting his release, which Heraclius generously granted, and sent along with him many valuable presents, particularly a jewel of immense value, which Omar sold and put the price in the public treasury, though requested to keep it for his own use. About this time a negociation for peace took place, but Omar insisting upon an annual tribute, it failed. Mean time many skirmishes took place and many heroic acts of prowess were performed by individuals on both sides. But the chief success was on the side of the Saracens. Khaled took Manbu, Beraa, Balis, Raaban, Donluc, Korus, (the ancient *Cyrus*) and several other fortified towns. Prince Constantine, the son of Heraclius, finding his troops diminishing daily, took the advantage of a tempestuous night to escape to Cæsarea; which was soon after invested by Amru. Mean time *Yezkinna*, by his old system of treachery, took Tripoli, and seized 50 ships, which had just arrived from Crete and Cyprus, with a supply of arms and provisions, not knowing that the Saracens were possessed of it. With these he set out for Tyre, where he deceived the people, pretending to come as a friend; and opened the gates to Yezid. Constantine, hearing of Cæsarea of these losses, set sail with his family and all his wealth, leaving the citizens to make their best terms with Amru. The surrender of Cæsarea was followed by that of all the other cities and forts in Syria, from the Mediterranean to the Euphrates, in the 18th year of the Hegira, or A. D. 640, 6 years after the expedition commenced. To the miseries of war were added those of violent storms of hail, an epidemical distemper, and at last a pestilence, all within the course of this year, which the Arabs style *the year of destruction*. By this last plague, the Saracens lost 25,000 men; among whom were Abu Obeidah, Yezid, Abu Sofian, Serjabil, and other eminent characters. Amru after this set out for Egypt, and on his way took TARMA, a town on the isthmus of Suez. He next attacked *Mesr*, the ancient MEMPHIS, which, after a siege of 7 months, was betrayed to him by Al Mokawkas, the governor. He then proceeded to Alexandria, which, after defeating the imperial army, he invested. During the siege Amru himself was taken prisoner, but protected from detection by one of his own slaves giving him a box in the ear, while he was answering some questions proposed by the governor, who generously dismissed him without ransom. Amru nevertheless reduced Alexandria, soon after, which was followed by the loss of the whole kingdom of Egypt; while his general Okba Ebn Nafe made himself master of all the country of Africa between *Barka* and ZOWEILAH, including also what now forms the piratical kingdom of TRIPOLI. Soon after this, a great famine raged in Arabia, particularly at Medina, where Omar then resided. Omar therefore wrote to Amru to send him a supply of corn, which he accordingly sent on a train of loaded camels, the first of which *entered Medina* when the last *left Alexandria*. But this method proving tedious and expensive, Omar ordered Amru to clear the *Amnis Trajanus*, now named *Khalis*, which runs through Cairo, of the sand which choked it. This Amru did, and thus rendered the communication from Egypt to Arabia, easy. The Saracens, thus successful in the W. were no less so in the E. The capture of *Irak*, and destruction of *Hira*, brought on a war with the Persians. (See PERSIA, § 16.) On the departure of Khaled the command of the troops was left with Abu Obeid Ebn Masud, Mothanna Ebn Haretha, Amru Ebn Hasem, and Salit Ebn Kis. Abu Obeid, having passed a river, was defeated, and his troops in great danger: Mothanna retreated, repassed the river without loss; and fortified his camp till he received supplies; his troops in the mean time ravaging Irak on the side next the Euphrates. A body of 12,000 Persian horse was sent against these invaders, under Mahran. The Persians had the advantage at first, and the Arabs retired, but were soon brought back by Mothanna; the battle lasted from noon till sunset; at last Mothanna engaging Mahran in single combat, laid him dead at his feet: on which the Persians fled. After this a powerful army was sent under the Persian general Rostam; but he was also killed, and his troops dispersed. Abu Musa, another Saracen general, defeated a formidable body under Al Harzaman, a noble Persian, at Athwaz. But of all Omar's generals, Saad Ebn Abu Wakkas was the most successful. With 12,000 troops he advanced to Kadesia, a city bordering on the deserts of Irak; where having defeated an army of 120,000 Persians he took the rich city of Al Madayen, with Yezdegerd's treasure; which was so rich, that Saad took out of it 3000 millions of dinars, or 2025 millions Sterling; besides the royal plate, the crown and royal garments; another treasure of 10 millions of crowns; and a piece of silk tapestry 60 cubits square, so richly adorned with gold, silver, and jewels, that Omar having cut it in pieces, and distributed it among the Saracens, a small part of it, which fell to Ali's share, sold for 20,000 crowns. In the 21st year of the Hegira, the Saracens, still unsatisfied with conquest, invaded Mesopotamia, under Aiyad Ebn Ganem, where the city of Edessa submitted at the first summons. He next marched to CONSTANTINA, the ancient *Nicephorium*, which he took by storm, as well as DARA, where he massacred the people; which so terrified the rest of the fortified towns, that they all submitted. Mogheirah Ebn Shaabah, another of Omar's generals, took Shiz, a town famed for the birth of ZERDUSHT, the Persian philosopher, and over-ran the province of Adirbeitzan. He also reduced Armenia, and penetrated into Cappadocia. And the same year took Athwas, the capital of Khusistan, or CHUSISTAN, the ancient SUSIANA, and reduced

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ceed the whole province; while Al Nooman quered the greateſt part of Choraſan. But e Omar's troops were thus over-running the countries in the world, a period was put to ife and conqueſts by a Perſian, named *Abu a*, who ſtabbed him thrice in the belly, while orming his devotions at Medina, becauſe O- had refuſed to remit a tribute payable for the ciſe of his religion. The Arabs ruſhed upon aſſaſſin, but before they could get him over- ered he murdered 7 of them. Omar languiſh- days, and died in the 12th year of his reign.

.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, FROM THE DER OF OMAR, TILL THAT OF OTHMAN. r the murder of Omar, Othman Ebn Aſſan choſen khalif; and Ali was ſtill kept out of ight, though he had not only a better title, was in fact the moſt virtuous and beſt charac- and the braveſt warrior of that period. Oth- was inaugurated in the 24th year of the He- or A. D. 645. He began his reign by ſend- l Moghcirah to complete the conqueſt of A- an; which he ſoon accompliſhed, and alſo re- d Bira, a ſtrong fort of Meſopotamia. Ano- army, under Abdallah Ebn Amur, was ſent Perſia to reduce the reſt of Yezdegerd's do- ons; which was done ſo completely that legerd was obliged to fly to Segeſtan, and Perſia altogether. (See PERSIA, § 17.) In 27th year of the Hegira, Moawiyah reduced ſlands of Cyprus and Aradus; and took An- and Rhodes; where he broke in pieces the us coloſſus, (See COLOSSUS, N° 1.) and ſold metal of it to a Jew of Edeſſa. Another of nan's commanders entered Iſauria, where he mitted dreadful depredations, plundering the s and villages, murdering many of the inha- ts, and carrying off 5000 priſoners. In the year of the Hegira, Habib, entering that part rmenia, which was ſtill unconquered, defeated dy of the imperial troops, purſuing them to nt Caucaſus, and laying waſte the country: Abul Abar, the admiral of the Saracens, de- d the emperor Conſtans by ſea, on the coaſt ycia. This battle was ſo bloody that the ſea dyed with blood. But while Othman's arms thus ſucceſsful abroad, a dangerous conſpi- was forming againſt him at home. The ac- ions againſt him were trifling and ſuperſti- . To mention but one—" he had preſumed t on the *top* of Mahomet's pulpit, whereas Becr had only ſat on the *higheſt ſtep*, while ir was content with the *loweſt*." Othman, ever, to all theſe formidable accuſations plead- uilty, and promiſed amendment; but this on- creaſed the inſolence of the rebels. By the ence of Ali, however, tranquillity was appa- y reſtored. But it was ſoon interrupted, by A- a, one of Mahomet's widows, who by a ſcheme llany worthy of the widow of the grand im- or, accompliſhed the deſtruction of the Kha- Wiſhing to raiſe her favourite Telha to the ifate, ſhe prevailed on Merwan, the khalif's tary, to write to the prefect of Egypt, en- ng him to put to death Mahomet Ebn Abu , with whom the letter was ſent, and who to have been his ſucceſſor. This letter Mer- took care ſhould be diſcovered, and Maho- met, taking it for genuine, publiſhed the khalif's cruelty all over theſe countries. He then marched with a body of rebels to Medina, and beſieged the khalif in his palace; and notwithſtanding Oth- man's proteſtations of innocence, nothing but his death could ſatisfy the rebels. Othman applied to Ali for aſſiſtance, who ſent his two ſons Haſſan and Hoſein, who defended the palace with great courage, till water failing, they were obliged to abandon it; upon which the rebels entered and murdered the khalif, in the 82d year of his age, and 12th of his reign. His body remained 3 days unburied, when it was thrown into a hole with- out any ſolemnity.

(5.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF, FROM THE MURDER OF OTHMAN, TILL THAT OF ALI. Maho- met's omiſſion of naming a ſucceſſor to the kha- lifate is totally unaccountable; and, as we have ſeen, threw the dignity out of his family during three ſucceſſive reigns. His ſon-in-law, Ali, re- peatedly claimed the ſucceſſion, and doubtleſs had the beſt right, yet always peaceably ſubmit- ted to the election of other perſons. The Arabs, by their giving the preference to others, ſeem to have been influenced by no motive whatever, but this republican idea, that it ſhould not be eſta- bliſhed as a principle, that the apoſtleſhip or kha- lifate ſhould be reckoned an *hereditary* dignity. On the death of Othman, however, Ali's amiable qualities triumphed over all oppoſition, and he was unanimouſly elected. Beſides his other po- pular qualities, he was a man of ſuch unparalle- led courage and ſtrength, that he never declined a combat to which he was challenged, nor ever failed to come off victor; whence he was ſtiled by the Arabs, *the Lion of God*. Great as Ali's merits were, however, he was not without his e- nemies. Among theſe Mahomet's widow, Ayeſha, was the moſt conſpicuous. At the time of Ali's inauguration, ſhe was at Mecca, where ſhe poſ- ſeſſed a conſiderable ſhare of power. She very early began to plot againſt him, and Ali raiſed up againſt himſelf another very powerful enemy, by imprudently diſmiſſing Moawiyah from his go- vernment of Syria, who, whatever malverſations he was guilty of, ſhould not have been diſplaced till Ali's government was more firmly eſtabliſhed. The conſequence was, that Moawiyah was im- mediately proclaimed khalif by his troops; and thus the Saracens were divided into two factions; the one under Moawiyah and Ayeſha, adhering to the houſe of Ommiya, to which Othman and Moawiyah belonged; the other to Ali. The for- mer were called *Motazalites*, or *Separatiſts*: the latter SEPHALITES. (See MOATAZALITES.) Ali, finding a ſtrong party forming againſt him, appli- ed to the Koreiſh, to raiſe an army againſt Aye- ſha, who had begun hoſtilities and taken the city of Baſra. Ziyad Ebn Hantelah, the Anſars, and a great number of people, joined Ali. At Arra- bah, he was joined by many other parties; from Medina he got a large ſuppiy of horſes, and from Cufa 8000 men. He then advanced to Baſra, at- tacked and defeated the troops of Ayeſha, and took the prophet's widow priſoner, though her troops were ſo zealous in her defence, that 70 men had their hands cut off ſucceſſively, who held her camel by the bridle. Ali, however, treated

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treated her very kindly, and at firſt ſet her at liberty, but afterwards confined her to her houſe at Medina, to prevent her from interfering farther in ſtate affairs. After this victory, Ali had no more enemies to contend with in Arabia, Egypt, Irak, Perſia, or Choraſan. But a ſtrong party of rebels ſtill remained in Syria headed by Moawiyah, who was ſoon joined by Amru Ebn Al Ats. Ali, after in vain attempting to bring the rebels to an accommodation, entered Syria with 50,000 men, while that of Moawiyah amounted to 80,000. By reinforcements the former was increaſed to 90,000, and the latter to 120,000. The armies came within ſight of each other in the end of the 36th year of the Hegira. The 1ſt month of the 37th was ſpent in fruitleſs negociations; after which they fought in different parties, without hazarding a general engagement. Theſe battles laſted about 110 days, during which, Moawiyah loſt 45,000 men, and Ali 25,000. Among theſe was Ali's general of horſe, Ammar Ebn Yaſer, who was above 90 years old, and had been much eſteemed by Mahomet, and was one of his *companions*. The loſs of him ſo enraged Ali, that he challenged Moawiyah to fight him in ſingle combat. This, however, the coward refuſed, though Amru urged him to accept. The battle was then renewed with great fury; Moawiyah's troops were puſhed to their camp, which would certainly have been taken, had not Amru retrieved Moawiyah's affairs when juſt on the brink of deſtruction, by a ſtratagem. He ordered ſome of his men to fix copies of the Koran to the points of their lances, and carry them to the front of the battle, crying out, "This is the book that ought to decide all differences; this is the book of God, that prohibits the effuſion of Muſſulmen's blood." Ali's troops on this threw down their arms, and thus was a deciſive victory wreſted from him, when almoſt gained. The two parties then agreed to chooſe each his arbitrator. Moawiyah choſe Amru, but Ali was again ſhuffled out of his right, the troops of Irak naming for him Abu Muſa, a man who had already betrayed him. The conſequence was, that Ali was depoſed; to which ſentence he ſubmitted, but without laying down his arms. After this Ali retired to Cufa, where 12,000 of his troops, called *Kharejites*, pretending to be offended with the ſtep he had taken, revolted. They inſiſted that he ought not to keep the peace with Moawiyah, but purſue him without mercy. But Ali replied, that as he had given his *word*, he muſt keep it. They then choſe Abdallah Ebn Waheb their general, who appointed for their rendezvous, Naharwan, a town between Waſet and Bagdad, 4 miles E. of the Tigris, where they collected an army of 28,000 men. Ali at laſt marched againſt them, but previouſly proclaimed quarter and pardon to all who ſhould return to his ſtandard. This meaſure ſoon reduced Abdallah's troops to 4000 men, with whom he ruſhed upon Ali's forces, who cut them all to pieces, except 9. Had Ali marched immediately againſt Moawiyah, he had probably reduced him entirely; but he ſeems to have conſidered the agreement as binding, and therefore acted only on the defenſive. At laſt the Kharejites, willing to get rid of Moawiyah, Amru, and Ali, ſent aſſaſſins to murder all the three. Moawiyah was wounded, but recovered; Amru's ſecretary was killed by miſtake; but Ali was wounded with a poiſoned ſword, which proved mortal. The aſſaſſin was taken, and would have been pardoned had Ali recovered; but he ordered him to be put to death, if he died, "that he might *accuſe him before God*." Even in this, however, Ali ſhowed his clemency by ordering him to be killed at one blow, without torture. Thus fell Ali, the moſt virtuous of all the khalifs, after he had reigned near 5 years, and lived 63.

(6.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE DEATH OF MOAWIYAH. Haſſan, the ſon of Ali, who inherited all his father's virtues except his courage, was declared khalif, immediately upon Ali's death. Moawiyah ſoon ſhowed his hoſtile intentions, and Haſſan's friends preſſed him to declare war immediately; but though they prevailed with him to take the field, his diſpoſition was too mild and peaceable; and he himſelf, ſenſible of his incapacity to diſpute the empire with Moawiyah, in ſpite of the remonſtrances of his friends, reſigned it to that villain; who few years after cauſed him to be poiſoned by his own wife. Moawiyah, now ſole maſter of the empire, reſolved to reduce the Kharejites, who were ſtill rebellious. In this ſervice he offered Haſſan the command of the army, but that prince declined it. He then ſent the Syrian troops againſt them, but they were defeated. At laſt the Cufans were employed, who quickly put an end to the rebellion. In the 48th year of the Hegira, the khalif ſent his ſon Yezid, with a powerful army to beſiege Conſtantinople. In this expedition he was accompanied by 3 or 4 of thoſe aſſociates of Mahomet, whom he had dignified with the title of his *Companions*, who, notwithſtanding their great age, were prompted by zeal to undergo incredible fatigues. But in ſpite of the zeal of theſe veterans, the expedition proved unſucceſsful; and in it, one of them, viz. *Abu Ayub*, who had been with Mahomet at the battles of Bedr and Ohud, loſt his life. His tomb is ſtill held in the higheſt veneration by all Muſſulmen. In the 54th year of the Hegira, the Saracens made an irruption into Bukharia, and defeated a Turkiſh army, killing great numbers of them. About this time, a treaty was concluded between the emp. Conſtantine IV. and the Saracens, whereby the latter were allowed to keep the territories they had ſeized, but bound to pay 3000 lb. weight of gold annually, 50 ſlaves and 50 good horſes. This treaty was to laſt 30 years. In the 55th year of the Hegira Moawiyah conferred the government of Choraſan upon Saad, Othman's grandſon, who, ſoon after, paſſed the JIHUN, or *Amu*, (the ancient Oxus) and advanced with a body of troops to Samarcand, which inſtantly ſurrendered to him; ſoon after which he defeated an army of Uſbeck Tartars, and marched directly to Tarmud, which alſo ſurrendered. The 57th year of the hegira was remarkable for nothing but vaſt ſwarms of locuſts which did incredible damage in Syria and Meſopotamia. In the 58th Ayeſha Mahomet's wife died, and in the 60th Moawiyah himſelf, after having reigned from Haſſan's reſignation 19 years

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years 3 months and 5 days. He was interred at Damaſcus.

(7.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, TILL THE DEATH OF YEZID. On Moawiyah's death, his ſon Yezid was immediately proclaimed, April 7th, 680. He wrote to Al Walid, the governor of Medina, to ſeize Hoſein the remaining ſon of Ali, and Abdullah Ebn Zobeir, if they refuſed to acknowledge his right; but they eſcaped to Mecca; on which Jezid diſplaced Al Walid, and appointed Amru Ebn Saad governor in his ſtead. Amru immediately ſent againſt Abdallah his own brother Amer, who mortally hated him; but Abdallah engaged and took him priſoner, which raiſed his fame at Medina. Mean time Hoſein, as the only heir of Ali, became very popular at Mecca, Medina, Irak, and Cufa: and the Cufans even raiſed an army of 18,000 men in his favour; and promiſed to raiſe 120,000 more; but all Hoſein's hopes were ſoon fruſtrated and himſelf killed, in an engagement with Obeidallah. Yezid did himſelf honour by treating Hoſein's family with kindneſs. In the 61ſt year of the Hegira, Yezid appointed Salem Ebn Ziyad governor of Choraſan, who ſoon after made an irruption into the Turkiſh territories. He ſent a body of troops to Khowarazm, the capital of the Tartars, from which he extorted 50 millions of money: whence advancing to Samarcand, he compelled the people of that city alſo to pay him an immenſe ſum. Mean time Abdallah Ebn Zobeir, being, by the death of Hoſein, at the head of the houſe of Hathem, began to aſpire to the khalifat, and was proclaimed khalif at Medina, on the arrival of Hoſein's family. He then expatiated on Hoſein's tragical death, and accuſed the Cufans of being the moſt perfidious villains on earth. This pleaſed the citizens of Mecca and Medina, who flocked to him in crowds; ſo that he ſoon had a great army. Yezid, hearing of all this, ſwore he would have him in chains, and ſent a ſilver collar for him to Merwan, governor of Medina. At laſt the people of Medina renounced their allegiance to Yezid and formally depoſed him in a whimſical, but expreſſive manner, throwing aſide their turbans, ſhoes, &c. and ſaying, "I lay aſide Yezid as I do this turban, or ſhoe," &c. They then baniſhed Yezid's governor, and all his friends; who, to the number of 1000 took refuge in the houſe of Merwan Ebn Al Haken, where, being beſieged by Abdallah's party, they ſent to Yezid for aſſiſtance, who detached a body of troops under Moſlem Ebn Okba to Medina for that purpoſe. The people of Medina, on this, allowed Yezid's friends to withdraw; but Moſlem advanced at the head of 5,000 foot and 12,000 horſe, and ſummoned the town to ſurrender; which being refuſed, the garriſon made a vigorous defence, but the principal officers being killed, the city was taken by ſtorm; all the men who had born arms were maſſacred, the women raviſhed, and the city pillaged. Ali alone, the ſon of Hoſein was treated with reſpect. By this ſeverity Moſlem incurred the anathema pronounced by Mahomet againſt thoſe who ſhould pillage Medina. After this Moſlem proceeded to Mecca, where Abdallah had retired, but he died by the road; and the command devolved upon Hoſein Ebn Thamir, who advanced to Mecca and beſieged it 40 days, battering it with ſuch fury, that he beat down its famous temple; and it muſt ſoon have ſhared the fate of Medina, had not the news of Yezid's death ſtopt farther operations. Yezid died in his 39th year, the 62d of the Hegira, or A. D. 684, having reigned only 3 years and 8 months.

(8.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF MERWAN. Yezid was ſucceeded by his ſon Moawiyah II. who was proclaimed khalif at Damaſcus on his father's death; but being of a weak conſtitution, he reſigned the crown in 6 weeks, and died ſoon after. Great commotions followed. Obeidallah was become ſo unpopular by his cruelties, particularly by the death of Hoſein, that he was obliged to fly into Syria; on which his houſe was plundered by the mob. In this confuſion Abdallah might have eaſily ſecured the khalifat, had he not with equal imprudence and cruelty ordered the houſe of Ommiyah to be exterminated. This ruined his affairs, for they being obliged to fly for ſafety, Merwan was proclaimed khalif at Damaſcus, and thus the Saracen empire was once more rent into two factions. A battle ſoon enſued between Dahak Ebn Kais, who favoured Abdallah, and the troops of Merwan, in which Dahak was defeated and killed, and thus Merwan became maſter of Syria. Soon after he advanced with a body of troops to Egypt; but ſent before him Amru Ebn Said with a detachment, who defeated Abdalrahmah, Abdallah's lieutenant, in ſeveral briſk actions, till he at laſt ſurrendered the whole country to Merwan, for a ſum of money, and retired to Hedsjaz. The Syrian troops immediately took poſſeſſion of the country; and Merwan, having appointed his ſon Abdalazziz over Egypt, returned to Damaſcus. He then ſent Amru Ebn Said againſt Muſab, Abdallah's brother, whom he totally defeated. In the 65th year of the Hegira, the Cufans, pretending remorſe for their treachery to Hoſein, raiſed an inſurrection againſt both khalifs, and aſſembled 16,000 men under Soleman to avenge the death of Hoſein. Al Mockhtar, who had ſerved under Abdallah, offered to ſerve inſtead of Soliman, who he ſaid was incapable of executing the enterpriſe. This being refuſed, he drew off 2000 from Soliman, while other 10,000 left him. So enthuſiaſtic, however, was Soliman in the affair, that he ſet forward to Syria with the remaining 4000, who were all cut to pieces by Obeidallah, who was at the head of 20,000. Soon after this died the khalif Merwan, after a ſhort reign of 11 months, being poiſoned by Zeinab, Moawiyah's widow, whom he had married.

(9.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE DEATH OF ABDALMALEC. Merwan was ſucceeded by his ſon Abdalmalec, who releaſed Al Mokhtar, who had been impriſoned by the governor of Cufa. Al Mokhtar, ſoon after hearing that Abdallah had impriſoned the whole deſcendants of the celebrated khalif Ali, and was going to put them to death, ſent a body of 750 horſe to Mecca, under Abu Abdalla, for their relief, which he accompliſhed, and took Abdallah himſelf priſoner, two days before they were all to have been murdered. After this they ſettled on a mountain near Mecca with a body of 4000 men. Al Mokh-

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ter next attacked and killed Obeidallah; but was ſoon after defeated and ſlain by Muſab, and all his men to the number of 7000, though they ſurrendered at diſcretion, were alſo ſlain, for their former outrages. Next year, the 68th of the Hegira, the Azarakites made an irruption into Irak, penetrating to Cufa and Al Madayen, and committing the moſt horrid cruelties, murdering all they met with, and ſparing neither age nor ſex. The governor of Meſopotamia carried on a war with them for 8 months. Muſab ſent againſt them Omar Ebn Abdallah, who gave them a great overthrow, ſlaughtered great numbers of them, and purſued the reſt as far as Iſpahan and Kerman. Returning a 2d time Omar totally defeated and diſperſed them. In the 66th year of the Hegira, Abdalmalec marched againſt Muſab. In his abſence he left Amru Eba Said governor of the city, who immediately ſeized it for himſelf; on which Abdalmalec returned. After ſome ſkirmiſhes between the khalif's troops and thoſe of Amru, a treaty was agreed upon; which Abdalmalec broke immediately after, by murdering Amru with his own hand. Upon this Yahyah, Amru's brother, at the head of 1000 ſlaves, attacked the palace and killed the guards, but were quelled afterwards, partly by money. In the 70th year of the Hegira, the Greeks made an irruption into Syria; and the khalif was obliged to pay a tribute of 1000 dinars per day, and ſend annually 365 ſlaves and 365 horſes to Conſtantinople. The revenues of Cyprus, Armenia and Heria, were agreed to be divided. Abdalmalec next marched againſt Muſab, whom he defeated and killed thro' the treachery of his troops. The khalif went to Cufa, where all ranks ſubmitted and ſwore to him. He then ordered money to be diſtributed among the people, and gave a ſplendid entertainment to all his new ſubjects, from which even the meaneſt were not excluded. During this entertainment Muſab's head was preſented to the Khalif; on which one of the company ſaid, "I ſaw Hoſein's head in this ſame caſtle preſented to Obeidallah; Obeidallah's to Al Mokhtar; Al Mokhtar's to Muſab, and now at laſt Muſab's to yourſelf." The khalif was ſo ſtruck with this remark, that, to avert the ill omen, he ordered the caſtle to be inſtantly demoliſhed. Abdallah Ebn Zobeir, hearing of the defeat and death of his brother, put Mecca in a proper ſtate of defence. Abdalmalec, on his return from Damaſcus, appointed his brother Bithar governor of Cufa, and Khaled Ebn Abdallah, governor of Baſra; who imprudently diſplaced Al Mohalleb, one of the greateſt generals of the age from the command of the army; and put in his place Abdalaziz, a man much inferior. The barbarous Azarakites no ſooner heard of this, than they attacked Abdalaziz, entirely defeated, and took his wife priſoner. A diſpute ariſing among them about the price of the lady, they reſolved to end it, cut off her head. On this Khaled was ordered to replace Al Mohalleb, which he no ſooner did, than they in conjunction attacked the Azarakites, forced their camp and completely defeated them. In the 72d year of the Hegira, Abdalmalec prepared to invade Hedjaz, and appointed Al Hejaj, one of his ſeveral generals, commander. After ſeveral ſkirmiſhes, wherein Abdallah's troops had the worſt, moſt of Abdallah's friends, two of his ſons, and 30,000 inhabitants of Mecca, deſerted him. In this extremity he conſulted with his mother, whether he ſhould ſubmit to the khalif, or no; but ſhe, being a high-ſpirited woman, the daughter of Abu Bacr, the 2d khalif, adviſed him againſt it; whereupon, in a fit of deſpair, he purſued into the midſt of his enemies, without his uſual coat of mail, and after ſlaughtering great numbers of them, was killed. Al Hejaj cut off his head and fixed his body to a creſs; which had a ſtrong odour of muſk for ſeveral days after, his mother having given him a draught in which a pound of muſk was infuſed, to inſpire him with courage. By the reduction of Mecca, Abdalmalec was now ſole maſter of the empire, but it ſuffered a great loſs the next year, having an army of 100,000 men cut off by the Khazarians in Armenia. The governor, however, marched againſt them ſoon after at the head of 40,000 choſen troops, penetrated into the heart of Armenia, defeated a large body of them, and drove them into their temples to which he ſet fire. One of his generals alſo defeated 80,000 Khazarians at the Caſpian gates, killed a great number of them, and compelled the reſt to turn Mahometans. Al Hejaj, for his ſervices, was made governor of Medina, and then of Irak, Choraſan, and Sejeſtan, in all which places he behaved with the greateſt cruelty, and yet he was continued in their governments till he died. In the 76th year of the Hegira, Saleh Ebn Marj, and Shebib Eba Zed, a Kharejite, rebelled againſt the khalif. Saleh proclaimed emperor of the faithful at Dara in Meſopotamia. At firſt they were ſucceſsful, and defeated even Al Hejaj himſelf; but at laſt were defeated and killed, and their troops ſlaughtered and diſperſed. In the 76th year of the Hegira, Abdalmalec erected the *firſt mint* in Arabia, and ſtruck gold and ſilver coins. Before this period their dinars or gold coins had Greek inſcriptions, and their dirhems or ſilver coins Perſian. The khalif now ſtruck dirhems with the Arabic words *zilla Samad*, i. e. *God is eternal*, upon them; which offended ſome ſuperſtitious Muſſulmans, who thought the name of God would be profaned by the *touch* of the *unclean*. In the 77th year of the Hegira, the Saracens made an incurſion into the imperial territories, when *Leontius* and *Bernicium* was betrayed to them. In the 78th they over-ran Africa Proper, and demoliſhed the city of CARTHAGE. They were driven out by John the Patrician, but returning with a ſuperior force they made John fly to Conſtantinople. In the year 79, Abdalrahman rebelled in Perſia, and drove the Khakan or emperor of the Turks, Tartars and Moguls, out of that country; but in 80, Heraclius the Greek general, penetrated into Syria, as far as Samoſata, killed 200,000 Saracens, and ravaged the country dreadfully. At laſt, after about 80 battles, or as others ſay, 100, Abdalrahman was defeated and killed by Al Hejaj. In the 83d year of the Hegira, the Armenian nobility revolting drove the Arabs out of that province; but Mahomet, a general of the khalif's, entering it with a powerful army, got the heads of the revolt into his hands, and cauſed them to be

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be burnt alive. The Saracens then invaded Cilicia, under one Azar; but were, to the number of 10,000 the one year and 12,000 the next, cut in pieces by Heraclius, and the reſt forced to fly. In the year 86, Abdalmalec died, after a reign of 21 years.

(10.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE DEATH OF AL WALID. Abdalmalec was ſucceeded by his ſon Al Walid, who greatly extended the Saracen empire. In the firſt year of his reign, one of his generals paſſed the Jihun, and defeated a numerous army of Turks and Tartars. He then over-ran and reduced Sogdiana, Bagrafs, Shaſh, Fargana, and the whole immenſe tract, called MAWARALNAHAR, or GREAT BUKHARIA. He alſo conquered the khan of Khowarazm, and forced him to pay an annual tribute of two millions of dinars. Another of his generals, called *Maomet*, made an irruption into India, and conquered a great part of that country. He alſo ſubdued the kingdom of Al Sind, between Perſia and India; when Derar, the king of it, was defeated and killed, and had his head cut off by Mahomet. In the 90th year of the Hegira, the Saracens made an irruption into Cappadocia, defeated the imperial army, and took the city of TYANA. In the following years, they repeated their incurſions under Othman, took ſeveral cities, and carried off numbers of ſlaves. In the year 93, or A. D. 712. Tarek Ebn Zarka, made a deſcent on Spain, defeated Roderic, the laſt king of the Goths, reduced Toledo, and over-ran a great part of the kingdom. Being joined by Muſa, commander of the African Moſlems, they took moſt of the forts and ſubdued the whole country. In theſe expeditions they acquired immenſe ſpoils, particularly a very rich table, called *Solomon's table*, of gold, ſilver and pearls, and ſtanding on 365 feet. In 94, Tarick landed a body of 12,000 men at Gibraltar, with which he plundered Hiſpania Bætica and great part of Luſitania. Roderic's troops being new raiſed were unable to reſiſt theſe hardy invaders. Another Saracen general entered Piſidia, ravaged the country, and took Antioch. In the year 95, Hejaj died, after a cruel government of 20 years; during which period he killed 120,000 men, and ſuffered 50,000 men and 30,000 women to periſh in priſons. This year alſo, the Saracens completely defeated Roderic king of the Goths, who was killed in the battle; and Tarif amaſſed immenſe riches. In the Eaſt, theſe plunderers were equally ſucceſsful. Moſlema ravaged the whole province of Galatia, carrying off rich ſpoils, and many priſoners. But while Al Walid was preparing to invade Conſtantinople, he died in the 96th year of the Hegira.

(11.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE DEATH OF AL WALID II. The khalif Al Walid was ſucceeded by his brother Soliman. This year the Saracen conqueſts on the E. ſide were increaſed by the reduction of Tabreſtan and Jurgan or Georgia. Spain alſo, the city of Toledo, which had revolted was reduced, and Cæſar-Auguſta, now Sagoſſa, as well as ſeveral others. The next year Moſlema ſet out for Conſtantinople, which he besieged without ſucceſs till the 99th year of the Hegira; when he was obliged to return, after having loſt before it 120,000 men. The ſoldiers were reduced to the greateſt extremities of hunger, being forced to live upon hides, the roots and bark of trees, the moſt noiſome animals, and even the dead bodies of their companions. This year alſo (the 99th) the khalif Soliman died. According to ſome, he was poiſoned by Yezid his brother, governor of Perſia, who was diſpleaſed with his having appointed his couſin-german Omar Ebn Abdalaziz as his ſucceſſor, to the excluſion of himſelf. According to others, he died of an indigeſtion; which is not to be wondered at, if, as thoſe authors ſay, he uſed to devour 100 pounds weight of meat every day, and dine very heartily after eating three lambs roaſted for breakfaſt. In the latter part of his reign, the Moors were by no means ſucceſsful in Spain; the kingdom of Navarre being founded at this time by Pelagius, or Pelayo, whom the Arabs were never able to reduce. The new khalif Omar Ebn Abdalaziz was by no means of a martial character; but is ſaid to have been very pious, and poſſeſſed of very amiable qualities. He ſuppreſſed the uſual malediction, which was ſolemnly pronounced by the khalifs of the houſe of Ommiyah againſt the houſe of Ali; and always ſhowed great kindneſs to the latter. He was poiſoned by Yezid, after a ſhort reign of 2 years and 5 months. Concerning Yezid II. the ſucceſſor of Omar we find very little worth mentioning. He did not long enjoy the dignity he had ſo iniquitouſly purchaſed, dying after a reign of about 4 years. He died of grief for a favourite concubine named *Hababah*, who was accidentally choked by a large grape which ſtuck in her throat. Yezid was ſucceeded by his brother Heſham, who aſcended the throne in the 105th year of the Hegira. In the 2d and 3d year of his reign, ſeveral incurſions were made into the imperial territories, but generally without ſucceſs. In the 109th year Moſlema drove the Turks out of Armenia and Adirbeitzan, and again confined them within the Caſpian gates. The next year he obliged them to take an oath that they would keep their own country; but this they ſoon violated, and were again driven back by Moſlema. About this time alſo the Arabs, having paſſed the Pyrenees, invaded France to the number of 400,000, including women and ſlaves, under the command of one Abdalrahman. Having advanced to Arles upon the Rhone, they defeated a large body of French that oppoſed them; and having alſo defeated Count Eudo, they purſued him thro' ſeveral provinces, waſted the country with fire and ſword, and took the city of Tours, moſt of which they reduced to aſhes. Here, however, a ſtop was put to their devaſtations by Charles Martel; who, coming up with them near Tours, engaged them for 7 days together, and at laſt gave them a total overthrow. He took all their baggage and riches; and Abdalrahman, with the ſhattered remains of his army, reached the frontiers of Spain with difficulty. The following year alſo, the Arabs were overthrown at Illiberis, ſcarce any of them eſcaping. To make amends for this bad fortune, however, the khalif's arms were ſucceſsful againſt the Turks, who had again invaded ſome of the eaſtern provinces. In the 125th year

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of the Hegira died the khalif Hesham, after a reign of 19 years 7 months and 11 days. He was succeeded by Al Walid II. who is represented as a man of a most dissolute life, and was assassinated the following year on account of his professing ZENDICISM, a species of infidelity nearly resembling Sadducism.

(12.) SARACENIC HISTORY OF THE, TO THE DEATH OF MERWAN II. Al Walid II. was succeeded by Yezid III. the son of Al Walid I. who died of the plague after a reign of six months; and was succeeded by Ibrahim Ebn Al Walid, an imprudent and timid prince. He was deposed in the 129th year of the Hegira by Merwan Ebn Mahomet, the governor of Mesopotamia; who gave out as an excuse for his revolt, that he intended to revenge the murder of the khalif Al Walid II. He was no sooner seated on the throne, than the people of Hems rebelled against him. Against them the khalif marched with a powerful army, and summoned them to surrender. They assured him that they would admit him into their city; and, accordingly, one of the gates being opened, Merwan entered with about 500 of his troops. The men that entered with him were immediately put to the sword; and the khalif himself escaped with great difficulty. However, he afterwards defeated them in a pitched battle, put a great number of them to the sword, dismantled the city, and crucified one of the principal authors of the revolt. The inhabitants of Damascus soon followed the example of those of Hems, and deposed the khalif's governor; but Merwan marched to Damascus with great celerity, entered the city by force, and punished the authors of the revolt. Peace, however, was no sooner established at Damascus, than Soliman Ebn Hesham set up for himself at Basra, where he was proclaimed khalif by the inhabitants. Here he assembled an army of 18,000 men, with whom he marched to Kinnesrin, where he was joined by vast numbers of Syrians. Merwan, receiving advice of Soliman's rapid progress, marched against him with all the forces he could assemble, and entirely defeated him. In this battle Soliman lost 70,000 men, so that he was obliged to fly to Hems, where 900 men took an oath to stand by him to the last. Having ventured, however, to attack the khalif's forces a second time, he was defeated, and again forced to fly to Hems. But being closely pursued by Merwan, he constituted his brother Said governor of the city, leaving with him the shattered remains of his troops, and himself fled to Palmyra. Soon after his departure Merwan appeared before the town, which he besieged for 7 months; during which time he battered it incessantly with 80 catapults. The citizens being reduced to the last extremity, surrendered, and delivered Said into the khalif's hands. In consideration of this submission, Merwan pardoned the rebels, and took them all under his protection. About the same time, another pretender to the khalifat appears at Cufa; but Merwan took his measures so well, that he extinguished this rebellion before it could come to any height. Notwithstanding the success, however, that had hitherto attended Merwan, a strong party was formed against him in Khorasan by the house of Al Abbas. The first of that house that made a considerable figure was named *Mahomet*, who flourished in the reign of Omar Ebn Abdalaziz. He was appointed chief of the house of Al Abbas about the 100th year of the Hegira; and is said to have prophesied, that after his death, one of his sons named *Ibrahim* should preside over them till he was killed, and that his other son Abdallah, surnamed *Abul Abbas Al Saffah*, should be khalif, and exterminate the house of Omeya. Upon this Al Saffah was introduced as the next sovereign, and those present kissed his hands and feet. After the decease of Mahomet, Ibrahim nominated as his representative in Khorasan one Abu Moslem, a youth of 19 years of age; who beginning to raise forces in that province, Merwan dispatched against him a body of troops under Nasr Ebn Sayer: but that general was entirely defeated by Abu Moslem, and the greatest part of his men killed. The next year (the 128th of the Hegira) Merwan made vast preparations to oppose Abu Moslem, who after the late victory began to grow formidable. Merwan gained two victories over some of Ibrahim's generals: but the year following, Abu Moslem brought such a formidable army into the field, that the khalif's troops could not make head against them. His officers in Khorasan therefore were obliged either to take an oath of allegiance to Ibrahim, or to quit the province within a limited time. In the 130th year of the Hegira, the khalif's general Nasr having drawn together another army, was again defeated by Kahtaba, another of Ibrahim's generals, and forced to fly to Raya, a town of Dylam, or of Khorasan. The next year Ibrahim having foolishly taken it into his head to go on pilgrimage to Mecca, attended by a numerous retinue splendidly accoutred, was seized and put to death by Merwan; and the year following Abul Abbas was proclaimed khalif at Cufa. Almost as the ceremony was ended, he sent his uncle Abdallah with a powerful army to attack Merwan's forces that were encamped near Tubar, at a small distance from Mosul, where that khalif was then waiting for an account of the success of his troops under Yezid governor of Irak against Kahtaba, one of Al Saffah's generals. Kahtaba receiving advice of Yezid's approach, immediately advanced against him, and entirely defeated him; but in crossing the Euphrates, the waters of which were greatly swelled, he was carried away by the current and drowned. The pursuit, however, was continued by his son Hamid, who dispersed the fugitives in such a manner that they could never afterwards be rallied. At the news of the defeat, Merwan was at first greatly disheartened, but soon recovering himself, he advanced to meet Abdallah. In the beginning of the battle the khalif happened to dismount; and his troops perceiving their sovereign's horse without his rider, concluded that he was killed, and therefore immediately fled; nor was it in the power of the khalif himself to rally them again, so that he was forced to fly to Damascus: but the inhabitants of that city, seeing his condition desperate, shut the gates against him. Upon this he fled to Emesa, where he maintained himself for some time; but was at last attacked and killed by Saleh, Abdallah's

brother, in a town of Thebais called *Bufir*
s. The citizens of Damascus, though they
namefully deserted Merwan, refused to open
gates to the victors; upon which Saleh en-
the city by force, and gave it up to be plun-
for three days by his soldiers.

) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, TO THE
VAL OF THE SEAT OF EMPIRE TO BAG-
By the total defeat and death of Merwan,
ffah remained sole master of the Saracen
e: but no very remarkable events happened
g his reign: only he massacred great num-
f the partisans of the house of Ommiyah;
Constantine Copronymus, taking advan-
f the intestine divisions among the Saracens,
d Syria. The khalif died of the small pox
136th year of the Hegira, in the 33d year
age; and was succeeded by his brother Al
r. In the beginning of Al Mansur's reign,
ies continued against the house of Ommi-
who still made resistance, but were always
ed. Abdallah, however, the khalif's uncle,
himself to be proclaimed khalif at Damas-
and having assembled a powerful army in
a, Syria, and Mesopotamia, advanced with
expedition to the banks of the Masius near
s, where he encamped. Al Mansur, being
ed of this rebellion, dispatched Abu Mo-
gainst Abdallah. This general, having ha-
him for five months together, at last brought
a general action; and having entirely de-
him, forced him to fly to Basra. Notwith-
ng all his services, however, Abu Moslem
on after ungratefully and barbarously mur-
by Al Mansur, on some ridiculous pre ten-
being deficient in respect towards him. Af-
death of Abu Moslem, one Sinan, a Ma-
or adorer of fire, having made himself mas-
that general's treasures, revolted against
alif; but he was soon defeated by Jamhur
Khorasan, who had been sent against him with
verful army. In this expedition Jamhur
acquired immense riches, the covetous
ition of the khalif prompted him to send a
express to the army to seize upon all the
. This so provoked Jamhur, that he im-
ely turned his arms against his master;
as soon defeated, and entirely reduced. The
ing year (the 139th of the Hegira), one Ab-
man, of the house of Ommiyah, after the
ruin of that family in Asia, arrived in Spain,
he was acknowledged khalif; nor did he
descendants ever afterwards own subjection
Arabian khalifs. The 140th year of the
is remarkable for an attempt to assassinate
alif. This attempt was made by the Ra-
ans; an impious sect, who held the doctrine
tempsychosis or transmigration.—They first
d Al Mansur divine honours, by going in
ion round his palace, as the Moslems were
to do round the Caab; but the khalif, high-
ensed at this impiety, ordered 100 of the
pal of them to be imprisoned. These how-
were soon released by their companions;
hen went in a body to the palace with an
ion to murder their sovereign: but he being
on of uncommon bravery, though he was
ded with very few attendants, mounted a
mule, and advanced towards the mutineers with
an intention to sell his life as dear as possible. In
the mean time, Maan Ebn Zaidat, one of the
chiefs of the Ommiyan faction, who had con-
cealed himself to avoid the khalif's resentment,
sallied out of his retreat, and putting himself at
the head of Al Mansur's attendants, charged the
rebels with such fury, that he entirely defeated
them. This generosity of Maan was so remarka-
ble, that it afterwards passed into a proverb. On
this occasion 6000 of the Rawandians were killed
on the spot, and the khalif delivered from instant
death: he was, however, so much disgusted with
the Arabs on account of this attempt, that he re-
solved to remove the capital of his empire out of
their peninsula; and accordingly founded a new
city on the banks of the Tigris, named BAGDAD.
The foundations of it were laid in the 145th year
of the Hegira, and finished four years after. On
the removal of the seat of government to Bagdad,
the peninsula of the Arabs seems all at once to
have lost its consequence, and in a short time the
inhabitants seem even to have detached themselves
from the jurisdiction of the khalifs: for in the
156th year of the Hegira, while Al Mansur was
yet living, they made irruptions into Syria and
Mesopotamia, as if they had designed to conquer
these countries over again for themselves; and
though the Arabs, properly so called, continued
nominally subject to the khalifs of Bagdad till the
abolition of the khalifat by Hulaku the Tartar,
yet they did not become subject to him when he
became master of that city.

(14.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, UNTO THE
DEATH OF AL MOHDI. From the building of the
city of Bagdad to the death of Al Mansur nothing
very remarkable happened, excepting some irrup-
tions made into the territories of the Greeks, and
by the Arabs into some of the khalif's other terri-
tories. In the 157th year of the Hegira also, a
grievous famine was felt in Mesopotamia, which
was quickly after followed by a plague that de-
stroyed great numbers. This year likewise, the
Christians, who had been all along very severely
dealt with by Al Mansur, were treated with the
utmost rigour by Musa Ebn Mosaab the khalif's
governor; every one who was unable to pay the
enormous tribute exacted of them being thrown
into prison. In the year 158th of the Hegira, the
khalif set out from Bagdad, to perform the pil-
grimage to Mecca: but, being taken ill on the
road, he expired at Bir Maimun, whence his body
was carried to Mecca; where, after 100 graves
had been dug, that his sepulchre might be con-
cealed, he was interred, having lived, according
to some 63, according to others 68 years, and
reigned 22. He was extremely covetous, and left
in his treasury 600,000,000 dirhems, and 24,000,000
dinars. He is reported to have paid his cook by
assigning him the heads and legs of the animals
dressed in his kitchen, and to have obliged him to
procure at his own expence all the fuel and vessels
he had occasion for. When Al Mansur expired at
Bir Maimun, he had only his domestics and Rabi
his freed man with him. The latter, for some time,
kept his death concealed, and pretended to have
a conference with him; in which, as he gave out,
the khalif commanded him to exact an oath of al-
legiance

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legiance to Al Mohdi his ſon, as his immediate ſucceſſor, and to Iſa Ebn Muſa his couſin german, as the next apparent heir to the crown. He then diſpatched a courier to Bagdad with the news of Al Manſur's death; upon which Al Mohdi was unanimouſly proclaimed khalif. Iſa Ebn Muſa, however, no ſooner heard this news, than he began to entertain thoughts of ſetting up for himſelf at Cufa, where he then reſided; and to facilitate the execution of his ſcheme, fortified himſelf in that city. But Al Mohdi being apprized of his defection, ſent a detachment of 1000 horſe to bring him to Bagdad; which being done, Al Mohdi not only prevailed upon him to own his allegiance to him, but alſo to give up his right to the ſucceſſion for 10,000 according to ſome, or according to others for 10,000,000 dinars. From the acceſſion of Al Mohdi to the 164th year of the Hegira, the moſt remarkable event was the rebellion of Al Mokanna. This impious impoſtor, whoſe true name was *Hakem Ebn Hecham*, came originally from Khoraſan, and had been an under ſecretary to Abu Moſlem governor of that province. He afterwards turned ſoldier, and paſſed from the province of Khoraſan into that of Mawaralnahr, where he gave himſelf out for a prophet. The name of Al Mokanna, as alſo that of Al Borkai, that is, the *veiled*, he took from his cuſtom of covering his face with a veil or girdle maſk, to conceal his deformity; he having loſt an eye in the wars, and being otherwiſe of a deſpicable appearance. In ſome places he made many proſelytes, deluding the people with a number of juggling tricks which they ſwallowed as miracles, and particularly by causing the appearance of a moon to riſe out of a well for many nights together; whence he was alſo called in the Perſian tongue, *Sazendeh mah*, or the *moon maker*. This wretch, not content with being reckoned a prophet, arrogated to himſelf divine honours; pretending that the Deity reſided in his perſon. At laſt this impoſtor raiſed an open rebellion againſt the khalif, and made himſelf maſter of ſeveral fortified places in Khoraſan, ſo that Al Mohdi was obliged to ſend one of his generals with an army againſt him. Upon the approach of the khalif's troops, Al Mokanna retired into one of his ſtrong fortreſſes which he had well provided for a ſiege; and ſent his emiſſaries abroad to perſuade the people that he raiſed the dead to life, and foretold future events. But being cloſely beſieged by the khalif's forces, and ſeeing no poſſibility of eſcaping, he gave poiſon in wine to his whole family, and burnt their bodies, with all their furniture, proviſions, and cattle; and laſtly, he threw himſelf into the flames, or, as others ſay, into a tub of aquafortis, or ſome other preparation, which conſumed every part of him except the hair. When the beſiegers therefore entered the place, they found no living creature in it, except one of Al Mokanna's concubines, who, ſuſpecting his deſign, had hid herſelf, and now diſcovered the whole. This terrible contrivance, however, produced the deſired effect. He had promiſed his followers, that his ſoul ſhould tranſmigrate into the form of an old man riding on a greyiſh coloured beaſt, and that after ſo many years he would return and give them the earth for their poſſeſſion; which ridiculous expectation kept the ſect in being for ſeveral years. All this war had been carried on with the Greeks without any remarkable ſucceſs on either ſide. In the 164th year of the Hegira, however, Al Mohdi ordered his ſon Harun Alraſchid to penetrate into the Greek territories with an army of 95,000 men. Harun, then, having entered the dominions of the empreſs Irene, defeated one of her commanders that advanced againſt him; after which he laid waſte ſeveral of the imperial provinces with fire and ſword, and even threatened Conſtantinople itſelf. By this the empreſs was ſo terrified, that ſhe purchaſed a peace with the khalif by paying him an annual tribute of 70,000 pieces of gold, which delivered her from the depredations of the barbarians. After the ſigning of the treaty, Harun returned home laden with ſpoils and glory. In the 169th year of the Hegira, Al Mohdi was poiſoned, though undeſignedly, by one of his concubines, named *Hoſanah*. She had deſigned to deſtroy one of her rivals whom ſhe imagined to have too great an aſcendant over the khalif, by giving her a poiſoned pear. This the latter, not ſuſpecting any thing, gave to the khalif; who had no ſooner eaten it than he felt himſelf in an exquiſite torture, and ſoon after expired.

(15.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, UNTO THE DEATH OF HAROUN ALRASCHID. On the death of Al Mohdi, he was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Al Hadi; who having formed a deſign to deprive his younger brother Haroun Alraſchid of his right of ſucceſſion, and even to aſſaſſinate him, was prevented by his vizier in the 170th year of the Hegira; and on his death the celebrated khalif Haroun Alraſchid aſcended the throne. This was the beſt and wiſeſt prince that ever ſat on the throne of Bagdad. He was alſo extremely fortunate in all his undertakings, though he did not much extend his dominions by conqueſt. In his time the Saracen empire may be ſaid to have been in its moſt flouriſhing ſtate, tho', by the independency of the Saracens in Spain, who had formerly ſet up the khalif of the houſe of Ommiyah, his territories were not quite ſo extenſive as thoſe of ſome of his predeceſſors. (See BAGDAD.) The firſt inſtance of Harun's good fortune, and which was taken for a preſage of a proſperous and happy reign, was his finding a valuable ring which he had thrown into the Tigris to avoid being deprived of it by his brother Al Hadi. He was able to give the divers no other direction than by throwing a ſtone from the bridge of Bagdad, about the ſame place of the river in which he had thrown the ring; notwithſtanding which, they found it without any great difficulty. In the 186th year of the Hegira, or A. D. 802, the khalif divided the government of his extenſive dominions among his 3 ſons: to Al Amin the eldeſt, he aſſigned Syria, Irak, the three Arabias, Meſopotamia, Aſſyria, Media, Paleſtine, Egypt, and all that part of Africa extending from the confines of Egypt and Ethiopia to the ſtraits of Gibraltar, with the dignity of khalif; to Al Mamun the ſecond, he aſſigned Perſia, Kerman, the Indies, Khoraſan, Tabreſtan, Cabeſtan and Zableſtan, with the vaſt province of Mawaralnahr; and to his third ſon, Al Kaſem, he gave Armenia, Natolia, Jorjan, Georgia, Circaſſia, and all the Saracen territories bordering upon the

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Euxine ſea. Al Amin was to aſcend the
ne immediately after his father's deceaſe; af-
im, Al Mamun; and then Al Kaſem, whom
ad ſurnamed *Al Mutaman*. The moſt con-
able exploits performed by this khalif were a-
t the Greeks, who by their perfidy provoked
o make war upon them, and whom he always
ame. In the 187th year of the Hegira, the
f received a letter from the Greek emperor
phorus, ſoon after he had been advanced to
mperial dignity, commanding him to return
ne money he had extorted from the empreſs
, though that had been ſecured to him by
aſt treaty concluded with that princeſs, or
t ſoon to ſee an imperial army in the heart
s territories. This inſolent letter ſo exaſpe-
Harun, that he immediately aſſembled his
and advanced to Heraclea, laying the coun-
hrough which he paſſed, waſte with fire and
l. For ſome time alſo he kept that city
ly beſieged; which ſo terrified the Greek
ror, that he ſubmitted to pay an annual tri-

Upon this Harun granted him a peace,
h he broke ſoon after, but Harun compelled
o renew it; and then returned with his army.
188th year of the Hegira, war was renewed
the Greeks, and Nicephorus with a great
attacked the khalif's forces with the utmoſt
He was, however, defeated with the loſs of
o men, and received three wounds in the ac-
after which the Saracens committed terrible
es in his territories, and returned home laden
ſpoils. The next year Harun invaded Phry-
defeated an imperial army ſent to oppoſe
and ravaged the country. In the 190th
of the Hegira, Nov. 27th, 805, the khalif
hed into the imperial territories with an army
5,000 men, beſides a great number of volun-
He firſt took the city of Heraclea, whence
ried 16,000 priſoners; after which he took
l other places; and made a deſcent on Cy-
which he plundered in a terrible manner.
ſo intimidated Nicephorus, that he immedi-
ſent the tribute due to Harun, the withhold-
which had been the cauſe of the war; and
ded a peace upon the khalif's own terms;
which was, that the city of Heraclea ſhould
be rebuilt. This perhaps Harun would not
o readily granted, had not one Raſe Ebn Al
revolted againſt him at Samarcand, and aſ-
ed a conſiderable force. In the 191ſt year
Hegira, the khalif removed the governor of
ſan from his employment, becauſe he had
tended to the motions of the rebel Raſe. As
overnor had alſo tyrannized over his ſubjects
moſt cruel manner, his ſucceſſor ſent him
ins to the khalif: yet the rebels made this
great progreſs in the conqueſt of Khoraſan.
year, the khalif marched in perſon againſt
bels, who were daily becoming more formi-
The general rendezvous of his troops was
plains of Rakka, whence he advanced with
to Bagdad. Having there ſupplied the
with every thing neceſſary, he continued
rch to the frontiers of Jorjan, where he was
with an illneſs which grew more violent af-
had entered that province. Finding him-
erefore unable to purſue his journey, he re-
ſigned the command of the army to his ſon Al
Mamun, retiring himſelf to Tus in Khoraſan. We
are told by Khondemir, that, before the khalif de-
parted from Rakka, he had a dream wherein he
ſaw a hand over his head full of red earth, and at
the ſame time heard a perſon pronouncing theſe
words, "See the earth where Harun is to be bu-
ried." Upon this he aſked where he was to be
buried; and was inſtantly anſwered, "At Tus."
This dream greatly diſcompoſing him, he com-
municated it to his chief phyſician, who endea-
voured to divert him, and adviſed him to purſue
ſome amuſement, to draw his attention another
way. The khalif accordingly prepared a magni-
ficent regale for his courtiers, which laſted ſeveral
days. After this, he put himſelf at the head of
his forces, and advanced to the confines of Jorjan.
As his diſorder increaſed, he retired to Tus; where
he ſent for his phyſician, and ſaid to him, "Ga-
briel, do you remember my dream at Rakka? we
are now arrived at Tus, the place of my inter-
ment. Send one of my eunuchs to fetch me a
handful of the earth of this city." Upon this,
Maſrur, a favourite eunuch, was diſpatched to
bring a little earth. He ſoon brought a handful
of red earth, which he preſented to the khalif
with his arm half bare. At the ſight of this, Ha-
run cried out, "In truth this is the earth, and
this the very arm, that I ſaw in my dream." His
ſpirits immediately failing, and his malady being
greatly increaſed by the perturbation of mind en-
ſuing upon this ſight, he died three days after, and
was buried in Tus. Baſhir Ebn Al Leith, the
arch-rebel's brother, was brought in chains to the
khalif, when at the point of death. At the ſight
of him Harun declared, that if he could ſpeak
only two words he would ſay *kill him*; and im-
mediately ordered him to be cut in pieces in his
preſence. This being done, the khalif ſoon after
expired, in the year of the Hegira 193, having
reigned 23 years. The diſtemper that put an end
to his days is ſaid to have been the bloody flux.

(16.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, UNTO THE DEATH OF KHALIF AL MAMUN. Upon the arri-
val of a courier from Tus, with the news of Al
Raſhid's death, his ſon Al Amin was immediately
proclaimed khalif; and was no ſooner ſeated on
the throne, than he formed a deſign of excluding
his brother Al Mamun from the ſucceſſion. Ac-
cordingly he deprived him of the furniture of the
imperial palace of Khoraſan; and in open viola-
tion of his father's will, who had beſtowed on Al
Mamun the perpetual government of Khoraſan,
and of all the troops in that province, he ordered
theſe forces to march directly to Bagdad. Upon
the arrival of this order, Al Mamun expoſtulated
with the general Al Fadl Ebn Rabi who command-
ed his troops, and endeavoured to prevent his
marching to Bagdad; but without effect, for he
punctually obeyed the orders ſent by the khalif.
Al Mamun, however, took care not to be wanting
in fidelity to his brother. He obliged the people
of Khoraſan to take an oath of fidelity to Al A-
min, and reduced ſome who had actually excited
a conſiderable body of the people to revolt, while
the general Al Fadl having ingratiated himſelf
with the khalif by his ready compliance with his
orders, was choſen prime vizir, and governed with
an

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an abſolute ſway; Al Amin abandoning himſelf entirely to drunkenneſs. Al Fadi was a very able miniſter; though fearing Al Mamun's reſentment if ever he ſhould aſcend the throne, he gave Al Amin ſuch advice as proved in the end the ruin of them both. He told him that his brother had gained the affection of the people of Khoraſan by the good order and police he had eſtabliſhed among them; that his unwearied application to the adminiſtration of juſtice had ſo attracted their eſteem, that the whole province was entirely at his devotion; that his own conduct was by no means reliſhed by his ſubjects, whoſe minds were almoſt totally alienated from him; and therefore that he had but one part to act, which was to deprive Al Mamun of the right of ſucceſſion that had been given him by his father, and transfer it to his own ſon Muſa, though then but an infant. Agreeable to this pernicious advice, the khalif ſent for his brother Al Kaſem from Meſopotamia, and recalled Al Mamun from Khoraſan, pretending he had occaſion for him as an aſſiſtant in his councils. By this treatment Al Mamun was ſo much provoked, that he reſolved to come to an open rupture with his brother, in order if poſſible to fruſtrate his wicked deſigns. Inſtead, therefore, of going to Bagdad as he had been commanded, he cut off all communication between his own province and that capital; ſaying, that as his father Haroun had aſſigned him the lieutenancy of Khoraſan, he was reſponſible for all the diſorders that might happen there during his abſence. He alſo coined money, and would not ſuffer Al Amin's name to be impreſſed upon any of the dirhems or dinars ſtruck in that province. Not content with this, he prevailed upon Rafe' Ebn Al Laith, who had been for ſome time in rebellion, to join him with a body of troops; whoſe example was ſoon after followed by Harthema Ebn Aaſan; which put him in poſſeſſion of all the vaſt territory of Khoraſan. Here he governed with an abſolute ſway, officiated in the moſque as *Imam*, and conſtantly harangued the people. In the 193d year of the Hegira, Oct. 4, 817, the khalif Al Amin, finding that his brother ſet him at defiance, declared war againſt him, and ſent his general Ali Ebn Iſa with an army of 60,000 men to invade Khoraſan. Al Mamun, being informed that Ali was advancing againſt him with ſuch a powerful army, put on foot all the troops he could raiſe, and gave the command to Thaher Ebn Huſein, one of the greateſt generals of his age. Thaher being a man of undaunted reſolution, choſe only 4000 men, whom he led againſt Al Amin's army. Ali, being ſo far from a number of troops advancing againſt him, was tranſported with joy, and promiſed himſelf an eaſy victory. Purſuing his enemies, therefore, he behaved in a ſcattered careleſs manner; the conſequence of which was, that his army was totally defeated, and moſt of them killed, his head being afterwards ſent as a preſent to Al Mamun, who amply rewarded Thaher and Harthema for their ſervices. After this victory, Al Mamun aſſumed the title of *Khalif*; and made all neceſſary preparations for carrying the war into the very heart of his brother's dominions. For this purpoſe he divided his troops into two bodies, and commanded them to march into Irak by different routs. One of them obeyed the orders of Thaher, and the other of Harthema. The former directed his march to Ahwas, and the other towards Holwan, both of them propoſing to join in the neighbourhood of Bagdad, and there form a junction to beſiege that city. In the 195th year of the Hegira, Thaher Ebn Huſein made a very rapid progreſs with the troops under his command. Having advanced towards Ahwas, he totally defeated a body of the khalif's forces; and though the victory was by no means deciſive, it ſo intimidated the commander of Ahwas, that he immediately ordered that fortreſs to him. This opened a way to Waſer upon the Tigris, and facilitated the conqueſt of that place. After this he marched with his army to Al Madayen; the inhabitants of which immediately opened their gates to him. The rapidity of theſe conqueſts, and the intimidating conduct of Al Amin, excited the people of Egypt, Syria, Hejaz, and Yemen, unanimouſly to declare for Al Mamun; who was accordingly proclaimed khalif in all theſe provinces. The next year Mamun's forces under Thaher and Harthema laid ſiege to Bagdad. As the khalif was then in that place, and it had a numerous garriſon, the beſieged made a vigorous defence, and deſtroyed a great number of their enemies. The beſiegers, however, inceſſantly played upon the town with their catapults and other engines, though they were in their turn not a little annoyed by the garriſon with the ſame ſort of military machines. The latter likewiſe made continual ſallies, and fought like men in deſpair, though they were always beaten back into the town with conſiderable loſs. In ſhort, the ſiege continued during the whole of this year, in which the greateſt part of the eaſtern city, called the *Garden of al Rocca*, was demoliſhed or reduced to aſhes. The citizens, as well as the garriſon, were reduced to the laſt extremity by the length and violence of the ſiege. In the beginning of the 198th year of the Hegira, Al Amin finding himſelf deſerted by moſt of his troops as well as the principal men of Bagdad, who had kept a private correſpondence with Thaher, was obliged to retire to the old town on the weſt ſide of the Tigris. He did not, however, take this ſtep, before the inhabitants of the new town had formally depoſed him, and proclaimed the victorious Al Mamun khalif. Thaher, receiving theſe intelligence, cauſed the old town to be cannonaded from his engines againſt it, and at laſt forced it to ſurrender. Al Amin being thus reduced to the neceſſity of putting himſelf into the hands of the generals, choſe to implore the protection of Harthema, whom he judged to be of a more humane diſpoſition than Thaher. Having reſolved this, he embarked in a ſmall veſſel in order to arrive at that part of the camp where the former was poſted; but Thaher being informed of his deſign, which, if put in execution, muſt have eclipſed the glory he had acquired, was reſolved to prevent for him, which he had not the good fortune to eſcape. Upon his arrival in the neighbourhood of Harthema's tent, Thaher's ſoldiers fell upon him, drowned all his attendants, and made him priſoner in priſon. Here he was ſoon after murdered by Thaher's ſervants, who carried his head in triumph to their maſter, by whoſe order it was

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rds exposed to view in the streets of Bagdad. er afterwards sent it to Al Mamun in Khora- together with the sing or seat of the khalifat, ceptre, and the imperial robe. At the sight ese, Al Mamun fell down on his knees, and ied thanks to God for his success; making ourier who brought them a present of a mil- of dirhems, in value about L. 100,000 Ster-

The same day that Al Amin was assassina- his brother Al Mamun was proclaimed kha- Bagdad. He had not been long seated on hrone, when he was alarmed by rebellions ing out in different parts of the empire. e, however, were at last happily extinguish- after which, Thaher Ebn Hosein had the go- nent of Khorasan conferred upon him and descendants with almost absolute and unlimit- ower. This happened in the 205th year of legira, from which time we may date the dis- berment of that province from the empire of halifs. During the reign of this khalif no- remarkable happened; only the African Sa- s invaded the island of Sicily, where they themselves masters of several places. He of a surfeit, in the 218th year of the Hegira, g reigned 20, and lived 48 or 49 years.

(.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, UNTO THE TH OF KHALIF AL MOTASEM. On the of Al Mamun, his brother Al Motasem, me of the oriental historians surnamed *Billah*, aluted khalif. He succeeded by virtue of Al un's express nomination of him, to the exclu- of his own son Al Abbas, and his other brother asem who had been appointed by Harun Al hid. In the beginning of his reign he was ed to employ the whole forces of his empire ist one Babec, who had been for a consider- time in rebellion in Persia and Persian Irak. Babec first appeared in the year of the He- 01, when he began to take upon him the of a *prophet*. What his particular doctrine is now unknown; but his religion is said to differed from all others then known in Asia. ained a great number of proselytes in Ader- and the Persian Irak, where he soon grew erful enough to wage war with the khalif Al un, whose troops he often beat, so that he now become extremely formidable. The al sent by Al Motasem to reduce him was er Ebn Kaus, surnamed *Afshin*, a Turk by n, who had been brought a slave to the kha- court, and having been employed in discipli- the Turkish militia there, had acquired the tation of a great captain. By him Babec defeated with prodigious slaughter, no fewer 60,000 men being killed in the first engagement, next year, being the 220th of the Hegira, he ved a still greater overthrow, losing 100,000 killed and taken prisoners. By this defeat as obliged to retire into the Gordyæan moun- ; where he fortified himself in such a man- that Afshin found it impossible to reduce him he year of the Hegira 222. This commander ig reduced with invincible patience all Ba- castles one after another, the impostor was ed to shut himself up in a strong fortress cal- *Jasbabad*, which was now his last resource. he defended himself with great bravery for several months; but at last finding he should be obliged to surrender, he made his escape into a neighbouring wood, whence he soon after came to Afshin, upon that general's promising him par- don. But Afshin no sooner had him in his pow- er, than he first caused his hands and feet, and af- terwards his head, to be cut off. Babec had sup- ported himself against the power of the khalifs for upwards of 20 years, during which time he had cruelly massacred 250,000 people; it being his custom to spare neither man, woman, nor child, of the Mahometans or their allies. A- mongst the prisoners taken at Casbabad there was one Nud, who had been one of Babec's execu- tioners, and who owned that, by his orders, he had destroyed 20,000 Saracens with his own hands; to which he added, that vast numbers had also been executed by his companions. In the 223d year of the Hegira, the Greek emperor Theophilus invaded the khalif's territories, where he behaved with the greatest cruelty, and by de- stroying Sozopetra the place of Al Motasem's na- tivity, notwithstanding his earnest intreaties to the contrary, occasioned the terrible destruction of AMORIUM, mentioned under that article. The rest of this khalif's reign is remarkable for nothing but the execution of Afshin, who was accused of holding correspondence with the khalif's enemies. After his death a great number of idols were found in his house, which were immediately burned, as also several books said to contain im- pious and detestable opinions. In the 227th year of the Hegira died the khalif Al Motasem, in the 48th or 49th year of his age. He had reigned 8 years 8 months and 8 days, was born in the 8th month of the year, fought 8 battles, had 8000 slaves, and had 8,000,000 dinars and 80,000,000 dirhems in his treasury at his death; whence the O- riental historians gave him the name *Al Mothamen*, or the *Octonary*. He is said to have been so ro- bust, that he once carried a burden of 1000 pounds weight several paces. As the people of Bagdad disturbed him with frequent revolts and commotions, he took the resolution to abandon that city, and build another for his own residence. The new city he built was first called *Sumarra*, and afterwards SARRA MANRAY, and stood in the Arabian Irak. He was attached to the opinion of the Moatazalites, who maintain the *creation* of the Koran; and both he and his predecessor cruel- ly persecuted those who believed it to be *eternal*.

(18.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, UNTO THE DEATH OF KHALIF AL MOTAZZ. Al Motasem was succeeded by Al Wathek Billah, who the following year, being the 228th of the Hegira, in- vaded and conquered Sicily. Nothing remarkable happened during the rest of his reign; he died in the 232d year of the Hegira, and was succeeded by his brother Al Motawakkel. The new khalif began his reign with an act of the greatest cruel- ty. The late khalif's vizir having treated Al Motawakkel ill in his brother's lifetime, and op- posed his election to the khalifat, was on that ac- count now sent to prison. Here the khalif order- ed him to be kept awake for several days and nights together: after this, being suffered to fall asleep, he slept a whole day and night; and after he awoke was thrown into an iron furnace lined

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with ſpikes or nails heated red hot, where he was miſerably burnt to death. During this reign nothing remarkable happened, except wars with the Greeks, which were carried on with various ſucceſs. In the year 867 too, being the 245th of the Hegira, violent earthquakes happened in many provinces of the Saracen dominions; and the ſprings at Mecca failed to ſuch a degree, that the celebrated well Zemzem was almoſt dried up, and the water ſold for 100 dirhems a bottle. In the 247th year of the Hegira, the khalif was aſſaſſinated at the inſtance of his ſon Al Montaſer; who ſucceeded him, and died in ſix months after. He was ſucceeded by Al Moſtain, who, in the year of the Hegira 252 was forced to abdicate the throne by his brother Al Motazz, who afterwards cauſed him to be privately murdered. He did not long enjoy the dignity of which he had ſo iniquitouſly poſſeſſed himſelf; being depoſed by the Turkiſh militia (who now began to ſet up and depoſe khalifs as they pleaſed) in 255th year of the Hegira. After his depoſition, he was ſent under an eſcort from Sarra Manray to Bagdad, where he died of thirſt or hunger, after a reign of four years and about ſeven months. The fate of this khalif (however merited,) was peculiarly hard: the Turkiſh troops had mutinied for their pay; and Al Motazz, not having money to ſatisfy their demands, applied to his mother, named *Kabiha* for 50,000 dinars. This ſhe refuſed, telling him that ſhe had no money at all, although it afterwards appeared that ſhe was poſſeſſed of immenſe treaſures. After his depoſition, however, ſhe was obliged to diſcover them, and even depoſite them in the hands of the new khalif, Al Mokhtadi. They conſiſted of 1,000,000 dinars, a buſhel of emeralds, and another of pearls, and three pounds and three quarters of rubies of the colour of fire.

(19.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, UNTO THE DEATH OF KHALIF AL MOTAMED. Al Mokhtadi, the new khalif, was the ſon of one of Al Wathek's concubines, named *Korb*, or *Karb*, ſaid by ſome to have been a Chriſtian. The beginning of his reign is remarkable for the irruption of the ZENJIANS, a people of Nubia, Ethiopia, and the country of Caffres, into Arabia, where they penetrated into the neighbourhood of Baſra and Cufa. The chief of this gang of robbers, who, according to ſome of the Arab hiſtorians, differed but little from wild beaſts, was Ali Ebn Mohammed Ebn Abdalrahman, who falſely gave himſelf out to be of the family of Ali Ebn Abu Taleb. This made ſuch an impreſſion upon the Shiites in thoſe parts, that they flocked to him in great numbers; which enabled him to ſeize upon the cities of Baſra and Ramla, and even to paſs the Tigris at the head of a formidable army. He then took the title of *Prince of the Zenjians* in order to ingratiate himſelf with thoſe barbarians, of whom his army was principally compoſed. In the 256th year of the Hegira, Al Mokhtadi was barbarouſly murdered by the Turks, who had raiſed him to the throne, and was ſucceeded by Al Motamed the ſon of Al Motawakkel. This year the prince of the Zenjians, Ali, or *Al Habib*, made incurſions to the very gates of Bagdad, doing prodigious miſchief wherever he paſſed. The khalif therefore ſent againſt him one Jolan with a conſiderable army; he was overthrown, however, with very great ſlaughter by the Zenjian, who made himſelf maſter of 24 of the khalif's largeſt ſhips in the bay of Baſra, put a vaſt number of the inhabitants of Obolla to the ſword, ſeized upon the town, ſet fire to it, and ſoon reduced it to aſhes, the houſes moſtly conſiſting of the wood of a certain palm-tree, called by the Arabians *Saj*. From thence he marched to Abadan, which likewiſe ſurrendered to him. Here he found an immenſe treaſure, which enabled him to poſſeſs himſelf of the whole diſtrict of Ahwaz. In ſhort, his forces being now increaſed to 80,000 ſtrong, moſt of the adjacent territories, and even the khalif's court itſelf, were ſtruck with terror. In the 257th year of the Hegira, Al Habib continued victorious, defeated ſeveral armies ſent againſt him by the khalif, reduced the city of Baſra, and put 20,000 of the inhabitants to the ſword. The following year, the khalif, ſupported by his brother Al Mowaffek, had formed a deſign of circumſcribing the power of the Turkiſh ſoldiery, who had for ſome time given law to the khalifs themſelves. But this year the Zenjians made ſo rapid a progreſs in Perſia, Arabia, and Irak, that he was obliged to ſuſpend the execution of his deſign, and even to employ the Turkiſh troops to aſſiſt his brother Al Mowaffek in oppoſing theſe robbers. The firſt of the khalif's generals, who encountered Al Habib this year, was defeated in ſeveral engagements, and had his army at laſt entirely deſtroyed. After this Al Mowaffek and another general named *Moſleh* advanced againſt him. In the firſt engagement Moſleh being killed by an arrow, the khalif's troops retired; but Al Mowaffek put them afterwards in ſuch a poſture of defence, that the enemy durſt not renew the attack. Several other ſharp encounters happened this year, in which neither party gained great advantage; but, at laſt, ſome contagious diſtempers breaking out in Al Mowaffek's army, he was obliged to conclude a truce, and retire to Waſet to refreſh his troops. In the 259th year of the Hegira, commencing Nov. 7th, 881, the war between the khalif and Al Habib ſtill continued. Al Mowaffek, upon his arrival at Bagdad, ſent Mohammed ſurnamed *Al Mowalled* with a powerful army to act againſt the Zenjians: but he could not hinder them from ravaging the province of Ahwaz, cutting off about 50,000 of the khalif's ſubjects, and diſmantling the city of Ahwaz; and notwithſtanding the utmoſt efforts of all the khalif's generals, no conſiderable advantages could be gained either this or the following year. In the 261ſt year of the Hegira, beginning Oct. 16th, 883, Mohammed Ebn Waſel, who had killed the khalif's governor of Fars, and afterwards made himſelf maſter of that province, had ſeveral engagements with Al Habib. The khalif, having been apprized of the ſtate of affairs on that ſide, annexed the government of Fars, Ahwaz, and Baſra, to the prefecture he had given to Muſa Ebn Boga, whom he looked upon as one of the beſt generals he had. Muſa, ſoon after his nomination to that poſt, ſent Abdalrahman Ebn Moſleh as his deputy to Ahwaz, giving him as a colleague and aſſiſtant one Tiſam, a Turk. Mohammed Ebn Waſel, however, refuſing to obey the orders of Abdalrahman and Tiſam, &c.

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conflict enſued, in which the latter were de-
d, and Abdalrahman taken priſoner. After
victory, Mohammed advanced againſt Muſa
Boga himſelf; but that general, finding he
d not take poſſeſſion of his new government
out a vaſt effuſion of blood, recalled the de-
s from their provinces, and made the beſt of
way to Sarra Manray. After this, Yakub
Al Leit, having taken Khoraſan from the deſ-
ants of Thaher, attacked and defeated Mo-
ned Ebn Waſel, ſeizing on his palace, where
und a ſum of money amounting to 40,000,000
ms. The next year Yakub being grown for-
ble by the acquiſition of Ahwaz and a conſi-
ble portion of Fars, or at leaſt the Perſian
declared war againſt the khalif. Againſt
Al Motamed diſpatched Al Mowaffek; who
ig defeated him with prodigious ſlaughter,
dered his camp, and purſued him into Kho-
; where meeting with no oppoſition, he en-
Niſabur, and releaſed Mahomet the Tha-
n, whom Yakub had detained in priſon three
. As for Yakub himſelf, he made his eſcape
great difficulty, though he and his family
nued ſeveral years in poſſeſſion of many of
conqueſts he had made. This war with
ib proved a ſeaſonable diverſion in favour of
ſabib, who this year defeated all the forces
againſt him, and ravaged the diſtrict of Wa-
In the 263d of the Hegira, beginning Sept.
885, the khalif's forces, under the com-
d of Ahmed Ebn Lebuna, gained two conſi-
ble advantages over Al Habib; but being at
drawn into an ambuſcade, they were almoſt
y deſtroyed, their general himſelf making
ſcape with the utmoſt difficulty; nor were
halif's forces able, during the courſe of the
year, to make the leaſt impreſſion upon theſe
. In the 265th year of the Hegira, begin-
September 3d, 887, Ahmed Ebn Tolun re-
d againſt the khalif, and ſet up for himſelf in
. Having aſſembled a conſiderable force,
arched to Antioch, and beſieged Sima the
nor of Aleppo, and all the provinces known
g the Arabs by the name of *Al Awaſem* in
city. As the beſieged found that he was re-
d to carry the place by aſſault, they thought
fter a ſhort defence, to ſubmit, and to put
into his hands. Ahmed no ſooner had that
r in his power, than he cauſed him to be be-
d; after which he advanced to Aleppo, the
of which were immediately opened unto
Soon after, he reduced Damaſcus, Hems,
ath, Kinniſrin, and Al Rakka, ſituated upon
aſtern bank of the Euphrates. This rebellion
aſperated Al Motamed, that he cauſed Ah-
to be publickly curſed in all the moſques be-
ng to Bagdad and Irak; and Ahmed on his
ordered the ſame malediction to be thunder-
ut againſt the khalif in all the moſques with-
jurisdiction. This year alſo a detachment
l Habib's troops penetrated into Irak, and
themſelves maſters of four of the khalif's
laden with corn; then they advanced to Al
anic, laid the greateſt part of it in aſhes, and
d off with them ſeveral of the inhabitants
ers. After this they poſſeſſed themſelves of
Jarjaraya, where they found many priſoners more,
and deſtroyed all the adjacent territory with fire
and ſword. This year there were four independ-
ent powers in the Saracen dominions, beſides the
houſe of Ommiyah in Spain: viz. The African Sa-
racens, or Aglabites, who had for a long time acted
independently; Ahmed in Syria and Egypt; Al
Leit in Khoraſan; and Al Habib in Arabia and Irak.
In the 266th year of the Hegira, beginning Auguſt
23d, 888, Al Habib reduced Ramhormoz, burnt
the ſtately moſque there to the ground, put a vaſt
number of the inhabitants to the ſword, and car-
ried away great numbers, as well as a vaſt quan-
tity of ſpoil.—This was his laſt ſucceſsful cam-
paign; for the year following, Al Mowaffek, at-
tended by his ſon Abul Abbas, having attacked
him with a body of 10,000 horſe, and a few in-
fantry, notwithſtanding the vaſt diſparity of num-
bers (Al Habib's army amounting to 100,000
men), defeated him in ſeveral battles, recovered
moſt of the towns he had taken, together with
an immenſe quantity of ſpoil, and releaſed 5000
women, who had been thrown into priſon by theſe
barbarians. After theſe victories, Al Mowaffek
took poſt before the city of Al Mabiya, built by
Al Habib, and the place of his reſidence, burnt
all the ſhips in the harbour; thoroughly pillaged
the town; and then entirely diſmantled it. After
the reduction of this place, in which he found
immenſe treaſures, Al Mowaffek purſued the fly-
ing Zenjians, put ſeveral of their chiefs to the
ſword, and advanced to Al Mokhtara, a city
built by Al Habib. As the place was ſtrongly
fortified, and Al Habib was poſted in its neigh-
bourhood, with an army, according to Abu Jaa-
ſer Al Tabari, of 300,000 men, Al Mowaffek per-
ceived that the reduction of it would be a matter
of ſome difficulty. He therefore built a fortreſs
oppoſite to it, where he erected a moſque, and
coined money. The new city, from its founder,
was called by the Arabs *Al Mowaffekkia*, and
ſoon rendered conſiderable by the ſettlement of
ſeveral wealthy merchants there. The city of
Al Mokhtara being reduced to great ſtraits, was
at laſt taken by ſtorm, and given up to be plun-
dered by the khalif's troops; after which Al
Mowaffek defeated the numerous forces of Al
Habib in ſuch a manner, that they could no more
be rallied during that campaign. In the 268th
year of the Hegira, Al Mowaffek penetrated a-
gain into Al Mabiya, and demoliſhed the fortifi-
cations which had been raiſed ſince its former re-
duction, though the rebels diſputed every inch of
ground. Next year he again attacked Al Habib
with great bravery; and would have entirely de-
feated him, had he not been wounded in the
breaſt with an arrow, which obliged him to re-
treat. However, as ſoon as he was cured of his
wound, Al Mowaffek advanced a 3d time to Al
Mabiya, made himſelf maſter of that metropolis,
threw down the walls that had been raiſed, put
many of the inhabitants to the ſword, and carri-
ed a vaſt number of them into captivity. The
270th year of the Hegira, commencing July 11th,
892, proved fatal to the rebel Al Habib. Al
Mowaffek made himſelf a fourth time maſter of
Al Mabiya, burnt all Habib's palace, ſeized upon

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his family, and sent them to Sarra Manray. As for the usurper himself, he escaped, but being closely pursued by Al Mowaffek into the province of Ahwaz, where the shattered remains of his forces were entirely defeated, he at last fell into the hands of the victor, who ordered his head to be cut off, and carried through a great part of that region which he had so long disturbed. By this complete victory Al Mowaffek obtained the title of *Al Nasir Lidmalbah*, that is, *the protector of Mahometanism*. This year also died Ahmed Ebn Tolun, who had seized upon Egypt and Syria, and was succeeded by his son *Khamarawiyah*. The next year, a bloody engagement happened between the khalif's forces commanded by Al Mowaffek's son, and those of Khamarawiyah, who had made an irruption into the khalif's territories. The battle was fought between Al Ramla and Damascus. In the beginning, Khamarawiyah found himself so hard prested, that his men were obliged to give way; upon which, taking for granted that all was lost, he fled with great precipitation, even to the borders of Egypt; but, in the mean time, his troops being ignorant of the flight of their general, returned to the charge, and gained a complete victory. After this, Khamarawiyah, by his just and mild administration, so gained the affections of his subjects, that the khalif found it impossible to gain the least advantage over him. In the 276th year of the Hegira, he overthrew one of the khalif's generals named Abul Saj, at Al Bathnia, near the city of Damascus; after which he advanced to Al Rakka on the Euphrates, and made himself master of that place. Having annexed several large provinces to his former dominions, and left some of his friends in whom he could confide, to govern them, he then returned into Egypt, the principal part of his empire, which now extended from the Euphrates to the borders of Nubia and Ethiopia. The following year, the 278th of the Hegira, was remarkable for the death of Al Mowaffek. He died of the elephantiasis or leprosy; and while in his last illness, said, that of 100,000 men whom he commanded, there was not one so miserable as himself. This year was also remarkable for the first disturbances raised in the Saracen empire by the KARMATIANS. The origin of this sect is uncertain; but the most common opinion is, that a poor fellow, by some called *Karmata*, came from Khuzestan to the villages near Cufa, and there pretended great sanctity, and that God had enjoined him to pray 50 times a-day; inviting people to the obedience of a certain Imam of the family of Mahomet; and this way of life he continued till he had made a very great party, out of whom he chose twelve as his apostles to govern the rest, and to propagate his doctrines. He also assumed the title of *prince*, and obliged every one of his earlier followers to pay him a dinar a-year. But Al Haidam, the governor of that province, finding men neglected their work, to say those 50 prayers a-day, seized the fellow, and having put him in prison, swore that he should die. This being overheard by a girl belonging to the governor, she, out of compassion, took the key of the dungeon at night from under her master's head, released Karmata, and restored the key to its place. The next morning, the governor found his prisoner gone, and the accident, being publicly known, raised great admiration; Karmata's adherents giving out that God had taken him into heaven. After this he appeared in another province, and declared to a great number of people, that it was not in the power of any person to do him hurt; notwithstanding which, his courage failing him, he retired into Syria, and was never heard of more. After his disappearance, the sect continued and increased; his disciples pretending, that their master had manifested himself to be a true prophet, and had left them a new law, wherein he had changed the ceremonies and form of prayer used by the Mahometans, &c. From this year, 278, these sectaries gave almost continual disturbance to the khalifs and their subjects, committing great disorders in Chaldæa, Arabia, and Mesopotamia, and at length established a considerable principality. In the 279th year of the Hegira died the khalif Al Motamed: and was succeeded by Al Motaded, son to Al Mowaffek.

(20.) SARACENS, HISTORY OF THE, UNTIL THE DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE AMONG VARIOUS USURPERS. In the first year of his reign, Al Motaded demanded in marriage the daughter of Khamarawiyah, sultan, or khalif, in Egypt; which was agreed to, and their nuptials were solemnized with great pomp in the 282d year of the Hegira. He carried on a war with the Karmatians; but very unsuccessfully, his forces being defeated with great slaughter, and his general Al Abbas taken prisoner. This khalif also granted to Harun, son to Khamarawiyah, the perpetual protection of Awasam and Kinnisrin, which he annexed to that of Egypt and Syria, upon condition that he paid him an annual tribute of 45,000 dinars. He died in the year of the Hegira 289, and was succeeded by his son Al Moctafi. This khalif proved a warlike and successful prince. He gained several advantages over the Karmatians, but was not able to reduce them. The Turks, however, having invaded the province of Mawaralnahar, were defeated with great slaughter; after which Al Moctafi carried on a successful war against the Greeks, from whom he took Seleucia. After this he invaded Syria and Egypt, which provinces he recovered from the house of Ahmed Ebn Toiun. The reduction of Egypt happened in the 292d year of the Hegira, after which the war was renewed with success against the Greeks and Karmatians. The khalif died in the 295th year of the Hegira, after a reign of about six years and a half. He was the last of the khalifs who made any figure by their warlike exploits. His successors Al Moktader, Al Kaher, and Al Radi, were so distressed by the Karmatians and numberless usurpers who were every day starting up, that by the 325th year of the Hegira they had nothing left but the city of Bagdad. In the 324th year of the Hegira, commencing Nov. 30th, 945 the khalif Al Radi, finding himself distressed on all sides by usurpers, and having a vizir of no capacity, instituted a new office superior to that of vizir, which he intitled *Emir Al Omra*, or *commandant of commandants*. This great officer was trusted with the management of all military affairs

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s; and had the entire management of the finan-
, in a much more abſolute and unlimited man-
than any of the khalif's viziers ever had. Nay,
officiated for the khalif in the great moſque at
dad, and had his name mentioned in the pub-
prayers throughout the kingdom. In ſhort,
khalif was ſo much under the power of this
er, that he could not apply a ſingle dinar to
own uſe without the leave of the Emir Al
ra. In the year 325, the Saracen empire, once
reat and powerful, was ſhared among the fol-
ing uſurpers. 1. The cities of Waſet, Baſra,
Cufa, with the reſt of the Arabian Irak, were
ſidered as the property of the Emir Al Omra,
ugh they had been in the beginning of the
r ſeized upon by a rebel called *Al Barilli*, who
ld not be driven out of them. 2. The coun-
of Fars, Farſiſtan, or *Perſia*, properly ſo cal-
, was poſſeſſed by Amado'ddawla Ali Ebn
ya, who reſided in the city of Shiraz. 3. Part
he tract denominated *Al Jebal*, together with
ſian Irak, which is the mountainous part of
fia, and the country of the ancient Parthians,
yed Rucno'ddawla, the brother of Amao'd-
la, who reſided at Iſpahan. The other part of
country was poſſeſſed by Waſhmakin the Dey-
ite. 4. Diyar Rabia, Diyar Becr, Diyar Modar,
the city of Al Mawſel, or Moſul, acknowledged
their ſovereign a race of princes called *Ham-
ites*. 5. Egypt and Syria no longer obeyed the
lifs, but Mahomet Ebn Taj, who had former-
een appointed governor of theſe provinces.
. Africa and Spain had long been indepen-
t. 8, 9. Sicily and Crete were governed by
ices of their own. 10, 11. The provinces of
raſan and Mawaralnahar were under the do-
ion of Al Naſr Ebn Ahmed, of the dynaſty of
Sammanians. 12—14. The provinces of Tabreſ-
Jorjan, or Georgiana, and Mazanderan, had
s of the firſt dynaſty of the Deylamites. 15.
province of Kerman was occupied by Abu
Mahomet Ebn Eylia Al Sammani, who had
le himſelf maſter of it a ſhort time before.
, 16. Laſtly, the provinces of Yamama and
rein, including the diſtrict of Hajr, were in the
eſſion of Abu Thaher the Karmatian. Far-
particulars reſpecting the hiſtory of the Sara-
will be found under the articles referred to
1; and particularly under SPAIN, where
were more generally ſtyled MOORS, than
Saracens, *Arabs*, *Moſlems*, *Muſſulmen*, or any
r denomination.

ARACOLETS, a Negro nation occupying the
s ſituated between the Senegal and the Gam-

They are laborious people, cultivate their
s with care, are plentifully ſupplied with
he neceſſaries of life, and inhabit handſome
well built villages; their houſes, of a circular
, are for the moſt part terraced; the others are
red with reeds as at Senegal; they are inclo-
with a mud wall a foot thick, and the villages
ſurrounded with one of ſtone and earth of
b e that ſolidity. There are ſeveral gates,
ch are guarded at night for fear of a ſurpriſe.
nation is remarkably brave, and it is very un-
mon to find a Saracolet ſlave. They always
nd themſelves with advantage againſt their aſ-
nts. The religious principles of this people are nearly allied to Mahometaniſm, and ſtill more to natural religion. They acknowledge one God; and believe that thoſe who ſteal, or are guilty of any crime, are eternally puniſhed. They admit a plurality of wives, and believe their ſouls to be immortal like their own. They think lightly of adultry; for as they allow themſelves ſeveral wives, they are not ſo unjuſt as to puniſh women who diſtribute their favours among ſeveral gallants; a mutual exchange is then permitted, one woman may be bartered for another, unleſs ſhe be free, or a native of the country. In this laſt caſe, the French cuſtom prevails; it is winked at although the laws are particularly ſevere againſt the violation of the moſt ſacred of all property. This nation lies near that of the Poules. Its extent up the country is unknown; but it is governed by four powerful princes, all bearing the name of *Fouquet*. The leaſt conſiderable is that of TUAGO, who can aſſemble 30,000 horſe, and whoſe ſubjects occupy a territory 200 leagues in extent, as well on the Senegal as on the track that reaches beyond the Felou; a rock which according to the ſame report, forms cataracts, from whence proceed the Senegal and the Gambia, equally conſiderable rivers.

SARAGOSSA, a city of Spain in Arragon, with an archbiſhop's ſee, an univerſity, and a court of inquiſition. It is ſaid to have been built by the Phœnicians; and the Romans ſent a colony here in the reign of the emperor Auguſtus, whence it had the name *Cæſar-Auguſtus*, which by corruption has been changed into *Saragoſſa*. It is a large, handſome, and well built town. The ſtreets are long, broad, well paved, and very clean, and the houſes from 3 to 6 ſtories high. It is adorned with many magnificent buildings, 17 large churches, and 14 handſome monaſteries, with others leſs conſiderable. The river Ebro runs a croſs it, dividing it into two; on its banks is a handſome quay, which ſerves for a public walk. The Holy-ſtreet is the largeſt, and ſo broad that it may be taken for a ſquare; and here they have their bull-fights: in this ſtreet there are ſeveral noblemen's families, particularly that of the viceroy. The convents are handſome and richly adorned, as well as the churches. The cathedral church is a ſpacious building, after the Gothic taſte; but the fineſt church is that of *Nueſtra Signora del Pilar*, ſeated on the ſide of the Ebro, a place of the greateſt devotion in Spain. They tell us the Virgin appeared to St James, who was preaching the goſpel, and left him her image, with a handſome pillar of jaſper: it is ſtill in this church which they pretend is the firſt in the world built to her honour. This image ſtands on a marble pillar, with Jeſus in her arms; but the place is ſo dark, that it cannot be ſeen without lamps, which are 50 in number, and all of ſilver. There are alſo chandeliers and baluſtrades of maſſy ſilver. The ornaments of this image are very rich, her crown being full of precious ſtones of an ineſtimable price; in ſhort, there is ſcarce any thing to be ſeen but gold and jewels, and a vaſt number of people come in pilgrimage hither. The town-houſe is a ſumptuous ſtructure, adorned with fine columns: in the hall are the pictures of all the kings of Arragon; and in a corner of it St George on horſeback, with a dragon of white marble under him. It is ſeated on a very

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very large plain, where the Ebro receives two other rivers; and over it are two bridges, one of ſtone and the other of wood, which laſt has been thought the moſt beautiful in Europe. A victory was obtained here over the French and Spaniards in 1710, but it was abandoned by the allies ſoon after. It is 97 miles W. by N. of Tarragona, 137 W. of Barcelona, and 150 of Madrid. Lon. 0. 48 N. Lat. 41. 47. N.

SARAH, [שרה, Heb, *i. e.* Lady,] and SARAI, [Heb. *i. e.* my miſtreſs,] names of the Patriarch ABRAHAM's wife. She is ſuppoſed to be the ſame with *Iſcah*, the daughter of Haran, Abraham's younger brother by a different mother, and conſequently the ſiſter of Lot. Her beauty and conſequent danger in the courts of Egypt and Gerar; her entertainment of the angels; her barrenneſs till her 90th year, with her miraculous conception and birth of Iſaac in her 91ſt; her turning off Hagar, and other intereſting particulars, with her death and burial in her 123d year, are recorded in Geneſis, xii, xviii, xx, xxi, xxiii.

SARAK, an iſland in the Gulf of Perſia; 141 miles W. of Ormus.

SAR-ALBE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Moſelle, near the Sarre built by Lewis XV. and fortified by Vauban: 24 miles ENE. of Metz, and 60 NW. of Straſburg. Lon. 24. 25. E. Ferro, Lat. 49. 20. N.

SARAMEK, a town of Perſia, in the province of Choraſan; 60 miles NW. of Herat.

SARAMON, a town of France, in the dep. of Gers; 15 miles E. of Mirande, and 25 S. of Lectoure. Lon. 18. 26. E. of Ferro. Lat. 43. 31. N.

SARAND, a river of Hungary, which runs from Lake Balaton, paſſes by Symoatornya, and falls into the Kopan.

SARANGÆ, an ancient people, who reſided near mount Caucaſus. *Plin.* vi. c. 16.

SARANGES, a river of India, falling into the Hydraotes, and thence into the Indus.

SARANGPOUR, a town of Thibet; 140 miles NE. of Sirinagur, and 266 NNE. of Delhi. Lon. 80. 28. E. Lat. 32. 25. N.

SARANNE. See LILIUM.

SARANSK, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Penza, 48 miles N. of Penza. Lon. 63. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 54. 15. N.

SARAPANI, an ancient people of Colchis. *Strabo.*

SARAPUL, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Viatka; 232 miles SSE. of Viatka. Lon. 70. 12. E. Ferro. Lat. 56. 32. N.

SARASA, an ancient town of Meſopotamia, on the Tigris.

SARASIN, John Francis, a French author, born at Hermauville, near Caen, in Normandy, about 1604. He ſtudied at Caen, and afterwards went to Paris; where he became more eminent for wit and humour, than for deep erudition. After this he travelled through Germany, and upon his return, became ſecretary to the prince of Conti, whom he prevailed upon to marry the niece of Card. Mazarine; in reward for which, he is ſaid to have received a large ſum. But the prince, afterwards hearing of his venality, turned him off, which is ſaid to have brought on his death. He publiſhed, 1. *Diſcours de la Tragedie*: 2. *L'Hiſtoire du Siege de Dunkerque*: and 3. *la Pompe funebre de Voiture*; inſerted in the *Miſcellanea* of Menage; to whoſe care he left all his MSS. from which Menage publiſhed a 4to vol. at Paris, in 1656; and other 2 vols. in 1675; conſiſting of various eſſays in proſe and poetry, which are eſteemed. He died in 1654.

SARAT, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in Natolia; 44 miles E. of Smyrna.

SARATCHIKOVA, a fort of Ruſſia, on the Ural; 16 miles N. of Guriev.

SARATOF. See SARATOV.

(1.) SARATOGA, a county of New York, bounded on the N. and E. by the Hudſon, which ſeparates it from Renſſellaer and Waſhington counties; on the S. by the Mohawk and a rivulet, which ſeparate it from Albany county; on the W. by Montgomery, and NW. by Herkimer counties. It is 43 miles long from N. to S. and 23 from E. to W. It is divided into 8 townſhips.

(2.) SARATOGA, a town of New York, in the above county, on the W. bank of the Hudſon; 25 miles above Lanſinburg, and 36 N. of Albany, near ſome mineral ſprings. It will be ever memorable in the annals of the United States, for the ſurrender of the Britiſh army under Gen. Burgoyne to the Americans under Gen. Gates; on the 13th October, 1777. See AMERICA, § 21.

(1.) SARATOV, or SARATOF, a town of Ruſſia, capital of Saratovſkoi, ſeated on the ſide of a mountain, on the banks of the Volga; 120 miles S. of Kaſan, 300 NW. of Aſtracan, 392 SE. of Moſcow, and 732 SE. of Peterſburg. Lon. 45. 25. E. Lat. 49. 16. N. or as Mr Cruttwell has it, 51. 30. N.

(2.) SARATOV, or SARATOVSKOI, a government of Ruſſia, formerly a province of Aſtracan; bounded on the N. by thoſe of Tambovſkoi, Penzenſkoi, and Simbirſk; on the E. by Uphinſkoe, and Caucaſus; on the S. by Caucaſus and the country of the Coſſacs; and on the W. by Tambovſkoi, and Veronezſkoi. Its form is an irregular triangle. Lon. 57. 30. to 69. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 47. 40. to 53. 0. N.

SARAUT, a town of Perſia, in the province of Herat; 66 miles SSE. of Amadan.

SARAVUS, in ancient geography, a river of Belgium, running into the Moſelle; now called SARRE.

SARAZAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot; 5 miles N. of Martel, and 16 NW. of St Cere.

SARAZZANO, a lake of Etruria, 16 miles from Sienna. Its waters abound with the *ſaturnic acid*, and borax has been found in them, in a concrete ſtate. See BORAX, § V.

SARBATCHOU SAMA, an iſland in the ſea of Japan, near the coaſt of Corea.

(1.) SARBOURG, } or SAARBURG, an ancient
(1.) SARBRUCK, } town of France, in the department of the Meurthe and ci-devant province of Lorrain; ſeated on the Sarre, at the foot of a mountain, 7½ miles NE. of Luneville, E. of Marſel, and 50 SE. of Metz. Lon. 7. 9. E. Lat. 49. 16. N.

(2.) SARBURG, SARBRUCK, or SAARBRUCK, a ci-devant territory of Germany, in the late electorate of Treves, now annexed to the French empire.

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ire, and included in the department of the e.

.) SARBURG, or SAARBRUCK, a town of the ich empire, in the department of the Sarre, capital of the above territory; ſeated on the e, 8 miles S. of Treves, and 13 E. of Luxemg. Lon. 6. 40. E. Lat. 49. 37. N.

.) SARCA, a town of Germany, in Tirol, on Sarca; 9 miles N. of Riva, and 15 W. of nt.

.) SARCA, a river of Germany and the Italian iblic, which riſes in the Tyroleſe, runs paſt town of Sarca, and falls into the lake of Garnear Riva: after which, it riſes out of the near Peſciera, obtains the name of *Mincio*, runs down to Mantua, where it forms the of Mantua. See MINCIO, N° 1; and MAN-, N° 4.

SARCASM. *n. ſ.* [*ſarcaſme*, Fr. *ſarcaſmus*,] A keen reproach; a taunt; a gibe.—*Sar-s* of wit are tranſmitted in ſtory. *Gov. of the gue.*—Rejoice, O young man, ſays Solomon, ſevere *ſarcaſm*, in the days of thy youth. *Ro-*.—When an angry maſter ſays to his ſervant, bravely done, the words are ſpoken by way *rcaſm*, or irony. *Watts.*

SARCASTICALLY. *adv.* [from *ſarcaſtick.*] ntingly; ſeverely.—He aſked a lady playing a lap-dog, whether the women of that counaſed to have any children or no? thereby *ſarcally* reproaching them for miſplacing that affon upon brutes, which could only become a her to her child. *South.*

SARCASTICAL. } *adj.* [from *ſarcaſm.*]
SARCASTICK. } Keen; taunting; ſe-.—What a fierce and *ſarcaſtick* reprehenſion ld this have drawn from the friendſhip of the d? *South.*

ARCENA, a town of the French empire, in iſland and department of Corſica; 6 miles . of Tallano, and 15 W. of Porto Vecchia.

SARCENET. *n. ſ.* [Suppoſed by *Skinner* to *fericum ſaracenicum*, Lat.] Fine thin woven —Why art thou then exaſperate, thou idle aterial ſkein of ſley'd ſilk, thou green *ſarcenet* for a ſore eye, thou taſſel of a prodigal's e? *Shak.*—If they be covered, though but linen *or ſarcenet*, it intercepts the effluvium. *m.*—

Theſe are they that cannot bear the heat
f figur'd ſilks, and under *ſarcenets* ſweat. *Juv.*
She darts from *ſarcenet* ambuſh wily leers,
witches thy ſleeve, or with familiar airs
er fan will pat the cheek. *Gay.*

ARCHAD, a town of Syria, beyond the Jornear a range of mountains of the ſame name; iles SSE. of Damaſcus, and 90 NE. of Jeruſn.

To SARCLE. *v. a.* [*ſarcler*, Fr. *ſarculo*, Lat.] weed corn. *Ainſworth.*

.) * SARCOCELE. *n. ſ.* [σαρξ and κηλη; *ſar-*, Fr.] A fleſhy excreſcence of the teſticles, h ſometimes grows ſo large as to ſtretch the um much beyond its natural ſize. *Quincy.*

.) SAROCELE. See SURGERY, *Index.*

ARCOCOLLA, a concrete juice brought Perſia and Arabia, in ſmall whitiſh yellow s, with a few of a reddiſh, and ſometimes of a deep red colour mixed with them; the whiteſt tears are preferred, as being the freſheſt: its taſte is bitter, accompanied with a dull kind of ſweetneſs. This drug diſſolves in watery liquors, and appears chiefly to be of the gummy kind, with a ſmall admixture of reſinous matter. It is principally celebrated for conglutinating wounds and ulcers; (whence its name σαρκοκολλα, *fleſh-glue*;) a quality which neither this nor any other drug has any juſt title to.

SARCOLOGY, *n. ſ.* is that part of anatomy which treats of the ſoft parts, *viz.* the muſcles, inteſtines, arteries, veins, nerves, and fat. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

(1.) * SARCOMA. *n. ſ.* [σαρκωμα.] A fleſhy excreſcence, or lump, growing in any part of the body, eſpecially the noſtrils. *Bailey.*

(2.) SARCOMA. See SURGERY, *Index.*

* SARCOPHAGOUS. *adj.* [σαρξ and φαγω.] Fleſh-eating; feeding on fleſh.

(1.) SARCOPHAGUS, in antiquity, a ſort of ſtone coffin or grave, wherein the ancients laid thoſe they had not a mind to burn. The word, as derived from the Greek, literally ſignifies *fleſh-eater*; becauſe at firſt they uſed a ſort of ſtone for the making of tombs, which quickly conſumed the bodies. See N° 2.

(2.) SARCOPHAGUS, or *Lapis Aſſius*, in the natural hiſtory of the ancients, a ſtone much uſed among the Greeks in their ſepultures, is recorded to have always perfectly conſumed the fleſh of human bodies buried in it in 40 days. This property it was much famed for, and all the ancient naturaliſts mention it. There was another very ſingular quality alſo in it, but whether in all, or only in ſome peculiar pieces of it, is not known; that is, its turning into ſtone any thing that was put into veſſels made of it. This is recorded only by Mutianus and Theophraſtus, except that Pliny had copied it from theſe authors, and ſome of the later writers from him. The account Mutianus gives of it is, that it converted into ſtone the ſhoes of perſons buried in it, and the utenſils which it was in ſome places cuſtomary to bury with the dead. The utenſils this author mentions, are ſuch as muſt have been made of very different materials; and hence it appears that its petrifying quality extended to ſubſtances of very different kinds. Whether it really poſſeſſed this laſt quality has been much doubted. Its taking place on ſubſtances of very different kinds and textures, is no real objection, the account has probably truth in it. Petrifactions in thoſe early days might not be diſtinguiſhed from incruſtations of ſparry and ſtony matter on the ſurfaces of bodies only, as we find they are not with many perſons even to this day; the incruſtations of ſpar on moſſes, &c. in ſprings, being ſtill called by many *petrified moſs*, &c. Incruſtations like theſe might eaſily be formed on ſubſtances encloſed in veſſels made of this ſtone, by water paſſing through its pores, diſlodging from the common maſs of the ſtone, and carrying with it particles of ſuch ſpar as it contained; and afterwards falling in repeated drops on whatever lay in its way, it might again depoſit them on ſuch ſubſtances in form of incruſtations. Thus things made of ever ſo different matter, which happened

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ed to be incloſed, and in the way of the paſſage of the water, would be equally incruſted with, and in appearance turned into ſtone. The place from whence the ancients tell us they had this ſtone was Aſſos, a city of Lycia, in the neighbourhood of which it was dug; and De Boot informs us, that in that country, and in ſome parts of the Eaſt, there are alſo ſtones of this kind, which, if tied to the bodies of living perſons, would in the ſame manner conſume their fleſh. *Hill's Notes on Theophraſtus*, p. 14.

* SARCOPHAGY. *n. ſ.* [σαρξ and φαγω.] The practice of eating fleſh.—There was no *ſarcophagy* before the flood. *Brown.*

* SARCOTICK. *n. ſ.* [from σαρξ; *ſarcotique*, Fr.] Medicines which fill up ulcers with new fleſh, the ſame as incarnatives.—The ulcer incarned with common *ſarcoticks*. *Wiſeman.*

* SARCULATION. *n. ſ.* [*ſarculus*, Latin.] The act of weeding; plucking up weeds. *Dict.*

SARCUS, a town of France, in the department of the Oiſe; 3 miles NW. of Grandvilliers.

SARDAM, a ſea port town of the Batavian republic, in the department of the Amſtel, and late province of Holland, famous for ſhip-building, and for its vaſt magazines of naval ſtores, timber, &c. It is chiefly inhabited by ſhip-wrights, who ſhow the hut, in which Peter the Great of Ruſſia reſided 3 years, when he wrought as a ſhip-wright in this town. Sardam is ſeated on the N. bank of the Wye; 5 miles NW. of Amſterdam, and 15 S. of Alemaer. Lon. 4. 45. E. Lat. 52. 28. N.

(1.) SARDANAPALUS, the laſt king of Aſſyria, whoſe character is one of the moſt infamous in hiſtory. He is ſaid to have ſunk ſo far in depravity, that, as far as he could, he changed his very ſex and nature. He clothed himſelf as a woman, and ſpun amidſt companies of his concubines. He painted his face, and behaved in a more lewd manner than the moſt laſcivious harlot. In ſhort, he buried himſelf in the moſt unbounded ſenſuality. Having grown odious to his ſubjects, a rebellion was formed againſt him by Arbaces, the Mede, and Beleſis, the Babyloniun. They were attended, however, with very bad ſucceſs at firſt, being defeated with great ſlaughter in three pitched battles. With great difficulty Beleſis prevailed upon his men to keep the field only five days longer; when they were joined by the Bactrians, who had come to the aſſiſtance of Sardanapalus, but had been prevailed upon to renounce their allegiance to him. With this reinforcement they twice defeated the troops of Sardanapalus, who ſhut himſelf up in Nineveh, the capital of his empire. The city held out for three years; at the end of which, Sardanapalus dreading to fall into the hands of an enraged enemy, retired into his palace, in a court of which he cauſed a vaſt pile of wood to be raiſed; and heaping upon it all his gold and ſilver, and royal apparel, and at the ſame time incloſing his eunuchs and concubines in an apartment within the pile, he ſet fire to it, and ſo deſtroyed himſelf and all together.

(2.) SARDANAPALUS, another monarch of Aſſyria, mentioned by Cleitarchus, who died of old age. Sir Iſaac Newton ſuppoſes him to be the ſame with Eſarhaddon. See ESARHADDON.

* SARDEL. SARDINE STONE. SARDIUS. *n. ſ.* A ſort of precious ſtone.—He that ſat was to look upon, like a jaſper and a *ſardine ſtone*. *Rev.* iv.—Thou ſhalt ſet in it four rows of ſtones; the firſt row ſhall be a *ſardius*. *Exod.* xxviii. 17.

SARDES. See SARDIS.

SARDI, the ancient inhabitants of Sardinia.

SARDICA, an ancient town of Thrace.

SARDINA, a town in the iſland of Sardinia; 18 miles ESE. of Oriſtagni.

* SARDINE STONE. See SARDEL.

SARDINIA, an iſland of the Mediterranean, bounded by the ſtrait which divides it from Corſica on the N. by the Tuſcan ſea, which flows between this iſland and Italy, on the E. and by other parts of the Mediterranean ſea on the S. and W. It is about 140 miles in length, and 70 in breadth, and contains 420,000 inhabitants. The revenue ariſes chiefly from a duty upon oil, and is barely ſufficient to defray the expences of government. The ſoil produces wine, corn, and oil, in abundance. Moſt of the ſalt that is exported is ſold to the Danes and Swedes. A profitable tunny fiſhery is carried on at the SW. part of the iſland, but it is monopolized by the Duke de St Pierre, and a few others who are proprietors of the adjoining land. Wild boars abound in the hills, and ſome deer, not ſo large as thoſe in Britain, but in colour and ſhape the ſame. Horſes, beeves, and ſheep, are alſo common. The feudal ſyſtem ſtill ſubſiſts in a limited degree, and titles go with their eſtates, ſo that the poſſeſſor of the latter inherits the former. The regular troops ſeldom exceed 2000 men; but the militia amount to near 26,000, of whom 11,000 are cavalry. Their horſes are ſmall, but uncommonly active. The country people are generally armed; but notwithſtanding their having been ſo long under the Spaniſh and Italian government, aſſaſſinations are by no means frequent; and yet by the laws of the country, if a man ſtabs another without premeditated malice, within four hours after quarrelling with him, he is not liable to be proſecuted. On the other hand, the church affords no protection to the guilty. The Sardinians are not at all bigoted; and, next to the Spaniards, the Engliſh are their favourites. The iſland is ſubject to the king of Sardinia, and is all that remains of his ancient poſſeſſions; SAVOY, the PIEDMONTESE, MONFERRAT, &c. being annexed to the overgrown French empire; without its having received any ſhare of the *Indemnities* ſo long boaſted of. See CAGLIARI. There is in this iſland a pleaſing variety of hills and valleys, and the ſoil is generally fruitful; but the inhabitants cultivate little of it. On the coaſt there is a fiſhery of anchovies and coral, of which they ſend large quantities to Genoa and Leghorn. The iſland is divided into two parts; the one, called Cape *Cagliari*, lies to the ſouth; and the other, Cape *Lugary*, which is ſeated to the north. The principal towns are Cagliari, the capital, Oriſtagno, and Saſſari.

SARDINIAN, *adj.* Of, or belonging to, Sardinia.

SARDINIANS, *n. ſ.* the natives of Sardinia.

SARDIS, or SARDES, now called SARDO or SART, is an ancient town of Aſia, in Natolia, at the

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40 miles E. of Smyrna. It was much celeed in early antiquity, was enriched by the lity of the ſoil, and had been the capital of Lydian kings. It was ſeated on the ſide of nt Tmolus; and the citadel, placed on a lofill, was remarkable for its great ſtrength. It the ſeat of King Crœſus, and was in his time n by Cyrus; (See CROESUS, LYDIA, and SIA, § 5;) after which the Perſian Satrap or mandant reſided at Sardis as the emperor did ſia. The city was alſo taken, burnt, and eated by the Mileſians in the time of Darius, the city and fortreſs ſurrendered on the apch of Alexander after the battle of the Granicus. er the Romans, Sardis was a very conſiderplace till the time of Tiberius Cæſar, when it red prodigiouſly by an earthquake: The muence of the emperor, however, was nobly exd to repair the damages. Julian attempted ſtore the heathen worſhip in the place. He ted temporary altars where none had been and repaired the temples where any veſtiges ained. In the year 400 it was plundered by Goths, and it ſuffered conſiderably in the ſubent troubles of Aſia. On the incurſion of Tartars in 1304, the Turks were permitted ccupy a portion of the citadel, ſeparated by a ng wall with a gate, and were afterwards dered in their ſleep. The ſite of this once le city is now green and flowery, the whole g reduced to a poor village. See SARDO. re are, however, ſome curious remains of anity about it, and ſome ruins which diſplay its ent grandeur. See *Chandler's Travels in Aſia or*, p. 251, &c.

t.) * SARDIUS. See SARDEL.

t.) *The* SARDIUS, SARDEL, or SARDINE STONE, a precious ſtone of a blood red colour. The came from Babylon.

ARDO, one of the modern names of SARDIS. now a poor village, containing only a few tched huts. There is, however, a large caraſary, where travellers may commodiouſly ge. The inhabitants are generally ſhepherds, lead their ſheep into the fine paſtures of the ghbouring plain. The Turks have a moſque , which was a Chriſtian church, at the gate of ch there are ſeveral columns of poliſhed marThere are a few Chriſtans, who are employn gardening. Lon. 28. 5. E. Lat. 37. 51. N.

ARDOAL, a town of Portugal, in the proce of Eſtremadura; 2 miles N. of Abrantes.

ARDONES, an ancient nation of Gaul, who abited the country ſince called ROUSSILLON, he foot of the Pyrenean mountains.

ARDONIA HERBA, a ſpecies of RANUNCU. See the next article.

ARDONIAN LAUGHTER, } a convulſive in-
ARDONIUS RISUS, } voluntary laugh: thus named from the herba ſardonia, which ſpecies of RANUNCULUS, and is ſaid to proe ſuch convulſive motions in the cheeks, as reble thoſe motions which are obſerved in the during a fit of laughter. This complaint is metimes ſpeedily fatal. If the ranunculus happs to be the cauſe, the cure muſt be attempted means of a vomit, and frequent draughts of hromel with milk.

(1.) * SARDONYX. *n. ſ.* A precious ſtone.—The onyx is an accidental variety of the agat kind: 'tis of a dark horny colour, in which is a plate of a bluiſh white, and ſometimes of red: when on one or both ſides the white there happens to lie alſo a plate of a reddiſh colour, the jewellers call the ſtone a *ſardonyx*. *Woodward.*

(2.) *The* SARDONYX is a precious ſtone conſiſting of a mixture of the chalcedony and carnelian, ſometimes in ſtrata, but at other times blended together. It is found, 1. Striped with white and red ſtrata, which may be cut in *cameo* as well as the onyx. 2. White with red dentritical figures, greatly reſembling the mocha ſtone; but with this difference, that the figures in the ſardonyx are of a red colour, in the other black. There is no real difference, excepting in the circumſtance of hardneſs, between the onyx, carnelian, chalcedony, ſardonyx, and agate, notwithſtanding the different names beſtowed upon them. Mongez informs us, that the yellow, or orange-coloured agates, with a wavy or undulating ſurface, are now commonly called ſardonyx. See CARNELIAN, and ONYX, § 1, 2.

SARDUS, a ſon of Hercules, who led a colony to SARDINIA, and gave the iſland its name.

(1.) SARE, or SARRE. See SARRE.

(2.) SARE, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Pyrenees; 6 miles SE. of St Jean de Luz.

SARECTO, a town of N. Carolina, the capital of Duplin county, ſeated on the NE. branch of Cape Fear River. It contains a court-houſe, jail, &c. A county court is held in it, in January, April, June, and October. It lies 130 miles N. of Wilmington.

SAREN, a town of Peru, in Chili. Lat. 29. 40. S.

SARENA, a town of France, in the department of the Loiret; 6 miles N. of Orleans.

SAREPHTA, in ancient geography, a town of Phœnicia, between Tyre and Sidon; now called SARFAND.

SAREPTA, a town of Ruſſia, in the province of Saratovſkoi; 8 miles S. of Tzaritzin.

SARFA, a town of Arabia, in the province of Hedsjas; 184 miles ENE. of Mecca.

SARFAND, } or SHARFEND, a town of Paleſ-
SARFEND, } tine, near the ſea coaſt, anciently called SAREPHTA; 8 miles S. of Saida.

(1.) SARGANS, a ci-devant county of Switzerland, in the canton of Zurich, anciently governed by its own counts. It is about 15 miles ſquare, and being very mountainous, breeds and fattens great numbers of cattle. The valleys abound in corn and fruit trees. The mountains abound with 3 kinds of excellent iron ore, black, red, and aſh-coloured, which on fuſion, without any addition, yield fine ſteel. The inhabitants are a mixture of Calviniſts and Roman catholics.

(2.) SARGANS, a town of the Helvetic republic, capital of the above territory. It has a caſtle, ſeated on a rock on the top of a hill, near ſome famous mineral ſprings. It lies 42 miles S. of Conſtance, and 45 ESE. of Zurich. Lon. 27. 5. E. Ferro. Lat. 47. 1. N.

SARGEL, a large and ancient ſea port town of Africa, in Tremeſen; with a caſtle, ſeated on the ſea coaſt, 25 miles from Algiers; memorable for

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the defeat of the celebrated Andrew Doria, by Barbaroſſa. Lon. 2. 15. W. Lat. 36. 30. N.

SARGNAC, a town of France, in the department of the Gard; 6 miles NE. of Niſmes.

SARGON. See ESARHADDON.

SARGUEMINE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Moſelle, and ci-devant prov. of Lorrain, ſeated on the Sarre; 9 miles from Sarbruck, and 12 SW. of Deux Ponts. Lon. 7. 13. E. Lat. 49. 8. N.

SARGUS, in ichthyology. See SPARUS.

(1.) SARI. See PAPYRUS, N° 2.

(2.) SARI, in geography, an ancient town of Perſia, in the province of Mezanderàn; 20 miles from Ferabad, ſeated in a fertile country, abounding with oranges, rice, cotton, ſilk, ſugar-canes, &c.

SARIBROD, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria; 28 miles WNW. of Sophia.

SARJEANT, John, an Engliſh Roman Catholic prieſt, born in Lincolnſhire about 1621, and educated at Cambridge. His real name was SMITH. He became ſecretary to the biſhop of Durham, but in 1642, went to Liſbon, and changed his religion. In 1652, he returned to England, and publiſhed ſeveral books againſt the Proteſtant religion. He died about 1662.

SARIGAN, one of the MARIANA Iſlands, in the E. Indian Ocean; 120 miles N. of Tinian.

SARIGGIOLA, a town of European Turkey, in Macedonia; 20 miles S. of Edeſſa.

SARIGNAN, one of the Mariana Iſlands, 18 miles from Guam.

SARIMPATAM, a country of Indoſtan, lying at the back of the dominions of the Samorin of Malabar, and which was never ſubdued by any foreign power. Mr Groſe relates, that "it has been conſtantly a maxim with the inhabitants of this country never to make any but a defenſive war; and even then, not to kill any of their adverſaries in battle, but to cut off their noſes. To this ſervice the military were peculiarly trained up, and the dread of the deformity proved ſufficiently ſtrong to keep their neighbours, not much more martial than themſelves, from effectually attacking them."

SARINENA, a town of Spain, in Arragon; 26 miles SW. of Balbaſtro.

SARIPHI, in ancient geography, mountains on the E. of the Caſpian Sea.

SARISBURIENSIS, Joannes, or SARISBURY, John of, an Engliſh writer, one of the ſhining lights of the dark age, in which he lived. He was born at Rocheſter about 1110, and went to France, in 1126. He was ſent by Henry II. to pope Eugenius, and was much patroniſed by him and his ſucceſſor, and by Thomas Becket, the chancellor, whom he accompanied in his travels to France. When Becket was murdered, (ſee BECKET, N° 2.) Sariſbury was ſeverely wounded in the arm, defending him. He afterwards went to France, where he was made Bp. of Chartres, in 1179. He died about 1184. He wrote, 1. *Policraticon, ſive de nugis Curialium, et veſtigiis philoſophorum:* 2. Letters: 3. The Life of Thomas Becket: and 4. A Treatiſe upon Logic and Philoſophy.

SARIZKO, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Toboiſk; 400 miles N. of Tarchan. Lon. 102. 12. E. Ferro. Lat. 72. 10. N.

(1.) * SARK. *n. ſ.* [*ſeyrt*, Saxon.] 1. A ſhirt or ſhirk. 2. In Scotland it denotes a ſhift. Flaunting beaus gang with their breaſts open, and their *ſarks* over their waiſtcoats. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) SARK, in geography, a Britiſh iſland in the Engliſh Channel, near the coaſt of France; about 6 miles E. of Guernſey, on which it is dependent, and W. of Jerſey. The climate is healthy, and the land, though ſandy, ſufficiently fertile to produce proviſions for its inhabitants. It is about 3 miles ſquare, and contains about 300 inhabitants.

(3.) SARK, a river of Scotland, which riſes in the E. part of Dumfrieſſhire, and for many miles forms the boundary between Scotland and England. It falls into the Solway Moſs a mile to the mouth of the Eſk.

(4.) SARK, another river of Scotland, deſcribed by Mr Cruttwell, as "formed of 2 branches, the White and *Black*, which runs into the Eden, 4 miles below Carliſle."

(5.) SARK, LITTLE, a ſmall iſland, S. of Sark.

SARKFOOT, a ſmall village of Scotland, in Dumfrieſſhire, in the pariſh of Graitney, at the mouth of the SARK. (N° 3.) It has a good harbour, which admits veſſels of 120 tons.

SARLAT, a town of France, in the department of the Dordogne, and ci-devant province of Perigord, ſeated in a valley ſurrounded by mountains; containing about 4500 citizens: 27 miles SE. of Perigueux, 30 NW. of Cahors, and 15 E. by N. of Bourdeaux. Lon. 1. 19. E. Lat. 44. 53. N.

SALINGBACH, a town of Germany in the archduchy of Auſtria; 7 miles S. of Aigen.

SAR-LOUIS, a town of France, in the department of Moſelle and ci-devant province of Lorrain, on a peninſula formed by the Sarre; built by Lewis XIV. and fortified by Vauban: 10 miles E. Thionville, and 32 NE. Metz. Lon. 6. 40. E. Lat. 49. 21. N.

SARMACAND. See MARACANDA, and SAMARCAND.

SARMATÆ, or SAUROMATÆ, the ancient inhabitants of SARMATIA. (*Juvenal.*) See an account of their language under PHILOLOGY, *Sect.* XII.

SARMATIA, in ancient geography, an extenſive country at the North of Europe and Aſia, being partly in the former and partly in the latter; comprehending, all POLAND, RUSSIA, MUSCOVY, and moſt part of TARTARY. (*Littleton.*) It was divided into *European* and *Aſiatic*.

1. SARMATIA, ASIATIC, was bounded by Scythia, the Tanais, and the Euxine Sea. It contained Great Tartary, Circaſſia, and the neighbouring country.

2. SARMATIA, EUROPEAN, was bounded by the Ocean on the N. Tanais on the E. the Hypanis on the S. and the Viſtula on the W. It contained the modern countries of Ruſſia, Poland, Lithuania, and Little Tartary. *Longman.*

SARMATIANS, SARMATÆ, the ancient inhabitants of SARMATIA. They were a brave and civilized nation, often confounded with the Scythians, naturally warlike, and famous for painting their bodies to appear more terrible in battle.

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They were infamous for their lewdneſs, and were ſled by the Greeks and Romans *Barbarians*. In ne time of the emperors they became very pow-rful; and diſturbed the empire by their frequent ncurſions; till at laſt increaſed by the ſavage ordes of Scythia, under the barbarous names of uns, Vandals, Goths, Alans, &c. they ſucceſs-lly invaded, and at laſt ruined the empire, in the d and 4th centuries. They generally lived on the ountains, without houſes, except their chariots, hence they were called *Hamaxobii*. They lived pon plunder, and fed upon milk mixed with the lood of horſes. *Lempriere*, *Strabo* 7, *Mela* ii. 4. *Mod.* 2. *Flor.* 4. *Lucan*, 1. *Juv.* 2. &c.

SARMATIAN SEA, } a name given to the
SARMATICUM MARE, } Euxine Sea, becauſe n the coaſt of Sarmatia. *Ovid.*

SARMENTOSÆ, [from *ſarmentum*, a long hoot like that of a vine.] the 11th claſs in Linæus's Fragments of a Natural Method. See Bo-ANY, *Index*.

SARMISK, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Chrudim; 12 miles ENE. of Chrudim.

* SARN. *n. ſ.* A Britiſh word for pavement, r ſtepping ſtones, ſtill uſed in the ſame ſenſe in Berkſhire and Hampſhire.

SARNACHE, a town of Portugal, in the pro-ince of Eſtremadura: 18 miles NE. of Thomar.

SARNEN, a town of the Helvetic republic, in he canton of Underwalden, near a lake ſo nam-d, 9 miles S. of Lucern. It had a ſtrong caſtle, but it was demoliſhed by the peaſants in 1308.

SARNGANG, a town of Germany, in impe-ial Auſtria: 2 miles SSE. of Entzerſtorf.

SARNIUS, a river of Aſia, near Hyrcania.

(1.) SARNO, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra, with a biſhop's ſee, near the ſource of the Sarno, 12 miles NE. of Salerno, (or NW. as Mr Cruttwell has it,) and 20 SE. of Naples. It has 5 churches and 5 monaſteries; and collects about 1000 lb. weight of fine ſilk annually. Lon. 14. 19. E. Lat. 40. 46. N.

(2.) SARNO, a river of Naples, which riſes near he above town, and falls into the Mediterranean, 10 miles SSE. of Naples.

SARNUS, in ancient geography, a river of Italy in Picenum, dividing it from Campania, and falling into the Tuſcan ſea; now called SARNO. *Stat.* 1. *Strabo* 5.

SARN-Y-BUCH, a cape of N. Wales, in Merionethſhire, on the W. coaſt: 17 miles N. of Aberyſtwith.

SAROKA, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia, near the Dnieſter; 76 miles ENE. of Stephanowze, and 84 NNW. of Benda.

SARON. See the next article.

SARONICUS SINUS, the SARONIC BAY, in ancient geography, a bay of the Ægean Sea, on the S. of Attica, and N. of Peloponneſus; ſo named from SARON king of Trœzene, who was drowned in it, ſwimming after a ſtag. The entry to it was between the promontories of Sunium and Scylla. It is 25 miles long, 23 broad, and 62 in circumference.

(1.) SAROS, a town and ſtrong fort of Upper Hungary, in a county ſo named, ſeated on the Tariza, at the foot of Mount Krapach, 6 miles miles NW. of Eperies. There is a poiſonous mineral ſpring near it.

(2.) SAROS, in chronology, a period of 223 lunar months. The etymology of the word is ſaid to be Chaldean, ſignifying *reſtitution*, or *return of eclipſes*; that is, conjunctions of the ſun and moon in nearly the ſame place of the ecliptic. The Saros was a cycle like that of Meto.

SAROTHRA, in botany, *Baſtard Gentian*; a genus of the trigynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 20th order, *Rotaceæ*. The corolla is pentapetalous; the capſule unilocular, trivalved, and coloured.

SARP, or SARPEN, a town of Norway, in Chriſtianſand, near a tremendous cataract, which king Harold firſt uſed, in 1134, for the execution of criminals by throwing them down into it. There is an eminence cloſe by the cataract, called *Konigs-bugel*, becauſe 3 kings of Norway, father, ſon, and grandſon, once ſtood upon it, to view this ſurpriſing cataract, which makes ſuch a noiſe that it is heard at 20 miles diſtance. It turns 27 mills. Sarp lies 10 miles WSW. of Frederickſtadt. Lon. 10. 47. E. Lat. 59. 9. N.

SARPA, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Volga, near Tzaritzin.

(1.) SARPEDON, in fabulous hiſtory, the ſon of Jupiter by Europa, and younger brother of Minos, with whom he ſtood competitor for the kingdom of Crete. Failing in that attempt he went to Caria, and built Miletus.

(2.) SARPEDON, another ſon of Jupiter by Laodamia, daughter of Bellerophon, flouriſhed about a century later than the brother of Minos. He went to the Trojan war to aſſiſt King Priam againſt the Greeks, where he was attended by his faithful friend Glaucus. He made a great ſlaughter of the Greeks; but was at laſt killed by Patroclus. *Apollod.* iii. c. 1. *Herodot.* 1. c. 173. *Homer. Il.* 16.

(3—5.) SARPEDON, in ancient geography, a town and promontory of Cilicia. *Livy*, 38. c. 38. Alſo a promontory of Thrace.

SARPEN. See SARP.

SARPI. See PAUL V.

SARPLAR OF WOOL, a quantity of wool, otherwiſe called a *pocket* or *half-ſack*; a ſack containing 80 tod; a tod two ſtone; and a ſtone 14 pounds.—In Scotland it is called *ſarpliath*, and contains 80 ſtone.

* SARPLIER. *n. ſ.* [*ſarpilliere*, French.] A piece of canvas for wrapping up wares; a packing-cloth. *Bailey.*

(1.) SARRA, in ancient geography, a name of TYRE.

(2.) SARRA, in modern geography, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Berne: 9 miles SSW. of Yverdun, and 20 NW. of Lauſanne.

(3.) SARRA MANRAY, or SAMARRA, a city of Irak Arabic, built by Al Motaſem. See SARACENS, § 17.

SARRACENA, or } in botany, SIDE-SADDLE
SARRACONIA, } FLOWER, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the polyandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method rank-

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ing under the 54th order, *Miſcellaneæ*. The corolla is pentapetalous; the calyx is double, and triphyllous below; pentaphyllous above; the capſule quinquelocular; the ſtyle has a ſtigma of the form of a ſhield.

SARRANCOLIN, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Pyrenees: 7 miles S. of Barthe.

SARRASIN, or SARRAZIN, in fortification, a kind of port-cullis, otherwiſe called a herſe, which is hung with ropes over the gate of a town or fortreſs, to be let fall in caſe of a ſurpriſe.

(1.) * SARRASINE. *n. ſ.* [In botany.] A kind of birthwort. *Bailey.*

(2.) SARRASINE, in botany. See SENECIO, N° 4.

SARRASTES, an ancient people of Italy, in Campania, on the Sarnus; who aſſiſted Turnus againſt Æneas, *Virg. Æn.* vii, 738.

(1.) SARRE, SAAR, SAR, or SARE, a river of the French empire, which riſes in the department of the Voſges, and ci-devant province of Lorrain, paſſes by Sarburg, Feneſtrange, Sarwerden, Bouquenon, Sar-Albe, Sar-Louis, Sarburg in Treves, &c. and runs into the Moſelle near Treves.

(2.) SARRE, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Pyrenees: 9 miles E. of St Jean de Luz.

(3.) SARRE, a department of the French empire, one of the four departments, into which the conquered German territories on the left or W. bank of the Rhine were divided in 1798; and which were finally ceded to the French republic, by the treaties of Luneville and Amiens. It comprehends the ci-devant electorate of Treves, and ſome adjacent territories. TREVES is the capital.

SARREAL, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, ſeated on the Francoli; near which are quarries of alabaſter, ſo tranſparent that windows are glazed with it. Lon. 2. 0. E. Lat. 41. 30. N.

SARRI, a town of the French empire, in the iſland and department of Corſica: 11 miles N. of Ajazzo.

SARRIA, a town of Spain, in the province of Galicia: 12 miles SSE. of Lugo.

SARS, a town of Spain, near Cape Finiſtere.

(1.) * SARSA. See SARSAPARILLA.

(2.) SARSA, in geography, a town of Spain, in Arragon, 14 miles S. of Jaca.

(1.) SARSANA, or ZARZANA, a town of the Ligurian republic, ſeated on the Magra; 45 miles ESE. of Genoa, and 60 NW. of Florence. Lon. 27. 40. E. of Ferro. Lat. 44. 8. N.

(2.) SARSANA, SARSINA, or ZARSINA, a town of the *kingdom* of Italy, now (*March* 1805,) no longer a *republic*. As the geography of the Italian kingdom, however, is not yet altered, we ſhall ſtill ſtate this town as in the department of the Rubicon, and ci-devant province of Romagna. Sarſana lies 10 miles SW. of Rimini, according to Dr Brookes, or only 11 WSW. as Cruttwell has it, and 127 N. of Rome, or 138 NW. of that city, as Brookes has it. Lon. 12. 14. E. Lat. 43. 59. N.

(1.) * SARSAPARILLA. *n. ſ.* Both a tree and an herb. *Ainſworth.*

(2.) SARSAPARILLA, in botany. See SMILAX.

* SARSE. *n. ſ.* Perhaps becauſe made of *farcenet*. A ſort of fine lawn ſieve. *Bailey.*

* *To* SARSE. *v. a.* [*ſaſſer*, French.] To ſift through a ſarſe or ſearſe. *Bailey.*

(1.) SARSINA, an ancient town of Italy, in Umbria; famous for being the birth-place of PLAUTUS. *Plin.* iii. 14.

(2.) SARSINA. See SARSANA, N° 2.

SARSINATES, the inhabitants of SARSINA.

SARSTADT, or SARSTEDE, } a town of Lower Saxony, 6 miles SE. of Hildeſheim; 4 miles NE. of Peina.

(1.) SART, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in Natolia, the ancient Sardis. See SARDIS.

(2.) * SART. *n. ſ.* [In agriculture.] A piece of woodland turned into arable. *Bailey.*

(1.) SARTE, a river of France, which riſes near Sees, in the department of Orne, paſſes by Alençon, Frenay, Beaumont, Guerche, Mans, Sable, and joins the Maine near Angers; and 4 miles below the united ſtream falls into the Loire.

(2.) SARTE, a department of France, comprehending the ci-devant province of MAINE. It is bounded on the N. by the department of the Orne, E. by thoſe of the Eure and Loire, and the Loire and Cher; S. by thoſe of the Indre and Loire, and Maine and Loire; and W. by that of the Maine. The form is nearly circular. It is about 50 miles long from N. to S. and 45 broad from E. to W. MANS is the capital.

SARTILLY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel: 5 miles NW. of Avranches, and 7 SE. of Granville.

SARTO, Andrew DE, an eminent Italian painter, born at Florence in 1478. He was admired for the delicacy of his drapery, correctneſs of deſign, and faithfulneſs in copying.

SARTOR, an iſland of Norway, 15 miles long and 3 broad: 8 miles W. of Bergen.

SARTORIUS, in Anatomy. See ANATOMY, N° 216, N° 5.

SARVAN, a town of Perſia; 114 miles NE. of Zareng.

SARVAR, or SARWAR, a town and fort of Hungary, at the conflux of the Raab and Gunz: 28 miles SSE. of Vienna, and 37 SSE. of Preſburg. Lon. 16. 48. E. Lat. 47. 30. N.

SARVASKO, a caſtle of Hungary; 13 miles N. of Erlau.

SARVERDEN, a town of France, in the dep. of Moſelle, and ci-devant province of Lorrain: ſeated on the Sarre; 10 miles from Sarbruck. Lon. 7. 10. E. Lat. 48. 59. N.

SARVITZ, a river of Hungary, which riſes 6 miles NNE. of Stuhl Weiſſenburg, and falls into a branch of the Danube, 5 miles below Baja.

SARVITZA, a town and fort of European Turkey, in Macedonia: 30 miles NE. of Larida.

(1.) SARUM, NEW. See SALISBURY, N° 1.

(2.) SARUM, OLD, an ancient borough of England, in Wiltſhire, about one mile N. of New Sarum, or Saliſbury. It has the ruins of a fort which belonged to the ancient Britons; and is ſaid alſo to have been a Roman ſtation. It has a double intrenchment, with a deep ditch. It is of an orbicular form, and has a very auguſt look, being erected on one of the moſt elegant places for a fortreſs that can be imagined. In the NW. angle ſtood the palace of the biſhop, whoſe ſee was removed hither from Wilton and Sherborn; but the biſhop quarrelling with King Stephen, he ſeized the caſtle and put a garriſon into it, which was the principal cauſe of its deſtruction, as the ſe

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was soon after removed from hence to Salisbury in 1219. The area of this ancient city is fixed on an artificial hill, whose walls were 3 miles thick, the ruins of which in many places in circumference are still to be seen, and the streets of the streets and cathedral church may be distinguished out by the different colour of the corn growing where once the city stood. Here synods and parliaments have formerly been held, and hither were the states of the kingdom summoned to take fidelity to William the Conqueror. Here was a palace of the British and Saxon kings, and of the Roman emperors; which was deserted in the reign of Henry III. for want of water, so that one farm-house is all that is left of this ancient city; yet it is called the *Borough of Old Sarum* and sends two members to parliament, who are chosen by the proprietors of certain adjacent lands. In Feb. 1795 a subterraneous passage was discovered at this place, of which an account is given in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for March. The flight of steps led downwards 30 yards, under a crooked way dug out of the solid rock, 7 feet wide. There were 2 large square stone pillars at the entrance, 18 inches by 27; of which the masonry was neat: but nothing interesting was discovered.

SARUS, a river of Cappadocia. *Liv.* 33. c. 41.

SARWAR. See SARVAR.

SARWERDEN. See SARVERDEN.

SARZANA. See SARSANA, N° 1.

SARZANELLO, a town of the Ligurian republic, seated on a mountain of the same name: 3 miles N. of Sarsana.

SARZEAU, a town of France, in the dep. of Morbihan; 7½ miles S. of Vannes, and 18 W. of Roche Bernard.

SARZEDAS, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira: 11 miles NW. of Castel Branco.

SAS, or SAS DE GHENT, a town and fort of the French empire, in the department of the Escaldt, and late province of Austrian Flanders, seated on a canal from Ghent to the Escaldt; regularly fortified, with sluices, by which the county can be laid under water. The Dutch took it from the Spaniards, in 1644. It was taken by the French in 1747, but restored at the peace of Aix la Chapelle. It was finally taken by the French republicans in Aug. 1794. It is 7 miles N. of Ghent, and 25 W. of Antwerp.

SASAMON, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 3 miles NW. of Burgos.

SASANDA, an ancient town of Caria.

SASCAVETZ, a town of Hungary, near the Danube: 8 miles SW. of Csakathurn.

SASERAM, a large town of Hindoostan, in Benar or Bahar according to Mr Cruttwell) at the foot of a mountain near a great lake, in which is an island, with a magnificent mausoleum of the emperor Shere Shah. It is 55 miles SE. of Benares and 75 SW. of Patna. Lon. 86. 44. E. Lat. 26. 10. N.

SASH. *n. s.* [Of this word the etymologists give no account: I suppose it comes from the French, of *sçavoir*, to know, a *sash* worn being a mark of distinction; and a *sash* window being made particularly for the sake of seeing and being seen.] 1. A belt worn by way of distinction; a silken band worn by officers in the army. 2. A window so formed as to be let up and down by pullies.—

She ventures now to lift the *sash*. *Swift.*

—She broke a pane in the *sash* window. *Swift.*

(2.) SASHES, in military dress, are worn by the officers of most nations, either round their waist or over their shoulders. Those for the British army are made of crimson silk: for the Imperial army crimson and gold; for the Prussian army black silk and silver; the Hanoverians yellow silk; the Portuguese crimson silk with blue tassels.

* SASHOON. *n. s.* A kind of leather stuffing put into a boot for the wearer's ease. *Ainsworth.*

SASINE, or SEISIN. See LAW, *Part* III. *Chap.* II. *Sect.* III. § 9—15.

SASKACHAWAN, or SASKASHAWEN, } a river of N. America, which runs E. and joining with Nelson's River, falls into Hudson's Bay.

SASKO, a fortress of Hungary, on the Gran; 7 miles S. of Kremnitz.

SASON, in ancient geography; 1. A barren island at the entrance of the Adriatic Sea, between Brundusium and Aulon, on the coast of Greece: 2. A river of Italy, running into the Adriatic.

(1.) SASSA. See MYRRH, OPOCALPASUM, and *Bruce's Travels*, Vol. V. p. 27, &c.

(2.) SASSA, in geography, a town of Naples in Abruzzo Ultra; 7 miles SSW. of Aquila.

(1.) * SASSAFRAS. *n. s.* A tree. The wood is medicinal.

(2.) SASSAFRAS, in botany. See LAURUS, N° 10.

(3.) SASSAFRAS, in geography, a navigable river of Maryland, in the Eastern Shore. It rises in Newcastle county in Delaware state; and thence running W. by S. about 16 miles, falls into Chesapeak Bay.

SASSANO, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra; 11 miles N. of Policastro.

SASSARI, a city of Sardinia, on the river Torres, the capital of the territory of Lugari. It is an archbishop's see, and has a castle, a famous fountain, said to excel the best in Rome, 16 convents, and about 30,000 inhabitants. It is seated in a plain, 6 miles N. of Alghero, 54 N. of Oristagni, and 88 NNW. of Cagliari. Lon. 8. 39. E. Lat. 40. 46. N.

SASSEBES, a town and county of Transylvania, at the conflux of two rivulets, which run into the Maroch. Lon. 26. 40. E. Lat. 46. 26. N.

SASSELLO, a town of the Ligurian republic: 10 miles N. of Savona.

SASSELOT, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine: 6 miles W. of Cany.

SASSENAGE; a town of France, in the dep. of the Isere; famous for cheese: 3 miles E. of Grenoble and 9 SSE. of Moirans.

SASSO, a lake of Etruria, 13 miles W. of Sienna, whose waters abound with the Boracic acid. See BORAX, § v.

SASSUM, a town of Hungary, 20 miles NW. of Podolicz.

SASSUOLO, a town of the new Italian kingdom, in the department of the Panaro, and ci-devant

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devent duchy of Modena; ſeated on the Secchia, 10 miles SSW. of Modena. Lon. 11. 11. E. Lat. 44. 28. N.

SASTAGO, a town of Spain, in Arragon, 13 miles N. of Hueſca.

* SAT. The preterite of *ſit*.—

The picture of fair Venus, that
For which, men ſay, the goddeſs *ſat*,
Was loſt, 'till Lely from your look
Again that glorious image took. *Waller.*

—I anſwered not the Rehearſal, becauſe I knew the author *ſat* to himſelf when he drew the picture, and was the very Bays of his own farce. *Dryden.*

SATABAGO, a province of Aſiatic Turkey, on the banks of the Kur, S. of Imiretta. It is fertile, and abounds in cattle, wine, and honey.

SATAGONG. See SATGONG.

SATALDERE, a river of Aſiatic Turkey, which runs into the ſea of Marmora; 8 miles W. of Artaki, in Natolia.

SATALIA, or SATTALIA, an ancient, large, and ſtrong ſea port town of Aſiatic Turkey, in Natolia; ſeated on the coaſt of Caramania, and divided into 3 towns; ſeated at the bottom of a gulf of the Mediterranean, to which it gives name. It was anciently called ATTALIA. It has a ſuperb moſque, formerly a church. The environs are fertile, and abound with fine citrons, oranges, and other fruits. The inhabitants carry on a great trade in wool, cotton, goats hair, agaric, opium, honey, bees wax and gum tragacanth. It is 150 miles W. by S. of Cogni, and 265 S. by E. of Conſtantinople. Lon. 32. 21. E. Lat. 37. 1. N.

(1.) * SATAN, *n. ſ.* The prince of hell; any wicked ſpirit. *Luke.*

(2.) SATAN, in Scripture, is the name of the chief of the fallen angels. See DEVIL.

* SATANICAL. } *adj.* [from *Satan.*] Devi-
* SATANICK. } iſh; infernal. *Milton.*

SATANOW, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Podolia: 40 miles N. of Kaminiec.

SATAPA, a town of the iſland of Borneo, on the SE. coaſt: 69 miles ENE. of Banjar Maſſim.

SATARCHÆ, an ancient nation, who inhabited the banks of the Palus Mæotis. *Mela*, ii. c. 1.

* SATCHEL. *n. ſ.* [*ſeckel*, Germ. *facculus*, Lat. Perhaps better *ſachel*.] A little bag: commonly a bag uſed by ſchool-boys to carry their books.—

The whining ſchoolboy with his *ſatchel*. *Shak.*
Schoolboys lag with *ſatchels* in their hands.
Swift.

* To SATE. *v. a.* [*ſatio*, Latin.] To ſatiate; to glut; to pall; to feed beyond natural deſires.—

Sated at length, ere long I might perceive
Strange alteration in me. *Milton's Par. Loſt.*
The vultures *fate*
Their maws with full repaſt? *Philips.*
Sated with rage, and ignorant of joy. *Prior.*

(1.) * SATELLITE. *n. ſ.* [*ſatellites*, Lat. *ſatellite*, Fr. This word is commonly pronounced in proſe with the *e* mute in the plural, as in the ſingular, and is therefore only of three ſyllables; but *Pope* has in the plural continued the Latin form, and aſſigned it four; I think, improperly.] A ſmall planet revolving round a larger.—Four moons move about Jupiter, and five about Saturn, called their *ſatellites*. *Locke.*—The ſmalleſt planets are ſituated neareſt the ſun and each other, whereas Jupiter and Saturn, that are vaſtly greater, do have many *ſatellites* about them, are widely removed to the extreme regions of the ſyſtem. *Bentley.*

Aſk of yonder argent fields above,
Why Jove's *ſatellites* are leſs than Jove? *Pope.*

(2.) SATELLITES, in aſtronomy. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*; GEORGIUM SIDUS, HERSCHEL, JUPITER, N° 3; and SATURN, N° 1.

* SATELLITIOUS. *adj.* [from *ſatellites*, Lat.] Conſiſting of ſatellites.—Their ſolidity and quantity, and their *ſatellitious* attendance, their motions about the ſun, and their rotations on their axis, are exactly the ſame. *Cheyne's Phil. Prin.*

SATER, a town of Sweden, in Dalecarlia, near ſome rich copper-mines: 45 miles SW. of Fahlun.

SATGONG, or SATAGONG, an ancient city of Hindooſtan, in Bengal, on the Hoogly; formerly a city of great trade, but now reduced to a conſiderable village. In the 16th century the European traders had their factories in it. It is 4 miles NW. of Hoogly.

SATIÆ, an ancient people of Thrace, who inhabited the country E. of the Neſſus. *Herodian.* l. c. 111.

* SATIATE. *adj.* [from the verb.] Glutted; full to ſatiety.—When it has *with*, it ſeems a participle; when *of*, an adjective.—

Our generals, retir'd to their tents,
In life's cool evening, *ſatiate of* applauſe. *Pope.*
Now may'rs and ſhrieves all hush'd and *ſatiate* lay. *Pope.*

* To SATIATE. *v. a.* [*ſatio*, Lat.] 1. To glut; to fill.—Theſe rather woo the ſenſe than *ſatiate* it. *Bacon.*—Buying of land is the reſult of a full and *ſatiated* gain. *Locke.*—

Her rav'nous jaws th' earth *ſatiate* cloſe. *Hopkins.*

2. To glut; to pall; to fill beyond natural deſire.—Children are eager to have a taſte, and are ſoon *ſatiated* with it. *Locke.*—

He may be *ſatiated*, but not ſatisfy'd. *Norris.*

3. To gratify deſire.—I may yet ſurvive the malice of my enemies, although they ſhould be *ſatiated* with my blood. *K. Charles.* 4. To impregnate; to impregnate with as much as can be contained or imbibed.—Why does not ſalt of tartar draw more water out of the air, than in a certain proportion to its quantity, but for want of an attractive force after it is *ſatiated* with water? *Newton.*

SATICULA. or } an ancient town of Italy, in
SATICULUS, } Campania, near Capua. *Virg. Æn.* vii. 729. *Liv.* ix. 21.

* SATIETY. *n. ſ.* [*ſatietas*, Latin; *ſatiété*, Fr.] Fulneſs beyond deſire or pleaſure; more than enough; wearineſs of plenty; ſtate of being palled or glutted.—

And with *ſatiety* ſeeks to quench his fill. *Milton.*

—Nothing more jealous than a favourite, eſpecially towards the waining-time and ſuſpect of *ſatiety*. *Wotton.*—In all pleaſures there is *ſatiety*. *Bolingbroke.*

Thy words, with grace divine
Imbu'd, bring to their ſweetneſs no *ſatiety*. *Milton.*

—No action, the uſefulneſs of which has made the matter of duty, but a man may bear the continual purſuit of, without loathing or *ſatiety*. *Locke.*

The joy unequal'd, if its end it gain,
Without *ſatiety*, though e'er ſo bleſt. *Pope.*

SATI-

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SATILLA, GREAT, and, } two rivers of the
SATILLA, LITTLE, } United States, in
eorgia; which run into the Ocean, in Camden
unty.

SATILLIEU, a town of France, in the dep. of
e Ardeche: 6 miles S. of Annonay, and 12 NNW.
Tournon.

(1.) * SATIN. *n. f.* [*satin*, Fr. *drapo di setan*, Italian; *sattin*, Dutch.] A soft close and shining silk.—Upon her body she wore a doublet of skyColour *satin*, covered with plates of gold. *Sidney.*

The ladies dress'd in rich symars were seen,
Of Florence *satin*. *Dryden.*

Her petticoat, transform'd apace,
Became black *satin* flounc'd with lace. *Swift.*

Lay the child carefully in a case, covered with a mantle of blue *satin*. *Arbuthnot and Pope.*

(2.) SATIN is a glossy kind of silk stuff, the warp of which is very fine, and stands so as to cover the parser woof.

SATINET, *n. f.* a slight thin kind of sattin, commonly striped, and ordinarily used by the ladies for summer night-gowns.

(1.) * SATIRE. *n. f.* [*satira*, anciently *saturn*, it not from *satyrus*, a satyr; *satire*, Fr.] A poem in which wickedness or folly is censured. Proper *satire* is distinguished, by the generality of the reflections, from a lampoon which is aimed against a particular person; but they are too frequently confounded: it has *on* before the subject.—

Ev'n to draw the picture of thy mind,
Is *satyr on* the most of human kind. *Dryden.*

My verse is *satire*, Dorset lend your ear,
And patronise a muse you cannot fear. *Young.*

(2.) SATIRE. See SATYR.

* SATIRICAL. SATIRICK. *adj.* [*satiricus*, Lat. *satirique*, Fr from *satire*.] 1. Belonging to satire; employed in writing of invective.—

You must not think, that a *satyrick* style
Allows of scandalous and brutish words. *Rose.*

Rage, passions, pleasures, impotence of will,
Shall this *satirical* collection fill. *Dryd. Juv.*

Censorious; severe in language.—The *satirical* Jew says here, that old men have grey beards. *Bacon.*—He that hath a *satirical* vein, as he maketh others afraid of his wit, so he had need be afraid of others memory. *Bacon.*—

On me when dunces are *satirick*,
I take it for a panegyrick. *Swift.*

* SATIRICALLY. *adv.* [from *satirical*.] With reflective; with intention to censure or vilify.—He applies them *satirically* to some customs, and kinds of philosophy. *Dryden.*

* SATIRICK. See SATIRICAL.

(1.) * SATIRIST. *n. f.* [from *satire*.] One who writes satires.—

I first adventure, follow me who list,
To be the second English *satirist*. *Hall.*

Wycherly, in his writings, is the sharpest *satyrist* of his time; but, in his nature, he has all the softness of the tendereſt dispositions. *Granville.*—All vain pretenders have been constantly the tocks of the most candid *satyrists*, from the Codrus Juvenal to the Damon of Boileau. *Cleland.*—

Blest *satyrist*! who touch'd the mean so true,
As show'd vice had his hate and pity too. *Pope.*

(2.) SATIRISTS. The chief satirists among the ancients are, Horace, Juvenal, and Persius: those among the moderns, are, Regnier and Boileau, in French; Butler, Dryden, Rochester, Buckingham, Swift, Pope, Young, &c. among the English; and Cervantes among the Spaniards.

* *To* SATIRIZE. *v. a.* [*satirizer*, Fr. from *satire*.] To censure as in satire.—The true meaning of the poet was to *satirize* his prodigality and voluptuousness. *Dryden.*—Should a writer single out and point his railliery at particular persons, or *satirize* the miserable, he might be sure of pleasing a great part of his readers; but must be a very ill man if he could please himself. *Addison.*—I insist that my lion's mouth be not defiled with scandal; for I would not make use of him to revile the human species, and *satirize* his betters. *Spectator.*—It is as hard to *satirize* well a man of distinguished vices, as to praise well a man of distinguished virtues. *Swift.*

SATIROVA, a town of Russia, in the government of Perm; 24 miles N. of Solikamsk.

SATIS, an ancient town of Macedonia.

* SATISFACTION. *n. f.* [*satisfactio*, Latin; *satisfaction*, Fr.] 1. The act of pleasing to the full, or state of being pleased.—Had not God secured a man a solid pleasure from his own actions, he would be forced to complain that pleasure was not *satisfaction*. *South.* 2. The act of pleasing.—The mind, having a power to suspend the execution and *satisfaction* of any of its desires, is at liberty to consider the objects of them. *Locke.* 3. The state of being pleased.—'Tis a wretched *satisfaction* a revengeful man takes, even in losing his life, provided his enemy go for company. *L'Estr.*—There are very few discourses so short, clear, and consistent, to which most men may not, with *satisfaction* enough to themselves, raise a doubt. *Locke.* 4. Release from suspense, uncertainty, or uneasiness; conviction.—

Wilt thou leave me so unsatisfied?
—What *satisfaction* can you have? *Shak.*

5. Gratification; that which pleases.—

Exchanging solid quiet to obtain
The windy *satisfaction* of the brain. *Dryd. Juv.*

6. Amends; atonement for a crime; recompense for an injury.—

Die he or justice must; unless for him
Some other able, and as willing, pay
The rigid *satisfaction*, death for death. *Milton.*

* SATISFACTIVE. *adj.* [*satisfactus*, Latin.] Giving satisfaction.—*By* a final and *satisfactive* discernment of faith, we lay the last effects upon the first cause of all things. *Brown.*

* SATISFACTORILY. *adv.* [from *satisfactory*.] So as to content.—Bellonius hath been more *satisfactorily* experimental, not only affirming that chameleons feed on flies, but upon exenteration he found these animals in their bellies. *Brown.*—They strain their memory to answer him *satisfactorily* unto all his demands. *Digby.*

* SATISFACTORINESS. *n. f.* [from *satisfactory*.] Power of satisfying; power of giving content.—The incompleatness of the seraphick lover's happiness in his fruitions, proceeds not from their want of *satisfactoriness*, but his want of an entire possession of them. *Boyle.*

* SATISFACTORY. *adj.* [*satisfactoire*, Fr. *satisfactus*, Lat.] 1. Giving satisfaction; giving content.—An intelligent American would scarce take

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it for a *satisfactory* account, if, desiring to learn our architecture, he should be told that a pillar was a thing supported by a basis. *Locke.* 2. Atoning; making amends.—The *satisfactory* and meritorious death and obedience of the incarnate Son of God, Jesus Christ. *Sanderson.*

(1.) * *To* SATISFY. *v. a.* [*satisfaire*, Fr. *satisfacio*, Lat.] 1. To content; to please to such a degree as that nothing more is desired.—A good man shall be *satisfied* from himself. *Proverbs.*—I'm *satisfy'd.* My boy has done his duty. *Addis.* 2. To feed to the fill.—Who hath caused it to rain on the earth, to *satisfy* the desolate and waste ground? *Job.*—My lust shall be *satisfy'd* upon them. *Exodus.*—The righteous eateth to the *satisfying* of his soul. *Prov.* 3. To recompense; to pay to content.—

He is well paid that is well *satisfy'd*;
And I, delivering you, am *satisfied.* *Shak.*

4. To appease by punishment.—

Will he draw out,
For anger's sake, finite to infinite
In punish'd man, to *satisfy* his rigour? *Milton.*

5. To free from doubt, perplexity, or suspense.—Of many things useful and curious you may *satisfy* yourselves in Leonardo de Vinci. *Dryden.*—This I would willingly be *satisfied* in, whether the soul, when it thinks thus, separate from the body, acts less rationally than when conjointly with it? *Locke.* 6. To convince.—He declares himself *satisfied* to the contrary. *Dryd.*—When come to the utmost extremity of body, what can there put a stop and *satisfy* the mind that it is at the end of space, when it is *satisfied* that body itself can move into it? *Locke.*—The standing evidences of the truth of the Gospel are in themselves most firm, solid, and *satisfying.* *Atterbury.*

(2.) * *To* SATISFY. *v. n.* 1. To give content. 2. To feed to the full. 3. To make payment.—By the quantity of silver they give or take, they estimate the value of other things, and *satisfy* for them. *Locke.*

SATKA, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Koni.

SATRÆ, an ancient people of Thrace.

SATRAP, } or SATRAPES, in Persian antiqui-
SATRAPA, } ty, denotes an admiral; but more commonly the governor of a province.

SATRAPENI, an ancient nation of Media.

(1.) SATRIANO, a town of Naples, in the province of Basilicata: 7 miles SW. of Acerenza.

(2.) SATRIANO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra; 8 miles S. of Squillace.

SATRICUM, an ancient town of Italy, which was taken by Camillus. *Livy*, vi. c. 8.

SATTALIA. See ATTALIA, and SATALIA.

SATTARAH, a town of Hindoostan, in Visiapour; formerly the capital of the Mahrattahs, near the source of the Kistnah: 50 miles S. of Poonah, and 77 W. of Visiapour. Lon. 74. 8. E. Lat. 17. 45. N.

SATTELBERG, a mountain of Silesia, in Schweidnitz: 4½ miles NE. of Landihut.

SATTIMUNGULUM, a town and fort of Hindoostan, 33 miles N. of Coimbetore, and 68 SSE. of Seringapatam. It was taken by the British troops under Gen. Floyd, in 1792.

SATTIN. See SATIN.

SATTINET. See SATINET.

SATTRA, a town of Sweden, in Sudermania; 24 miles NW. of Nykioping.

SATURA, in ancient geography, a lake of Latium; one of the PONTINE Lakes. *Sil. Ital.* v. 382.

* SATURABLE. *adj.* [from *saturate.*] Impregnable with any thing till it will receive no more.—The water would be *saturable* with the less quantity of any salt, which it is not. *Grew.*

(1.) * SATURANT. *adj.* [from *saturo*, Lat.] Impregnating to the fill.

(2.) SATURANTS, in anatomy, are the same with ABSORBENTS.

* *To* SATURATE. *v. a.* [*saturo*, Lat.] To impregnate till no more can be received or imbibed.—Rain-water is plentifully *saturated* with terrestrial matter. *Woodward.*—His body has been *saturated* with the fluid of light. *Cheyne.*—

Saturated earth
Awaits the morning beam. *Thomson.*

SATURATION, *n. s.* in chemistry, is the impregnating an acid with an alkali, or *vice versa*, till either will receive no more, and the mixture will then become *neutral*, as it was formerly called, or produce a salt. See SALT, § 30, and 31.

(1.) * SATURDAY. *n. s.* [*Sæterdæg*, or *Sæterndæg*, Saxon, according to *Verstegan*, from *Seater*, a Saxon idol; more probably from *Saturn*, *dies Saturni.*] The last day of the week.—This must be handled fully in last *Saturday's* Spectator. *Addis.*

(2.) SATURDAY, the seventh day of the week, so called from the idol SEATER, worshipped this day by the ancient Saxons, and thought to be the Saturn of the Latins.

SATUREIA, SAVORY, in botany, a genus of the gymnospermia order, belonging to the diandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 42d order, *Verticillatæ.* The segments of the corolla are nearly equal; the stamina standing asunder.

1. SATUREIA HORTENSIS, or *summer savory*, an annual plant, which grows naturally in the south of France and Italy, but is cultivated in this country both for the kitchen and medicinal use. Summer savory is a very warm pungent aromatic: it affords in distillation with water a subtile ethereal oil, of a penetrating smell, and very hot acrid taste. It yields little of its virtues by infusion to watery liquors; rectified spirit extracts the whole of its taste and smell, and elevates nothing in distillation.

2. SATUREIA MONTANA, or *winter savory*, a perennial plant growing naturally in the south of France and Italy, but is cultivated in gardens for culinary and medicinal purposes. Both kinds are propagated by seeds. Those of the first kind should be sown in the beginning of April on a bed of light earth, either where they are to remain, or for transplanting. If the plants are to stand unremoved, they should be sown thin; but if they are to be transplanted, they may be sown closer. The 2d species may be sown upon a very dry soil, where the plants will endure the severest winters, though they are often killed by the frost when planted in good ground. The plants will continue several years; but when they are

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ſhoots will be ſhot and not ſo well furniſhed
h leaves: it will therefore be proper to raiſe a
ply of young plants every year.

SATUREIUM, or SATUREUM, an ancient town of Calabria, near Tarentum: famous for its horſes and paſtures. *Hor. 2. Sat. 6.*

SATURITY. *n. ſ.* [*ſaturitas*, from *ſaturo*, Lat.] Ineſs; the ſtate of being ſaturated; repletion.

1.) * SATURN. *n. ſ.* [*ſaturne*, Fr. *ſaturnus*, Lat.] The remoteſt planet of the ſolar ſyſtem; ſuppoſed by aſtrologers to impreſs melancholy, dulneſs, or ſeverity of temper.—The ſmalleſt planets placed neareſt the ſun and each other; whereas Jupiter and *Saturn*, that are vaſtly greater, are vaſtly removed to the extreme regions. *Bentley.*—

From the far bounds
Of utmoſt *Saturn*, wheeling wide his round,
Thomſon.

[In chemiſtry.] Lead.

2.) SATURN, in aſtronomy, one of the planets our ſolar ſyſtem, revolving at the diſtance of ore than 900 millions of miles from the ſun. See TRONOMY, *Index*. Dr Herſchel, who has ſo ich ſignalized himſelf by his diſcoveries in the eſtial regions, has not omitted to make his obvations on this planet, which he conſiders as e of the moſt engaging objects that aſtronomy ers to our view. His attention was firſt drawn it in 1774, when he ſaw its ring reſembling in pearance a narrow line extending on both ſides t much leſs than the diameter of the planet's k. The obſervation was taken with a 5½ feet lector on the 17th of March; and on the 3d of ril, when the planet appeared totally deprived this noble appendage, by the edge of the ring ing then turned directly towards the earth, and iſible on account of its thinneſs or incapacity reflect the light to ſuch a diſtance. During the ceeding year, the ring appeared gradually oned, and at laſt aſſumed the ſhape of an ellipſe. It ſhould be noticed, (ſays he,) that the black ſk or belt upon the ring of Saturn is not in the iddle of its breadth. Nor is the ring ſubdivided many ſuch lines, as has been repreſented in ſeral treatiſes of aſtronomy; but that there is one igle, dark, conſiderably broad line, belt, or zone, on the ring, which I have always permanently und in the place where my figure repreſents it." his zone, which is on the northern part of the ng, does not change its ſhape or colour like the lts of Jupiter, ſo that it is probably owing to me permanent projection. It cannot, however, the ſhadow of a chain of mountains, as it is ſible all round the ring; and there could be no ades viſible at the ends of the anſæ, on account the direction of the ſun's illumination, which ould be in the line of the chain; and the ſuppod argument will hold good againſt the ſuppoſion of caverns or concavities. It is likewiſe evint, that this dark zone is contained between vo concentric circles, as all the phenomena anver to the projection of ſuch a zone. The Doctor gives a figure, repreſenting the planet as it apeared to him on the 10th of May 1780; whence e ſee that the zone is continued all the way ound, with a gradual decreaſe towards the mide, anſwering to the appearance of a narrow circular plane projected into an ellipſis. See *Philoſ. Tranſ.* for 1790, p. 3, &c. It hath been conjectured, that this appearance is owing to a diviſion of the ring, or rather that there are two rings about the planet; "but (ſays Dr Herſchel) if one ring, of a breadth ſo conſiderable as that of Saturn, is juſtly to be eſteemed the moſt wonderful arch that by the laws of gravity can be held together, how improbable muſt it appear to ſuppoſe it ſubdivided into narrow ſlips of rings, which by this ſeparation will be deprived of a ſufficient depth, and thus loſe the only dimenſion which can keep them from falling upon the planet? It is true, indeed, that it may revolve with ſuch velocity as greatly to aſſiſt its ſtrength, and that in the ſubdiviſions, of courſe, the different velocities for each diviſion may be equally ſuppoſed to keep them up." As to the ſubſtance of the ring, the Doctor ſuppoſes it to be no leſs ſolid than that of Saturn himſelf. Thus in the two figures given with the Dr's Diſſertation in the *Philoſ. Tranſ.* the ſhadow of the planet is delineated upon the ring as it actually appeared, according to the ſituation of the ſun; and in like manner we will ſee the ſhadow of the ring upon the planet: and if we deduce the quantity of matter contained in the planet from the power by which the ſatellites are preſerved in their orbits, the ring muſt alſo be taken into account. It is indeed evident that the ring exerts a very conſiderable force upon theſe bodies, ſince we find them affected with many irregularities in their motions, which we cannot properly aſcribe to any other cauſe than the quantity of matter contained in the ring; or, at leaſt, it ought to be allowed to have a proper ſhare in producing them. The ring ſeems to be endowed with a greater reflective power than the body of the planet; and the Doctor gives inſtances of his ſeeing part of the ring brighter than Saturn himſelf, as well as of his ſeeing it plainly through a teleſcope which could ſcarcely afford light enough for the planet. The moſt remarkable property of this wonderful ring, however, is its extreme thinneſs. "When we were nearly in the plane of the ring (ſays our author,) I have repeatedly ſeen the 1ſt, 2d, and 3d ſatellites, nay even the 6th and 7th paſs before and behind the ring in ſuch a manner that they ſerved as excellent micrometers to eſtimate its thickneſs. A few inſtances will ſerve to ſolve ſome phenomena that have been remarked by other aſtronomers, though they have not been accounted for in a manner conſiſtently known with other known facts. July 18th 1789, at 19h. 41′ 9″, ſidereal time, the firſt ſatellite ſeemed to hang upon the following arm, declining a little towards the north, and I ſaw it gradually advance upon it towards the body of Saturn; but the ring was not ſo thick as the lucid point. July 23d, at 19h 41′ 8″; the ſecond ſatellite was a very little preceding the ring; but the ring appeared to be leſs than half the thickneſs of the ſatellite. July 27th, at 20h 15′ 12″, the ſecond ſatellite was about the middle, upon the following arm of the ring, and towards the ſouth; and the 6th ſatellite on the farther end towards the north; but the arm was thinner than either of them. Aug. 29th, at 22h 12′ 55″, the 3d ſatellite was upon the ring, near the end of the preceding arm, when the latter ſeemed not to be the fourth, or at moſt the third

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part of the diameter of the ſatellite; which, in the ſituation it was, I took to be leſs than one ſingle ſecond in diameter. At the ſame time, I alſo ſaw the 7th ſatellite following the 3d, at a little diſtance, in the ſhape of a bead upon a thread, projecting on both ſides of the ſame arm. Hence alſo we are ſure that the arm appeared thinner than the 7th ſatellite, which is conſiderably ſmaller than the 6th, which again is leſs than the firſt. Aug. 31ſt, at 20h 48′ 26″, the preceding arm was loaded about the middle with the third ſatellite. Oct. 15th at 0h 42′ 44″, I ſaw the ſixth ſatellite, without obſtruction, about the middle of the preceding arm, though the ring was but barely viſible with my 40 feet reflector, even while the planet was in the meridian. However, we were then a little inclined to the plane of the ring, and the third ſatellite, when it came near its conjunction with the firſt, was ſo ſituated, that it muſt have partly covered it a few minutes after I loſt it behind my houſe. In all theſe obſervations, the ring did not in the leaſt interfere with my view of the ſatellites. Oct. 16th I followed the 6th and 7th ſatellites up to the very diſk of the planet; and the ring, which was extremely faint, did not in the leaſt obſtruct my ſeeing them gradually approach the diſk, where the 7th vaniſhed at 21h 46′ 44″, and the ſixth at 22h 36′ 44″. There is, however, ſome ſuſpicion, that by a refraction through ſome very rare atmoſphere on the two planes of the ring, the ſatellites might be lifted up and depreſſed ſo as to become viſible on both ſides of the ring, even though the latter ſhould be equal in thickneſs to the diameter of the ſmalleſt ſatellite, which may amount to 1000 miles. As for the arguments of its incredible thinneſs, which ſome aſtronomers have brought from the ſhort time of its being inviſible when the earth paſſes through its plane, we cannot ſet much value upon them; for they muſt have ſuppoſed the edge of the ring, as they have alſo repreſented it in their figures, to be ſquare; but there is the greateſt reaſon to ſuppoſe it either ſpherical or ſpheroidal; in which caſe evidently the ring cannot diſappear for any long time. Nay, I may venture to ſay, that the ring cannot poſſibly diſappear, on account of its thinneſs; ſince, either from the edge or the ſides, even if it were ſquare on the corners, it muſt always expoſe to our ſight ſome part which is illuminated by the rays of the ſun; and that this is plainly the caſe we may conclude from its being viſible in my teleſcopes during the time when others of leſs light had loſt it; and when evidently we were turned towards the unenlightened ſide, ſo that we muſt either ſee the rounding ſide of the unenlightened edge, or elſe the reflection of the light of Saturn upon the ſide of the darkened ring, as we ſee the reflected light of the earth on the darkened part of the new moon. I will not, however, take upon me to decide which of the two may be the caſe, eſpecially as there are other very ſtrong reaſons which induce us to think that the edge of the ring is of ſuch a nature as not to reflect much light." Several aſtronomers have ſuppoſed that the ring of Saturn is full of mountains and inequalities, like the moon; and of this opinion Dr Herſchel himſelf was for a conſiderable time, till happening to obſerve one of theſe lucid points with attention for a conſiderable time, he ſaw it leave the ring altogether, and ſhow itſelf as a ſatellite never before obſerved. With regard to the ring itſelf, he concludes his obſervations in theſe words: "Upon the whole, therefore, I cannot ſay that I had any one inſtance that could induce me to believe that the ring was not of one uniform thickneſs; that is, equally thick at equal diſtances from the centre, and of an equal diameter throughout the whole of its conſtruction. The idea of protuberant points upon the ring of Saturn, indeed, is of itſelf ſufficient to render their exiſtence inadmiſſible, when we conſider the enormous ſize which ſuch points ought to be of to render them viſible at the diſtance we are at from that planet. With regard to the ſatellites, the Doctor informs us, that he was long convinced of the exiſtence of a ſixth; and had he been more at leiſure at the time of his diſcovering thoſe of the GEORGIUM SIDUS, he would probably have completed the diſcovery of the ſatellites of Saturn alſo. The *ſixth* was firſt obſerved diſtinctly on the 28th Aug. 1789, and the *ſeventh* on the 17th Sept. the ſame year. Theſe ſatellites, however, do not occupy the place which we ſhould have previouſly ſuppoſed them, being, in fact, the innermoſt of the whole. The ſeventh is next the body of the planet itſelf, and is very ſmall. It revolves at the diſtance of 27″·366 from the centre of Saturn, and ſeems to move exactly in the plane of the ring; but the Doctor obſerves, that it is exceedingly difficult to make a ſufficient number of obſervations on it to determine the revolution exactly. He computes its periodical time 22h 40′ 46″. The ſixth ſatellite is next to the ſeventh, and revolves at the diſtance of 35″·058 from the centre of its primary in 1d 8h 53′ 9″. Its light is conſiderably ſtrong, but not equal to that of the firſt ſatellite of former aſtronomers, which lies immediately beyond it. The planet Saturn is now obſerved to have belts or faſcie upon its diſk as diſtinctly as Jupiter. Dr Herſchel on the 9th April 1775, obſerved a northern belt on his body, inclined a little to the line of the ring. On the 1ſt of May 1776 there was another belt obſerved, inclined about 15° to the ſame line, but more to the ſouth; and on the following ſide came up to the place where the ring croſſes the body of the planet. On the 8th of April two belts were obſerved, and theſe continued with variations, and ſometimes the appearance of a third belt, till the 8th Sept. when the account of the obſervations was diſcontinued. The Doctor remarks, that he generally obſerved theſe belts in equatorial ſituations, tho' ſometimes it was otherwiſe. Two concluſions, he ſays, may be drawn from the obſervations he made this year. "The firſt, which relates to the changes in the appearance of the belts, is, that Saturn has probably a very conſiderable atmoſphere in which theſe changes take place, juſt as the alterations in the belts of Jupiter have been ſhewn with great probability to be in his atmoſphere. This has alſo been confirmed by other obſervations. Thus, in occultations of Saturn's ſatellites, I have found them to hang to the diſk for a long while before they would vaniſh. And though we ought to make ſome allowance for the encroachment

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of light, whereby a ſatellite is ſeen to reach up to the diſk ſooner than it actually does, yet without conſiderable refraction it could hardly be kept ſo long in view after the apparent contact. The time of hanging upon the diſk in the ſeventh ſatellite has actually amounted to 20 minutes. Now, as its quick motion during that interval carries it through an arch of near ſix degrees, we find that this would denoſe a refraction of about two ſeconds, provided the encroaching of light had no ſhare in producing the effect. By an obſervation of the ſixth ſatellite, the refraction of Saturn's atmoſphere amounts to nearly the ſame quantity; for this ſatellite remained about 14 or 15 minutes longer in view than it ſhould have done; and as it moves about $2\frac{1}{4}$ degrees in that time, and its orbit is larger than that of the ſeventh, the difference is inconſiderable. The next inference we may draw from the appearance of the belts on Saturn is, that this planet turns upon an axis which is perpendicular to his ring. The arrangement of the belts, during the courſe of 14 years that I have obſerved them, has always followed the direction of the ring, which is what I have called *being equatorial*. Thus, as the ring opened, the belts began to advance towards the ſouth, and to ſhow an incurvature anſwering to the projection of an equatorial line, or to a parallel of the ſame. When the ring cloſed up, they returned towards the north, and are now, while the ring paſſes over the centre, exactly ranging with the ſhadow of it, on the body, generally one on each ſide, with a white belt cloſe to it. When I ſay that the belts have always been equatorial, I paſs over trifling exceptions, which certainly were owing to local cauſes. The ſtep from equatorial belts to a rotation on an axis is ſo eaſy, and, in the caſe of Jupiter, ſo well aſcertained, that I ſhall not heſitate to take the ſame conſequence for granted here. But if there could remain a doubt, the obſervations of June 19th, 20th, and 21ſt, 1780, where the ſame ſpot upon one of the belts was ſeen in three different ſituations, would remove it completely." Another evidence that Saturn, as well as the other planets, revolves upon its axis, is drawn from its flattened ſhape, like that of Mars and Jupiter. On the 31ſt of May 1781, the diſk ſeemed to deviate as much from a true circle as that of Jupiter, though by the interference of the ring this could not be ſo well determined as after an interval of 8 years. On the 18th Aug. 1787, the difference between the equatorial and polar diameters was meaſured, the mean of the three obſervations of the former being 22″·81, of the latter 20″·61. From theſe obſervations, it appears that the polar diameter of Saturn is to his equatorial diameter nearly as 10 to 11; and that his axis is perpendicular to the plane of the ring. In a ſubſequent paper, the Doctor gives up his reaſoning againſt fixed lucid points in the ring, in conſequence of having frequently obſerved them in ſuch ſituations as could not by any means be accounted for by the ſatellites. He even attempts to invalidate his own arguments above mentioned concerning the vaſt magnitude of the mountains neceſſary to make them viſible at this diſtance. "As obſervations (ſays he) carefully made ſhould always take the lead of theories, I ſhall not be concerned if ſuch lucid ſpots as I am now going to admit, ſhould ſeem to contradict what has been ſaid in my laſt paper concerning the idea of inequalities or protuberant points. We may, however, remark, that a lucid and apparently protuberant point may exiſt without any great inequality in the ring. A vivid light, for inſtance, will ſeem to project greatly beyond the limits of the body on which it is placed. If, therefore, the luminous places on the ring ſhould be ſuch as proceed from very bright reflecting regions, or, which is more probable, owe their exiſtence to the more fluctuating cauſes of inherent fires acting with great violence, we need not imagine the ring of Saturn to be very uneven or diſtorted, in order to preſent us with ſuch appearances. In this ſenſe of the word, then, we may ſtill oppoſe the idea of protuberant points, ſuch as would denote immenſe mountains of elevated ſurface. On comparing together ſeveral obſervations, a few trials ſhew that the brighteſt and beſt obſerved ſpot agrees to a revolution of 10h 32′ 15″·4; and calculating its diſtance from the centre of Saturn, on a ſuppoſition of its being a ſatellite, we find it 17″·227, which brings it upon the ring. It is therefore certain, that unleſs we ſhould imagine the ring to be ſufficiently fluid to allow a ſatellite to revolve in it, or ſuppoſe a notch, groove, or diviſion in the ring, to ſuffer the ſatellite to paſs along, we ought to admit a revolution of the ring itſelf. The denſity of the ring, indeed, may be ſuppoſed to be very inconſiderable by thoſe who imagine its light to be rather the effect of ſome ſhining fluid, like an aurora borealis, than a reflection from ſome permanent ſubſtance; but its diſapparition, in general, and in my teleſcopes its faintneſs, when turned edgewiſe, are in no manner favourable to this idea. When we add alſo, that this ring caſts a deep ſhadow upon the planet, is very ſharply defined both in its outer and inner edge, and in brightneſs exceeds the planet itſelf, it ſeems to be almoſt proved that its conſiſtence cannot be leſs than the body of Saturn, and that conſequently no degree of fluidity can be admitted ſufficient to permit a revolving body to keep in motion for any length of time. A groove might afford a paſſage, eſpecially as on a former occaſion we have already conſidered the idea of a dividing ring. A circumſtance alſo which ſeems rather to favour this idea, is, that in ſome obſervations a bright ſpot has been ſeen to project equally on both ſides, as the ſatellites have been obſerved to do when they paſſed the ring. But, on the other hand, we ought to conſider, that the ſpot has often been obſerved very near the end of the arm of Saturn's ring, and that the calculated diſtance is conſequently a little too ſmall for ſuch appearances, and ought to be 19 or 20 ſeconds at leaſt. We ſhould alſo attend to the ſize of the ſpot, which ſeems to be variable: for it is hardly to be imagined that a ſatellite, brighter than the ſixth, and which could be ſeen with the moon nearly at full, ſhould ſo often eſcape our notice in its frequent revolutions, unleſs it varied much in its apparent brightneſs. To this we muſt add another argument

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ment drawn from the number of lucid spots, which will not agree with the motion of one satellite only; whereas, by admitting a revolution of the ring itself in 1d 3h 15′ 7″ 4, and supposing all the spots to adhere to the ring, and to share in the same periodical return, provided they last long enough to be seen many times, we shall be able to give an easy solution of all the remaining phenomena. See *Phil. Trans.* 1790, p. 427.

(3.) SATURN, in chemistry, an appellation given to lead.

(4.) SATURN, in heraldry, denotes the black colour in blazoning the arms of sovereign princes.

(5.) SATURN, in the ancient mythology, one of the principal of the Pagan deities, was the son of Cœlus and Terra, and the father of Jupiter, Neptune and Pluto. He deposed and castrated his father; and obliged his brother Titan to resign his crown to him, on condition of his bringing up none of his male issue, that the succession might at length devolve on him. For this purpose he devoured all the sons he had by his wife Rhea or Cybele: but she bringing forth at one time Jupiter and Juno, she presented the latter to her husband, and sent the boy to be nursed on mount Ida; when Saturn being informed of her having a son, demanded the child; but in his stead his wife gave him a stone swaddled up like an infant, which he instantly swallowed. Titan finding that Saturn had violated the contract he had made with him, put himself at the head of his children, and made war on his brother, and having made him and Cybele prisoners, confined them in Tartarus: but Jupiter being now grown up, raised an army in Crete, went to his father's assistance, defeated Titan, and restored Saturn to the throne. Some time after, Saturn being told that Jupiter intended to dethrone him, endeavoured to prevent it; but the latter being informed of his intention, deposed his father, and threw him into Tartarus. But Saturn escaping from thence fled into Italy, where he was kindly received by Janus king of the country, who associated him in the government: whence Italy obtained the name of *Saturnia Tellus*; as also that of *Latium*, from *Lateo*, "to be hid." There Saturn, by the wisdom and mildness of his government, is said to have produced the *golden age*. (See AGE, § 2.) Saturn is represented as an old man with four wings, armed with a scythe; sometimes he is delineated under the figure of a serpent with its tail in its mouth. This is emblematic of the seasons, which roll perpetually in the same circle. Sometimes also Saturn is painted with a sand glass in his hand. The Greeks say, that the story of his mutilating his father and destroying his children is an allegory, which signifies, that Time devours the past and present, and will also devour the future. The Romans, in honour of him, built a temple and celebrated a festival, called SATURNALIA.

SATURNALIA, in Roman antiquity, a festival observed about the middle of December, in honour of the god Saturn, whom Lucan introduces giving an account of the ceremonies observed on this occasion, thus: "During my whole reign which lasts but for one week, no public business is done; there is nothing but drinking, singing, playing, creating imaginary kings, placing servants with their masters at table, &c. There shall be no disputes, reproaches, &c. but the rich and poor, masters and slaves, shall be equal," &c. On this festival the Romans sacrificed bareheaded, contrary to their custom at other sacrifices. During its continuance no business or practice was allowed to be carried on except cookery; all distinctions of rank ceased; slaves could say what they pleased to their masters with impunity; they could even rally them with their faults before their faces.

(1.) SATURNIA, a name of Juno, as the daughter of Saturn.

(2, 3.) SATURNIA; 1. in ancient geography, a town of Italy, said to have been built by Saturn on the Tarpeian rock. (*Virg. Æn.* viii. 358.) 2. a name given to Italy, from Saturn having reigned there. *Virg. Georg.* ii, 173.

* SATURNIAN. *adj.* [*saturnius*, Latin.] Happy; golden; used by poets for times of felicity such as are feigned to have been in the reign of *Saturn*.—

Th' Augustus, born to bring *Saturnian* times
Again.

(1.) * SATURNINE. *adj.* [*saturninus*, Lat. *saturnine*, Fr. from *Saturn*.] Not light; not sprightly; gloomy; grave; melancholy; severe of temper; supposed to be born under the dominion of Saturn.—I may cast my readers under two divisions, the mercurial and *saturnine*. *Addison*.

(2.) SATURNINE is an appellation given to persons of a melancholy disposition, as being supposed under the influence of the planet Saturn.

(1.) SATURNINUS, Pompeius, a Roman historian, poet and orator, who flourished in the reign of Trajan. Pliny mentions him with great approbation, and always consulted him before he published his own works.

(2.) SATURNINUS, P. Sempronius, a Roman general, under Valerian, who was proclaimed emperor by the troops, on account of his merit and against his inclination. He was afterwards murdered by them, for attempting to restore the ancient discipline, in his 43d year, A. D. 281. See ROME, § 73.

(3.) SATURNINUS, Sextus Julius, or Julius another Roman general, a native of Gaul, who was compelled by the soldiers to assume the title of emperor. See ROME, § 78. He was in favour with Aurelian.

SATURNI SACCHARUM. See SACCHARUM.

SATURNITE, a name given by Mr Kirwan to a new metallic substance, supposed to be discovered by M. Monnet. It was met with in some iron foundries at a place named *Poulla* near in Bohemia; being separated from the lead ore during torrefaction. It resembles lead in colour, weight, solubility in acids and other properties, but differs from it in being more fusible, brittle, easily vitrified and volatilized, and likewise not being malleable with lead in fusion. Messieurs Hassenfratz and Girond contended, that this saturnite was not a metal, but a compound of different substances, and accordingly gave an analysis of it as consisting of iron, copper, iron, silver, and sulphur; the proportions of which must naturally vary according to the quality of the ore put into the furnace. M. Monnet, however, insisted that the substance analysed by

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was not that which he had discovered; but he again visited the mines above mentioned, ould meet with none of the substance there h he found before.

ATURNIUS, an epithet of Jupiter, Neptune Pluto, as sons of Saturn.

ATURUM, an ancient town of Italy, in Cala- famous for dyeing stuffs of beautiful colours.

ATYAVRATA, or MENU, in Indian mytho- , is believed by the Hindoos to have reigned the whole world in the earliest age of their nology, and to have resided in the country of ira on the coast of the eastern Indian penin- . His patronymic name was *Vaivaswata*, or *l of the sun*. In the *Bhagavat* we are inform- that the Lord of the Universe, intending to erve him from the sea of destruction, caused he depravity of the age, thus told him how was to act. "In seven days from the present e, O thou tamer of enemies, the three worlds be plunged in an ocean of death; but, in the ist of the destroying waves, a large vessel, sent me for thy use, shall stand before thee. Then lt thou take all medicinal herbs, all the variety seeds; and, accompanied by seven saints, en- led by pairs of all brute animals, thou shalt en- the spacious ark and continue in it, secure m the flood on one immense ocean without at, except the radiance of thy holy companions. hen the ship shall be agitated by an impetuous nd, thou shalt fasten it with a large sea serpent my horn; for I will be near thee: drawing the iel, with thee and thy attendants, I will remain the ocean, O chief of men, until a night of ahma shall be completely ended. Thou shalt en know my true greatness, rightly named the preme Godhead; by my favour all thy questions all be answered, and thy mind abundantly in- ucted." This story is evidently that of NOAH sguised by Asiatic fiction and allegory. It proves Sir William Jones has observed, an ancient In- an tradition of the universal deluge described by loses. The same learned author has shown it obable, that the *Satyavrata* of India is the *Cro- s* of Greece and the *Saturn* of Italy. See SA- URN, N° 5. and *Asiatic Researches*, Vol. I. p. 30, &c.

(1.) * SATYR. *n. s.* [*satyrus*, Latin.] A sylvan od: supposed among the ancients to be rude and cherous.—*Satyrs*, as Pliny testifies, were found l times past in the eastern mountains of India. *Peacham.*

(2.) SATYR, or SATIRE, in matters of literature, discourse or poem, exposing the vices and follies of mankind. See POETRY, *Sect.* X. and SATIRE.

(3.) SATYRS, in ancient mythology (§ 1.) a spe- ies of demi gods who dwelt in the woods. They are represented as monsters, half-men, and half- goats; having horns on their heads, a hairy body, with the feet and tail of a goat. They are general- y in the train that follows Bacchus. As the poets supposed that they were remarkable for piercing eyes and keen raillery, they have placed them in he same pictures with the Graces, Loves, and even with Venus herself.

(1.) * SATYRIASIS. *n. s.* [from *satyr*.]—If the chyle be very plentiful, is breeds a *satyriasis*, or an abundance of seminal lymphas. *Floyer.*

(2.) SATYRIASIS. See MEDICINE, *Index.*

SATYRIUM, in botany, a genus of the diandria order, belonging to the gynandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 42d order, *Verticillatæ*. The nectarium is scrotiform, or inflated double behind the flower.

SATZIG, a town of Upper Saxony, in Pomerania; 5 miles N. of Sachan, and 16 E. of Stargard.

SAVA, a town of Persia, in Irak, in a fertile country, abounding with corn and fruits: 60 miles S. of Casbin, and 114 E. of Amadan.

SAUAD, a town of Arabia, in Yemen.

(1.) SAVAGE, John, D. D. an English divine, who was lecturer of St George's Hanover Square, and rector of Clothall, Herts. He was educated at Westminster, and retained an affection for that school to the last; which he showed by greatly patronising the scholars; who, upon his death, erected a marble table to his memory. He published two sermons, in 1707, and 1715; and died 24th March 1747.

(2.) SAVAGE, Richard, one of the most extraordinary characters that is to be met with in all the records of biography, was the son of Anne countess of Macclesfield by the earl of Rivers, according to her own confession; and was born in 1698. This confession of adultery was made to procure a separation from her husband, the earl of Macclesfield: yet, having obtained this end, no sooner was her spurious offspring brought into the world, than she resolved to disown him; and, as long as he lived, treated him with the most unnatural cruelty. She delivered him over to a poor woman to educate as her own; prevented the earl of Rivers from leaving him a legacy of L.6000, by declaring him dead; and deprived him of another legacy which his godmother Mrs Lloyd had left him, by concealing from him his birth, and thereby rendering it impossible for him to prosecute his claim. She endeavoured to send him secretly to the plantations; but this plan being frustrated, she placed him apprentice with a shoemaker. In this situation, however, he did not long continue; for his nurse dying, he went to take care of the effects of his supposed mother; and, found in her boxes some letters which discovered to young Savage his birth, and the cause of its concealment. From the moment of this discovery he became dissatisfied with his situation. He conceived that he had a right to share in the affluence of his real mother; and therefore he applied to her, and tried every art to attract her regard. But in vain did he solicit this unnatural parent; she avoided him with the utmost precaution, and took measures to prevent his ever entering her house. Mean time, while he was endeavouring to rouse the affections of a mother, in whom all natural affection was extinct, he was destitute of the means of support. Having a strong inclination to literary pursuits, especially poetry, he wrote poems; and afterwards two plays, *Woman's a Riddle* and *Love in a Veil*: but he was allowed no part of the profits from the first; but by the 2d he acquired the acquaintance of Sir Richard Steel and Mr Wilks, by whom he was pitied, caressed, and relieved. But the kindness of his friends not affording him a constant supply, he wrote the tragedy of *Sir Thomas Overbury*; which not only procured him the esteem of many persons

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ſons of wit, but brought him in zeal. The celebrated Aaron Hill Eſq. was of great ſervice to him in correcting and fitting this piece for the ſtage and the preſs; and extended his patronage ſtill farther. But Savage was, like many other wits, a bad economiſt. As faſt as his friends raiſed him out of one difficulty, he ſunk into another; and, when he found himſelf greatly involved, he ramble about like a vagabond, with ſcarce a ſhirt on his back. He was in one of theſe ſituations all the time he wrote his tragedy above-mentioned; without a lodging, and often without a dinner. Mr Hill alſo promoted a ſubſcription to a volume of his *Miſcellanies*, and furniſhed part of the poems of which it was compoſed. To this miſcellany Savage wrote a preface, in which he gives an account of his mother's cruelty, in a very uncommon ſtrain of humour. The profits of his Tragedy and his own effects had now ſomewhat raiſed him both in circumſtances and credit; ſo that the world began to behold him with a more favourable eye, when both his fame and life were endangered by a moſt unhappy event. A drunken frolic in which he was engaged, ended in a fray, and Savage unfortunately killed a man, for which he was condemned to be hanged: his friends earneſtly ſolicited the mercy of the crown, while his mother as earneſtly exerted herſelf to prevent his receiving it. The counteſs of Hertford at length laid his whole caſe before queen Caroline, and Savage obtained a pardon. Savage now loſt that affection for his mother, which the whole ſcene of her cruelty had not been able wholly to extinguiſh; and conſidering her as a implacable enemy, whom nothing but his death could appeaſe, threatened to haraſs her with lampoons, and to publiſh a copious narrative of her conduct, unleſs ſhe conſented to allow him a penſion. This expedient proved ſucceſsful; and lord Tyrconnel, upon his promiſe of laying aſide his deſign of expoſing his mother's cruelty, took him into his family, treated him as an equal, and engaged to allow him a penſion of 200l. a-year. Thus was the happy period of Savage's life. He was courted by all who wiſhed to be thought men of genius, and taſte. At this time he publiſhed the *Temple of Health and Mirth*, on the recovery of lady Tyrconnel from a languiſhing illneſs; and *The Wanderer*, a moral poem, which he dedicated to lord Tyrconnel, in ſtrains of the higheſt panegyric: but theſe praiſes he ſoon was inclined to retract, being diſcarded by the man on whom they were beſtowed. Of this quarrel lord Tyrconnel and Mr Savage gave very different accounts. But our author's conduct was ever ſuch as made all his friends, ſooner or later, grow weary of him, and even forced moſt of them to become his enemies. Being thus once more turned adrift upon the world, Savage, whoſe paſſions were very ſtrong, and whoſe gratitude was very ſmall, expoſed the faults of lord Tyrconnel. He, alſo took revenge upon his mother, by publiſhing *The Baſtard*, a poem, remarkable for the vivacity of its beginning (where he finely enumerates the imaginary advantages of baſe birth), and for the pathetic concluſion, wherein he recounts the real calamities which he ſuffered by the crime of his parents.—The following lines in the opening of the poem, are a ſpecimen of this writer's ſpirit and verſification.

Bleſt be the baſtard's birth! thro' wondrous ways
He ſhines eccentric like a comet's blaze.
No ſickly fruit of faint complacence he;
He! ſtamp'd in nature's mint with ecſtaſy!
He lives to build, not boaſt, a gen'rous race;
No tenth tranſmitter of a foolish face.
He, kindling from within, requires no flame;
He glories in a baſtard's glowing name.
Nature's unbounded ſon, he ſtands alone,
His heart unbiaſs'd, and his mind his own.
O mother! yet no mother!—'tis to you
My thanks for ſuch diſtinguiſh'd claims are due.

This poem had an extraordinary ſale; and its appearance happening at the time when his mother was at Bath, many perſons there repeated paſſages from it in her hearing. This was perhaps the firſt time that ever ſhe diſcovered a ſenſe of ſhame, and on this occaſion the power of wit was very conſpicuous: the wretch who had without ſcruple proclaimed herſelf an adultereſs, and who had firſt endeavoured to ſtarve her ſon, then to tranſport him, and afterwards to hang him, was not able to bear the repreſentation of her own conduct: but fled from reproach, though ſhe felt no pain from guilt; and left Bath in haſte, to hide herſelf among the crowds of London. Some time after this, Savage formed the reſolution of applying to the queen; who having once given him life, he hoped ſhe might extend her goodneſs to him, by enabling him to ſupport it.—With this view, he publiſhed a poem on her birth-day, which he entitled *The Volunteer Laureat*; for which ſhe was pleaſed to ſend him 50l. with an intimation that he might annually expect the ſame bounty. But this annual allowance was nothing to a man of his ſtrange and ſingular extravagance. His manner was, as ſoon as he had received his penſion, to diſappear with it, and ſecrete himſelf from his moſt intimate friends, till every ſhilling of it was ſpent; which done he again appeared, penſyleſs as before: But he would never inform any perſon where he had been, nor in what manner his money had been diſſipated.—From the reports, however, of ſome who penetrated his haunts, he expended both his time and his caſh in the moſt lordly and diſſipable ſenſuality; particularly in eating and drinking, in which he would indulge in the moſt unſocial manner, ſitting whole days and nights by himſelf, in obſcure houſes of entertainment, over his bottle and trencher, immerſed in ſloth, with ſcarce decent apparel; generally wrapped up in a horſeman's great coat; and, on the whole, with his very homely countenance, exhibiting an object the moſt diſguſting to the eye, if not to ſome other of the ſenſes. His wit and parts however, ſtill raiſed him new friends as faſt as his miſbehaviour loſt him his old ones. Yet ſuch was his conduct, that occaſional relief only furniſhed the means of occaſional exceſs; and he defeated all attempts made by his friends to fix him in a decent way. He was even reduced ſo low as to be deſtitute of a lodging; inſomuch that he often paſſed his nights in thoſe mean houſes that are let open for caſual wanderers; ſometimes in ſtories amidſt the riot and filth of the moſt profligate of the rabble; and not ſeldom would he walk the ſtreets till he was weary, and then lie down on a bulk, or in winter with his aſſociates

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ig the aſhes of a glaſs-houſe. Yet, amidſt all enury and wretchedneſs, this man had ſo much , and ſo high an opinion of his own merit, he was always ready to repreſs, with ſcorn contempt, the leaſt appearance of any ſlight rds himſelf, in the behaviour of his acquaint- ; among whom he looked upon none as his ior. He would be treated as an equal, even erſons of the higheſt rank. He once refuſed it upon a gentleman who was deſirous of re- g him when at the loweſt diſtreſs, only be- the meſſage ſignified the gentleman's deſire him at nine in the morning. This life was ered ſtill more unhappy, by the death of the n, in 1738. His penſion was diſcontinued, the inſolent manner in which he demanded Robert Walpole to have it reſtored, for ever iff this ſupply; which probably might have recovered by proper application. His diſ- now became ſo notorious, that a ſcheme was ugth concerted for procuring him a perma- relief. It was propoſed that he ſhould retire Wales, with an allowance of 50 l. a-year, on h he was to live privately, in a cheap place, ver quitting his town haunts, and reſigning rther pretenſions to fame. This offer he ed gladly to accept; but his intentions were to deceive his friends, by retiring for a while, rite another tragedy, and then to return with London. In 1739, he ſet out for Swanſey, in Briſtol ſtage-coach, and was furniſhed with 15 eas to bear the expence of his journey. But, e 14th day after his departure, his friends benefactors, the principal of whom was Mr , who expected to hear of his arrival in s, were ſurpriſed with a letter from Savage, ming them that he was yet upon the road, ould not proceed for want of money. There no other remedy than a remittance; which ſent him, and by the help of which he was led to reach Briſtol, whence he was to pro- to Swanſey by water. At Briſtol, however, und an embargo laid upon the ſhipping; ſo he could not immediately obtain a paſſage, , therefore, being obliged to ſtay for ſome , he ſo ingratiated himſelf with the principal bitants, that he was often invited to their hou- diſtinguiſhed at their public entertainments, treated with a regard that highly gratified his y. At length, with great reluctance, he pro- ed to Swanſey; where he lived about a year, much diſſatisfied with the diminution of his y; for he had, in his letters, treated his cor- tors ſo inſolently, that moſt of them with- their ſubſcriptions. Here he finiſhed his dy, and reſolved to return with it to London: h was ſtrenuouſly oppoſed by his conſtant d Mr Pope; who propoſed that Savage ſhould his play into the hands of Mr Thomſon and Mallet, that they might fit it for the ſtage, his friends ſhould receive the profits it might in, and that the author ſhould receive the uce by way of annuity. This kind and pru- ſcheme was rejected by Savage with con- t.—He declared he would not ſubmit his s to any one's correction; and that he would nger be kept in leading-ſtrings. Accordingly on returned to Briſtol, in his way to Lon- don; but at Briſtol, meeting with a repetition of the ſame kind treatment he had before found there, he was tempted to make a ſecond ſtay in that o- pulent city for ſome time. Here he was again not only careſſed and treated, but the ſum of 30 l. was raiſed for him, with which it had been happy if he had immediately departed for London: But he never conſidered that a frequent repetition of ſuch kindneſs was not to be expected. In ſhort, he remained here till his company was no longer welcome. His viſits in every family were too of- ten repeated; his wit had loſt its novelty, and his irregular behaviour grew troubleſome. Neceſſity came upon him before he was aware; his money was ſpent, his clothes were worn out, his appearance was ſhabby, and his preſence was diſguſtful at every table. He now began to find every man from home at whoſe houſe he called; and he found it difficult to obtain a dinner. Thus re- duced, it would have been prudent in him to have withdrawn from the place; but prudence and Sa- vage were never acquainted. He ſtaid, in the midſt of poverty, hunger, and contempt, till the miſtreſs of a coffee-houſe, to whom he owed about L. 8. arreſted him for the debt. He remained for ſome time, at a great expence, in the houſe of the ſheriff's officer, in hopes of procuring bail; which expence he was enabled to defray, by a preſent of five guineas from Mr Naſh at Bath. No bail, however, was to be found; ſo that poor Savage was at laſt lodged in Newgate, a priſon in Briſtol. But it was the fortune of this extraordinary mor- tal always to find more friends than he deſerved. The keeper of the priſon took compaſſion on him, and greatly ſoftened the rigours of his confine- ment by every kind of indulgence; he ſupported him at his own table, gave him a commodious room to himſelf, allowed him to ſtand at the door of the gaol, and often took him into the fields for the benefit of the air and exerciſe: ſo that, in re- ality, Savage endured fewer hardſhips here than he had uſually ſuffered during the greateſt part of his life. While he remained in this agreeable pri- ſon, his ingratitude again broke out, in a bitter ſatire on the city of Briſtol; to which he certain- ly owed great obligations, notwithſtanding his arreſt; which was but the lawful act of an indivi- dual. This ſatire he entitled *London and Briſtol delineated*; and in it he abuſed the inhabitants of the latter, with ſuch a ſpirit of reſentment, that the reader would imagine he had never received any other than the worſt of treatment in that city. When Savage had remained about ſix months in this hoſpitable priſon, he received a letter from Mr Pope, (who ſtill allowed him 20 l. a-year) con- taining a charge of very atrocious ingratitude; and though the particulars have not tranſpired, yet from the notorious character of the man, there is reaſon to fear that Savage was but too juſtly accuſed. He, however, ſolemnly proteſted his innocence; but he was very unuſually affected on this occaſion. In a few days after, he was ſeized with a diſorder, which at firſt was not ſuſpected to be dangerous: but growing daily more languid and dejected, at laſt a fever ſeized him; and he died on the 1ſt of Auguſt 1743, in the 46th year of his age. Thus lived, and thus died, Richard Savage, Eſq. leaving behind him a character ſtrangely

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strangely chequered with vices and good qualities. Of the former we have mentioned a variety of instances; of the latter, his peculiar situation in the world gave him but few opportunities of making any considerable display. He was, however, undoubtedly a man of excellent parts; and had he received the full benefits of a liberal education, and had his natural talents been cultivated to the best advantage, he might have made a respectable figure in life. He was happy in a quick discernment, a retentive memory, and a lively flow of wit, which made his company much coveted; nor was his judgment of men and writings inferior to his wit: but he was too much a slave to his passions, and his passions were too easily excited. He was warm in his friendships, but implacable in his enmity; and his greatest fault was ingratitude. He seemed to think every thing due to his merit, and that he was little obliged to any one for those favours which he thought it their duty to confer on him. He therefore never rightly estimated the kindness of his many friends and benefactors, or preserved a grateful sense of their generosity towards him. The works of this original writer, after having long lain dispersed in magazines and fugitive publications, were collected and published in an elegant edition, in 2 vols 8vo; to which are prefixed, the admirable *Memoirs of Savage*, written by Dr Samuel Johnson.

(3.) * SAVAGE. *adj.* [*sauvage*, French; *selvaggio*, Italian] 1. Wild; uncultivated.—

Affecting private life, or more obscure
In *savage* wilderness. *Milton.*

Cornels, and *savage* berries of the wood. *Dryden.*

2. Untamed; cruel.—

Chain me to some steepy mountain's top,
Where roaring bears and *savage* lions roam. *Shak.*

To fright you thus, methinks, I am too *savage*. *Shak.*

Tyrants no more their *savage* nature kept. *Pope.*

3. Uncivilized; barbarous; untaught; wild; brutal.—Thus people lived altogether a *savage* life, 'till Saturn devised laws to govern them by. *Ral.*

The *savage* clamour drown'd
Both harp and voice. *Milton.*

—A herd of wild beasts on the mountains, or a *savage* drove of men in caves, might be so disordered. *Spratt.*

(4.) * SAVAGE. *n. s.* [from the adjective.] A man uncivilized; a barbarian.—Long after these times were they but *savages*. *Raleigh.*—The seditious lived by rapine, omitting nothing of that which *savages* do commit. *Hayward.*—To deprive us of metals is to make us mere *savages*. *Bentley.*

(5.) SAVAGE, when applied to men, is of much the same import with *barbarian*, and means a person who is untaught and uncivilized, or who is in the rude state of uncultivated nature. That such men exist at present, and have existed in most ages of the world, is undeniable; but a question naturally occurs respecting the origin of this savage state, the determination of which is of considerable importance in developing the nature of man, and ascertaining the qualities and powers of the human mind. Upon this subject, opinions are very various, and the systems built upon them are consequently very contradictory. See SAVAGISM.

(6.) SAVAGE, in geography, a river of Maryland, which runs S. through Alleghany county, and falls into the Patomac, W. of George's Creek.

(7.) SAVAGE CREEK, a small bay on the NW. coast of Newfoundland.

(8.) SAVAGE ISLAND, an island on the S. Pacific Ocean, about 33 miles in circumference, uninhabited by savages. It is of a good height, and has deep water close to its shore. Its interior parts are supposed to be barren, as there was no fire to be seen upon the coast; the rocks alone supplying the trees with humidity. The inhabitants are exceedingly warlike and fierce, so that Captain Cook could not have any intercourse with them. Lon. 169. 37. W. Lat. 19. 2. S.

(9.) SAVAGE MOUNTAINS, mountains of Pennsylvania; 110 miles NW. of Philadelphia.

(10.) SAVAGE SOUND, a strait in the N. part of the Welcome Sea, in Hudson's Bay, which opens into Repulse Bay.

* *To* SAVAGE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To make barbarous, wild, or cruel. A word not warranted.—

Friends, relations, Love himself,
Savag'd by wine, forget the tender tie. *Trapp.*

* SAVAGELY. *adv.* [from *savage*.] Barbarously; cruelly.—

Your castle is surpris'd, your wife and babes
Savagely slaughter'd. *Shak.*

* SAVAGENESS. *n. s.* [from *savage*.] Barbarousness; cruelty; wildness.—

A *savageness* in unreclaimed blood. *Shak.*

Wolves and bears, they say,
Casting their *savageness* aside, have done
Like offices of pity. *Shak.*

—The Cyclops were a people of Sicily, remarkable for *savageness* and cruelty. *Brome.*

* SAVAGERY. *n. s.* [from *savage*.] 1. Cruelty; barbarity.—

This is the bloodiest shame,
The wildest *savag'ry*, the vilest stroke,
That ever wall-ey'd Wrath, or staring Rage
Presented to the tears of soft Remorse. *Shak.*

2. Wild growth.—

The culter rusts,
That should deracinate such *savagery*. *Shak.*

(1.) SAVAGISM, *n. s.* a word of modern invention, quite distinct from SAVAGENESS and SAVAGERY; though it comprehends both; expressing the ignorant and barbarous state of mankind which most ancient philosophers, and some modern authors of eminence, suppose to have been the original state of all mankind. A certain sect of ancient philosophers maintained that man sprung at first from the earth like vegetables, that he was without ideas and without speech; and that many ages elapsed before the race acquired the use of language, or attained to greater knowledge than the beasts of the forest. Other sects agree with the vulgar, and almost all the poets, maintained that the first mortals were wiser and superior, and more powerful, than any of their descendants; that mankind, instead of being originally savages, and rising to the state of civilization by their own gradual and progressive exertions, were

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d in a high degree of perfection; that, how-
, they degenerated from that ſtate, and that
ature degenerated with them. Hence the va-
s ages of the world have almoſt every where
compared to gold, ſilver, braſs, and iron, the
en having always been ſuppoſed to be the firſt
See AGE, § 2.

.) SAVAGISM, ARGUMENTS FOR AND A-
ST AN ORIGINAL STATE OF. Since the re-
of letters in Europe, and eſpecially during
aſt century, the ſame queſtion has been much
ted both in France and England, and by far
greater part of the moſt faſhionable names in
n ſcience have declared for the original ſa-
m of men. Such of the ancients as held that
ion were countenanced by the atheiſtic coſ-
ony of the Phœnicians, and by the early hiſ-
of their own nations; the moderns build
r ſyſtem upon what they ſuppoſe to be the
ſtitution of the human mind, and upon the
improvements in arts and ſciences. As the
ſtion muſt finally be decided by hiſtorical evi-
ce, before we make our appeal to facts, we
l conſider the force of the modern reaſonings
n the ſuppoſed innate powers of the human
d; for that reaſoning is totally different from
other, and to blend them together would pre-
the reader from having an adequate concep-
of either. Upon the ſuppoſition that all man-
d were originally ſavages, deſtitute of the uſe
peech, and, in the ſtricteſt ſenſe of the words,
um et turpe pecus, the great difficulty is to con-
e how they could emerge from that ſtate, and
ome at laſt enlightened and civilized. The
lern advocates for the univerſality of the ſa-
e ſtate remove this difficulty by a number of
incts or internal ſenſes; with which they ſup-
the human mind endowed, and by which
ſavage is, without reflection, not only enabled
diſtinguiſh between right and wrong, and
mpted to do every thing neceſſary to the pre-
ation of his exiſtence, and the continuance of
ſpecies, but alſo led to the diſcovery of what
contribute in the firſt inſtance, to the eaſe
accommodations of life. Theſe inſtincts, they
k, brought mankind together when the reaſ-
ng faculty, which had hitherto been dormant,
ng now rouſed by the colliſions of ſociety,
le its obſervations upon the conſequences of
r different actions, taught them to avoid ſuch
xperience ſhowed to be pernicious, and to im-
re upon thoſe which they found beneficial; and
s was the progreſs of civilization begun. But
theory is oppoſed by objections which we
w not how to obviate. The bundle of in-
ts with which modern *idleneſs*, under the de-
nation of *philoſophy*, has ſo amply furniſhed
human mind, is a mere chimera. (See IN-
NCT, § 5, 6, 9, 10.) But granting its reality,
by no means ſufficient to produce the conſe-
nces which are derived from it. That it is
the parent of language, we have ſhown at
e in another place; (ſee LANGUAGE, *Sect.* II,
and we have the confeſſion of ſome of the a-
advocates for the original ſavagiſm of man,
large ſocieties muſt have been formed before
uage could have been invented. How ſocie-

ties, at leaſt large ſocieties, could be formed and kept together without language, we have not indeed been told; but we are aſſured by every hiſtorian and every traveller of credit, that in ſuch ſocieties only have mankind been found civilized. Among known ſavages the ſocial ſtorge is very much confined; and therefore, had it been in the firſt race of men of as enlarged a nature, and as ſafe a guide, as the inſtinctive philoſophers contend that it was, it is plain that thoſe men could not have been ſavages. Such an appetite for ſociety, and ſuch a director of conduct, inſtead of enabling mankind to have emerged from ſavagiſm, would have effectually prevented them from ever becoming ſavage; it would have knit them together from the very firſt, and furniſhed opportunities for the progenitors of the human race to have begun the proceſs of civilization from the moment that they dropt from the hands of their Creator. Indeed, were the modern theories of internal ſenſes and ſocial affections well founded, and were theſe ſenſes and affections ſufficient to have impelled the firſt men into ſociety, it is not eaſy to be conceived how there could be at this day a ſavage tribe on the face of the earth. Natural cauſes, operating in the ſame direction and with the ſame force, muſt in every age produce the ſame effects; and if the ſocial affections of the firſt mortals impelled them to ſociety, and their reaſoning faculties immediately commenced the proceſs of civilization, ſurely the ſame affections and the ſame faculties would in a greater or leſs degree have had the ſame effect in every age and on every tribe of their numerous offſpring; and we ſhould everywhere obſerve mankind advancing in civilization, inſtead of ſtanding ſtill as they often do, and ſometimes retreating by a retrograde motion. This, however, is far from being the caſe. Hordes of ſavages exiſt in almoſt every quarter of the globe; and the Chineſe, who have undoubtedly been in a ſtate of civilization for at leaſt 2000 years, have during the whole of that long period been abſolutely ſtationary, if they have not loſt ſome of their ancient arts. (See PORCELAIN, § 2.) The origin of civilization, therefore, is not to be looked for in human inſtincts or human propenſities, carrying men forward by a natural progreſs; for the ſuppoſition of ſuch propenſities is contrary to fact; and by fact and hiſtorical evidence, in conjunction with what we know of the nature of man, muſt this great queſtion be decided. It is admitted by many eminent writers, that the firſt men, if left to themſelves without any inſtruction, inſtead of living the life of ſavages, and in proceſs of time advancing towards civilization, muſt have periſhed before they acquired even the uſe of ſome of their ſenſes. Under the article RELIGION, § 3, it has been ſhown, that Moſes, as he is undoubtedly the oldeſt hiſtorian extant, wrote likewiſe by immediate inſpiration; and that therefore, as he repreſents our firſt parents and their immediate deſcendants as in a ſtate far removed from that of ſavages, it is in vain to attempt to deduce the originality of ſuch a ſtate from hypothetical theories of human nature. We have, indeed, heard it obſerved by ſome of the advocates for the antiquity and univerſality of the

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savage state, that to the appeal to revelation they have no objection, provided we take the Mosaic account as it stands, and draw not from it conclusions which it will not support. They contend, that there is no argument fairly deducible from the book of Genesis which militates against their position. But besides the reasoning already used in the article referred to, we have as much positive evidence against their position as the nature of the Mosaic history could be supposed to afford.

(3.) SAVAGISM, FACTS INCONSISTENT WITH AN ORIGINAL STATE OF. We are told by Moses, that God created man after his own image; that he gave him dominion over every thing in the sea, in the air, and over all the earth; that he appointed for his food various kinds of vegetables; that he ordained the SABBATH to be observed by him, in commemoration of the works of the creation; that he prepared for him a garden to till and to dress; and that, as a test of his religion and submission to his Creator, he forbade him, under severe penalties, to eat of a certain tree in that garden. We are then told that God brought to him every animal which had been created; and we find that Adam was so well acquainted with their several natures as to give them names. When an helpmate was provided for him, he immediately acknowledged her as bone of his bone, flesh of his flesh, and called her *woman*, because she was taken out of man. How these facts can be reconciled to a state of ignorant savage life, is to us absolutely inconceivable; and it is indeed strange, that men who profess Christianity should appeal to reason, and flock by its decision on a question which revelation has thus plainly decided against them. But it is agreeable to their theory to believe that man rose by slow steps to the full use of his reasoning powers. It is equally plausible to suppose that our first parents were created, not in full maturity, but mere infants, and that they went through the tedious process of childhood and youth, &c. as to suppose that their minds were created weak, uninformed, and uncivilized, as are those of savages. But if it be granted that Adam had a tolerable share of knowledge, and some civilization, nothing can be more natural than to suppose that he would teach his descendants what he knew himself; and we are certain that some of them possessed more than savage knowledge, and better than savage manners. But instead of going on to further perfection, as the theory of modern philosophers would lead us to suppose, we find that mankind degenerated in a most astonishing degree; the causes of which are already in part developed in the article POLYTHEISM. This early degeneracy of the human race, or their sudden progress towards ignorance and savagism, appears to lead to an important consequence. If men so very soon after their creation, possessing as we have seen they did, a considerable share of knowledge and of civilization, instead of improving in either, degenerated in both respects, it would appear that human nature has not that strong propensity to refinement which many philosophers imagine; for that had all men been originally savages, they would have civilized themselves by their own exertions. Of the ages before the flood we have no certain account anywhere but in Scripture; where, though we find mankind represented as very wicked, we have no reason to suppose them to have been absolute savages. On the contrary, we have much reason, from the short account given by Moses, to conclude that they were far advanced in the arts of civil life. Cain, we are told, built a city; and two of his early descendants invented the harp and organ, and were artificers in brass and iron. Cities are not built, nor musical instruments invented, by savages, but by men highly cultivated: and surely we have no reason to suppose that the righteous posterity of Seth were behind the apostate descendants of Cain, in any branch of knowledge that was really useful. That Noah and his family were far removed from barbarism, no one will controvert, who believes that with them was made a new covenant of religion; and it was unquestionably their duty, as it must otherwise have been their wish, to communicate what knowledge they possessed to their posterity. Thus far then every consistent Christian, we think, must determine against original and universal savagism. In the preliminary discourse to *Sketches of the History of Man*, Lord Kames would infer, from some facts which he states, that many pairs of the human race were at first created, of very different forms and natures, but all depending entirely on their own natural talents. But to this statement he rightly observes, that the Mosaic account of the Creation opposes insuperable objections. "Whence then (says his Lordship) the degeneracy of all men into the savage state? To account for that dismal catastrophe, mankind must have suffered some dreadful convulsion." Now this is taking for granted the very thing to be proved. We deny that at any period since the creation, *all* men were sunk into the state of savages; and that they were, no proof has yet been brought, nor do we know of any that can be brought, unless our fashionable philosophers choose to prop their theories by the buttress of Sanchoniatho's Phœnician cosmogony. (See SANCHONIATHO.) His Lordship, however, says or rather *supposes*, that the confusion at Babel was this dreadful convulsion: For, says he, "by confounding the language of men, and scattering them abroad upon the face of all the earth, they were rendered savages." Here again we have a positive assertion, without the least shadow of proof; for it does not at all appear that the confusion of language, and the scattering abroad of the people, was a circumstance such as could reduce universal savagism. There is no reason to think, that all the men then alive were engaged in building the tower of Babel; nor does it appear from the Hebrew original, that the language of those who were engaged in it was so much changed as the reader is apt to infer from our English version. (See PHILOLOGY, *Sect.* I.) That the builders were *scattered*, is indeed certain; and any of them were driven, in very small tribes, to a great distance from their brethren, they would in process of time inevitably become savages. (See POLYTHEISM, *page* 120. and LANGUAGE, *Sect.* III.); but it is evident, from the sacred account of the peopling of the earth, that the descendants of Shem and Japheth were not [illegible]

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ver the face of all the earth, and that there- they could not be rendered ſavage by the ca- ophe at Babel. In the chapter which relates wonderful event, the generations of Shem given in order down to Abraham; but there is indication that they had ſuffered with the ders of the tower, or that any of them had nerated into the ſtate of ſavages. On the con- , they appear to have poſſeſſed a conſidera- degree of knowledge; and if any credit be to the tradition, which repreſents the father braham as a ſtatuary, and himſelf as ſkilled e ſcience of aſtronomy, they muſt have been dvanced in the arts of refinement. Even ſuch he poſterity of Ham, as either emigrated or driven from the plain of Shinar in large bo- ſo far from ſinking into ſavagiſm, retained e accompliſhments of their antediluvian an- rs, and became afterwards the inſtructors of Greeks and Romans. This is evident from iſtory of the Egyptians and other eaſtern na- , who in the days of Abraham were power- nd highly civilized. And that for many ages did not degenerate into barbariſm, is appa- from its having been thought to exalt the acter of Moſes, that he was learned in all the om of the Egyptians, and from the wiſdom olomon having been ſaid to excel all the wiſ- of the eaſt country and of Egypt. Thus de- l are the Scriptures of the Old Teſtament a- t the univerſal prevalence of ſavagiſm in that d of the world; nor are the moſt authentic n writers of antiquity of a different opinion. hus the Phœnician, (*Strabo, lib.* 17.) Demos- s, and Epicurus, appear to be the firſt champ- s of the ſavage ſtate, and they are followed numerous body of poets and rhapſodiſts, a- g the Greeks and Romans, who were un- ionably devoted to fable and fiction. The unt which they have given of the origin of the reader will find in another place (ſee OLOGY, *Part* I. *Sect.* I.): But we hardly that he will employ it in ſupport of the fa- able doctrine of original ſavagiſm. Againſt rild reveries of this ſchool are poſted all the rs of the other ſects, Greeks and barbarians; hiloſophers of both Academies, the ſages of talian and Alexandrian ſchools; the magi of ; the Bramins of India, and the Druids of , &c. The teſtimony of the early hiſtorians g all the ancient nations, indeed, who are edly-fabuliſts, is very little to be depended nd has been called in queſtion by the moſt ous writers of Pagan antiquity. (See *Plu- Vita Theſ. ſub init. Thucyd.* l. 1. cap. 1. *Stra-* 11. p. 507. *Livy Pref.* and *Varro ap. Auguſt . Dei.)* The more populous and extenſive oms and ſocieties were civilized at a period to the records of profane hiſtory: the preci- ion, therefore, without taking revelation in- account, certainly is, that they were civi- from the beginning. This is rendered fur- robable from other circumſtances. To ac- for their ſyſtem, the advocates of ſavagiſm bliged to have recourſe to numerous ſuppo- . They imagine, that ſince the creation ful convulſions have happened, which have ſpread ruin and deva ſtation over the earth, which have deſtroyed learning and the arts, and brought on ſavagiſm by one ſudden blow. But this is reaſoning at random, and without a veſtige of probability: for the only convulſion that can be mentioned is that at Babel, which we have already ſhewn to be inadequate.

(4.) SAVAGISM, PROOFS OF THE DIFFICULTY OF MANKIND EMERGING FROM. It may be farther argued, that it does not appear, that any people who were once civilized, and in proceſs of time had degenerated into the ſavage or barbarous ſtate, have ever recovered their priſtine condition without foreign aid. From whence we conclude, that man, once a ſavage, would never have raiſed himſelf from that hopeleſs ſtate. This appears evident from the hiſtory of the world; for that it requires ſtrong incitements to keep man in a very high ſtate of knowledge and civilization, is evident from what we know of the numerous nations which were famed in antiquity, but which are now degenerated in an aſtoniſhing degree. That man cannot, or, which is the ſame thing, has not riſen from barbariſm to civilization and ſcience by his own efforts and natural talents, appears further from the following facts. The rudiments of all the learning, religion, laws, arts, and ſciences, and other improvements that have enlightened Europe, a great part of Aſia, and the northern coaſt of Africa, were ſo many rays diverging from two points, on the banks of the Euphrates and the Nile. In proportion as nations receded from theſe two ſources of humanity and civilization, in the ſame proportion were they more and more immerſed in ignorance and barbariſm. The Greeks had made no progreſs towards civiliſation, when the Titans firſt, and afterwards colonies from Egypt and Phœnicia, taught them the very elements of ſcience and urbanity. See MYTHOLOGY, § 35; and TITAN. The aborigines of Italy were in the ſame ſtate prior to the arrival of the Pelaſgi, and the colonies from Arcadia and other parts of Greece. Spain was indebted for the firſt ſeeds of improvement to the commercial ſpirit of the Phenicians. The Gauls, the Britons, and the Germans, derived from the Romans all that in the early periods of their hiſtory they knew of ſcience, or the arts of civil life, and ſo on of other nations in antiquity. The ſame appears to be the caſe in modern times. The countries which have been diſcovered by the reſtleſs and inquiſitive ſpirit of Europeans have been generally found in the loweſt ſtate of ſavagiſm; from which, if they have emerged at all, it has been exactly in proportion to their connection with the inhabitants of Europe. Even weſtern Europe itſelf, when ſunk in ignorance, during the reign of monkery, did not recover by the efforts of its own inhabitants. Had not the Greeks, who in the 15th century took refuge in Italy from the cruelty of the Turks, brought with them their ancient books, and taught the Italians to read them, we, who are diſputing about the origin of the ſavage ſtate, and the innate powers of the human mind, had at this day been groſs and ignorant ſavages ourſelves, incapable of reaſoning with accuracy upon

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any ſubject. That we have now advanced far before our maſters is readily admitted; for the human mind, when put on the right track, and ſpurred on by emulation and other incitements, is capable of making great improvements: but between improving ſcience, and emerging from ſavagiſm, every one perceives there is an immenſe difference. Lord KAMES obſerves, that the people who inhabit a grateful ſoil, where the neceſſaries of life are eaſily procured, are the firſt who invent uſeful and ingenious arts, and the firſt who figure in the exerciſes of the mind. But the Egyptians and Chaldeans, who are thought to ſupport this remark, appear from what we have ſeen to have derived their knowledge from their antediluvian progenitors, and not from any advantages of ſituation or ſtrength of genius. Beſides, the inhabitants of a great part of Africa, of North and South America, and of many of the iſlands lately diſcovered, live in regions equally fertile, and equally productive of the neceſſaries of life, with the regions of Chaldea and Egypt; yet theſe people have been ſavages from time immemorial, and continue ſtill in the ſame ſtate. The Athenians, on the other hand, inhabited the moſt barren and ungrateful region of Greece, while their perfection in the arts and ſciences has never been equalled. The Norwegian colony which ſettled in Iceland about the beginning of the 8th century, inhabited a moſt bleak and barren ſoil, and yet the fine arts were eagerly cultivated in that dreary region, when the reſt of Europe was ſunk in ignorance and barbariſm. Again, there are many parts of Africa, and of North and South America, where the ſoil is neither ſo luxuriant as to beget indolence, nor ſo barren and ungrateful as to depreſs the ſpirits by labour and poverty; where, notwithſtanding, the inhabitants ſtill continue in an uncultured ſtate. From all which, and from numerous other inſtances which our limits permit us not to bring forward, we infer that ſome external influence is neceſſary to impel ſavages towards civilization; and that in the hiſtory of the world, or the nature of the thing, we find no inſtance of any people emerging from barbariſm by the progreſſive efforts of their own genius. On the contrary, as we find in ſocieties highly cultivated and luxurious, a ſtrong tendency to degenerate, ſo in ſavages we not only find no mark of tendency to improvement, but rather a rooted averſion to it. Among them, indeed, the ſocial appetite never reaches beyond their own horde. It is, therefore, too weak and too confined to diſpoſe them to unite in large communities; and of courſe, had all mankind been once in the ſavage ſtate, they never could have arrived at any conſiderable degree of civilization. Inſtead of truſting to any ſuch natural progreſs, as is contended for, the Providence of Heaven, in pity to the human race, appears at different times, and in different countries, to have raiſed up ſome perſons endowed with ſuperior talents, who having themſelves acquired ſome knowledge in nations already civilized, by uſeful inventions, legiſlation, religious inſtitutions, and moral arrangements, ſowed the firſt ſeeds of civilization among the hordes of wandering diſunited barbarians. Thus we find the Chineſe look up to their Fohee, the Indians to Brahma, the Perſians to Zoroaſter, the Chaldeans to Oannes, the Egyptians to Thoth, the Phenicians to Melicerta, the Scandinavians to Odin, the Italians to Janus, Saturn, and Picus, and the Peruvians to Manco in later times, and almoſt within our own view, we find the barbarous nations of Ruſſia reduced to ſome order and civilization by the aſtoniſhing powers and exertions of Peter the Great. The endeavours of ſucceeding monarchs, and eſpecially of the late empreſs, have powerfully contributed to the improvement of this mighty empire. In many parts of it, however, we ſtill find the inhabitants in a ſtate very little ſuperior to ſavagiſm; and through the moſt of it, the lower, and perhaps the middling orders, appear to retain an almoſt invincible averſion to all further improvements. (See RUSSIA, § 27—29.) A fact which when added to numerous others of a ſimilar nature which occur in the hiſtory of the world, ſeems to prove indiſputably that there is no innate natural propenſity to improvement in the human mind as we are taught by ſome authors to believe. The origin of ſavagiſm, if we allow mankind to have been at firſt civilized, is eaſily accounted for by natural means: The origin of civilization in at any period the whole race were ſavages, can not, we think, be accounted for otherwiſe than by a miracle, or a ſeries of miracles. To many perſons in the preſent day the doctrine we have now attempted to eſtabliſh, will appear mortifying; and perhaps it is this alone that has prevented many from giving the ſubject ſo great a hearing as its importance ſeems to require. It is a faſhionable kind of philoſophy to attribute to the human mind very pre-eminent powers, and ſo flatter our pride, as in a great meaſure to pervert our reaſon, and blind our judgment. The hiſtory of the world, and of the diſpenſations of God to man, are certainly at variance with the popular doctrine reſpecting the origin of civilization; for if the human mind be poſſeſſed of the innate vigour which that doctrine attributes to it, it will be extremely difficult to account for numerous facts which ſeem with irreſiſtible evidence to proclaim the contrary; for that unequal care with which the Deity appears to have watched over us; and for thoſe various and important revelations He has vouchſafed to us. Let us rejoice and be thankful that we are men, and Chriſtians; but let not a vain philoſophy tempt us to imagine that we are angels or gods.

SAVAN, a lake of N. America, in Long. 95. W. Lat. 50. 20. N.

(1.) * SAVANNA. *n. ſ.* [Spaniſh, according to *Bailey.*] An open meadow without wood; a paſture-ground in America.—Woodland in one place, and *ſavannas* in another. *Locke.*—

Plains immenſe,
And vaſt *ſavannas.* Thomſon.

(2.) SAVANNA, or SAVANNAH, a city of the United States in Georgia, formerly the metropolis of the ſtate. It is ſeated in Chatham county, on the S. bank of the Savanna, (N° 3.) on a high ſandy *bluff* (or mount) 50 feet above the river, 17 miles from the ocean. It is regularly built in the form of a parallelogram; and, including the ſuburbs, contained, in 1790, about 2,500 citizens.

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whom about 90 are Jews. Above two 3ds of were burnt in 1796. The annual exports in ptember 1794, amounted to 263,830 dollars. ring the American war this city was bravely fended by the British troops under Gen. Pre-t, against a force much superior, under Count Estaing, and Gen. Lincoln. It has 3 churches, presbyterians, episcopalions, and German Lu-rans; and a Jewish synagogue. It lies 120 les from Augusta, and 878 SW. by S. of Phila-lphia. Lon. 81. 24. W. Lat. 32. 3. N. On the 9th January 1779, this town was taken by the ritish troops under Lieut. Col. Campbell.

(3.) SAVANNA, or SAVANNAH, a large navigable ver of the United States, which forms part of e divisional line between Georgia and S. Carolina. It is formed by the junction of the rivers Tugelo and Keowee, which rise in the Appalachian ountains, and after their union are named *Savanna*. Running thence a SE. course, it passes etersburg, and receiving Broad River from the NW. runs still farther SE. passes Augusta, Ebenzer and Savanna, and falls into the Atlantic, in on. 81° and Lat. 32°. It is navigable by large essels for 17 miles from its mouth up to Savanna; having generally 16 feet water at half tide. It is navigable by boats of 100 feet keel, carrying 50 hhds. of tobacco, up to Augusta, where it is 150 yards broad, and from 10 to 15 feet deep. The navigation is obstructed about 3 miles above Augusta by cataracts, but, after passing these, it is navigable up to the mouth of the Tugelo. In high floods the falls are often passed by loaded boats, but not without danger. In 1790, 200 hhds. of tobacco were lost, in this attempt.

(4.) SAVANNA, a bay at the E. end of Antigua.

(5.) SAVANNA CHANNEL, a bay of Jamaica, on the SE. point of the S. coast, W. of Port Morant.

(6.) SAVANNA LA MAR, a town of Hispaniola, on the E. coast, on the S. side of the Bay of Samana: opposite the city of Samana.

(7.) SAVANNA LA MAR, or } a town of Jamaica,
(7.) SAVANNA LA MER, } in the county of Cornwallis: It is the county town, where the assize courts are held, the last Tuesdays in March, June, Sept. and December. It has an elegant court-house, and about 100 houses. It belongs to Westmoreland parish, in which are 89 sugar-estates, 106 other estates, and 18,000 slaves. It has a good harbour, and excellent anchorage. In 1780, it was almost totally destroyed by a dreadful hurricane and inundation of the sea. It has been since rebuilt. Lon. 78. 7. W. Lat. 18. 13. N.

(8.) SAVANNA MOUNTAINS, mountains of Jamaica; 12 miles E. of Savanna la Mar.

(9.) SAVANNA POINT, a cape of Hispaniola, on the W. coast. Lon. 61. 49. W. Lat. 15. 33. N.

(10.) SAVANNA RIVER, LITTLE, a river of N. America, which falls into the Gulf of Mexico, NW. of St Joseph's Bay.

SAVANNAH. See SAVANNA, N° 1—10.

SAVARONA, a river of the kingdom of Italy, in the department of the Mella, and ci-devant territory of Brescian.

(1.) SAVARY, James, an eminent French writer on trade, was born at Done, in Anjou, in 1622. Being bred to merchandize, he continued in trade until 1658; when he left off the practice, to cultivate the theory. He had married in 1650; and in 1660, when the king declared a purpose of assigning privileges and pensions to such of his subjects as had 12 children alive, Mr Savary was not too rich to put in his claim to the royal bounty. He was afterwards admitted of the council for the reformation of commerce; and the orders which passed in 1670 were drawn up by his instructions and advice. He wrote *Le Parfait Negociant*, 4to; and, *Avis et conseils sur les plus importantes matieres du Commerce*, in 4to. He died in 1690; and out of 17 children whom he had by one wife, left 11.

(2, 3.) SAVARY, James and Philemon-Lewis, 2 of the sons of the preceding, laboured jointly on a great work, *Dictionnaire Universelle du Commerce*, 2 vols folio. This work was begun by James, who was inspector-general of the manufactures at the customhouse Paris; who called in the assistance of his brother Philemon Lewis, although a canon of the royal church of St Maur; and by his death left him to finish it. This work appeared in 1723, and Philemon afterwards added a third supplemental volume to the former. Postlethwayte's English Dictionary of Trade and Commerce is a translation, with considerable improvments, from Savary.

(4.) SAVARY, an eminent French traveller and writer, born at Vitre, in Brittany, about 1748. He studied with applause at Rennes, and in 1776 travelled into Egypt, where he remained about 3 years. During this period he was engaged in the study of the Arabian language, in searching out ancient monuments, and in examiniug the national manners. After making himself acquainted with the knowledge and philosophy of Egypt, he visited the islands in the Archipelago, where he spent 18 months. On his return to France, in 1780, he published, 1. A Translation of the Koran, with a short Life of Mahomet, in 1783, 2 vols 8vo. 2. The Morality of the Koran, or a collection of the most excellent maxims in the Koran; a work extracted from his translation, which is esteemed both elegant and faithful. 3. Letters on Egypt, in 3 vols 8vo, in 1785. In these the author makes his observations with accuracy, paints with vivacity, and renders interesting every thing he relates; but he is censured for painting modern Egypt and its inhabitants in too high colours. These letters, however, were rapidly bought, and encouraged by this flattering reception, he prepared his letters upon Greece. But about this time he contracted a malady from too intense application. An obstruction in the right lobe of the liver had made a decisive progress, which the return of summer, some medicines, a strict regimen, and travelling, seemed to remove. On his return into the environs of Paris, his health was still doubtful. His active mind, however, made him regardless of his health, and he put in order his travels into the islands of the Archipelago. An obstruction in the liver again took place; his digestion became languid; sleep forsook him; a dry and troublesome cough came on; his face appeared bloated, and his legs inflamed. In this situation he returned to Paris in the beginning of 1788, to attend to the publication of his new work. He had then all the symptoms of a dangerous dropsy.

His

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his ſtrength was exhauſted, and he died on the 4th Feb. 1788. Mr Savary's genius was lively; his heart warm and benevolent; his imagination vigorous; his memory retentive. He was cheerful, and had ſo great a talent for telling a ſtory, that his company was not leſs agreeable than inſtructive. He did not mingle much with the world, but was ſatisfied with performing well the duties of a ſon, a brother, and a friend.

SAVATOPOLI, or SEBASTOPOLIS, a town of Aſiatic Georgia, in Mingrelia, on the borders of Ruſſia, ſeated on the Black Sea, anciently called *Dioſcurias*, in Colchis, from DIOSCURI, a name of Caſtor and Pollux. It is 220 miles NNW. of Teflis and 260 NNW. of Erivan. Lon. 73. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 46. 0. N.

SAUBRIDGEWORTH, a town of England, in Hertfordſhire. It has 2 fairs, 23d April, 19th Oct. and a market on Wedneſday.

* SAUCE. *n. ſ.* [*ſauce*, *ſauſſe*, Fr. *ſalſa*, Italian.] 1. Something eaten with food to improve its taſte. —The bitter *ſauce* of the ſport was, that we had our honours for ever loſt. *Sidney.*—

The *ſauce* to meat is ceremony. *Shak. Macb.*

Epicurean cooks
Sharpen with cloyneſs, *ſauce* his appetite. *Shak.*

Such was the *ſauce* of Moab's noble feaſt. *Cowl.*

—He that ſpends his time in ſports, is like him whoſe meat is nothing but *ſauces*; they are healthleſs, chargeable, and uſeleſs. *Taylor.*—High *ſauces* and rich ſpices are fetched from the Indies. *Baker.* 2. *To ſerve one the ſame* SAUCE. A vulgar phraſe to retaliate one injury with another.

* *To* SAUCE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To accompany meat with ſomething of higher reliſh. 2. To gratify with rich taſtes. Obſolete.—

Earth, yield me roots;
Who ſeeks for better of thee, *ſauce* his palate
With thy moſt operant poiſon. *Shak.*

3. To intermix or accompany with any thing good, or, ironically, with any thing bad.—Then fell ſhe to *ſauce* her deſires with threatenings. *Sidney.*—All the delights of love, wherein wanton youth walloweth, be but ſorrow *ſauced* with repentance. *Spenſer.*—

Thou ſay'ſt his meat was *ſauc'd* with thy upbraidings. *Shak.*

* SAUCEBOX. *n. ſ.* [from *ſauce*, or rather from *ſaucy*.] An impertinent or petulant fellow.—This has encouraged my *ſaucebox* to be witty upon me. *Spectator.*

* SAUCEPAN. *n. ſ.* [*ſauce* and *pan*.] A ſmall ſkillet with a long handle, in which ſauce or ſmall things are boiled.—Your maſter will not allow you a ſilver *ſaucepan*. *Swift.*

* SAUCER. *n. ſ.* [*ſauciere*, Fr. from *ſauce*.] 1. A ſmall pan or platter in which ſauce is ſet on the table.—Infuſe a pugil of new violets ſeven times, and it ſhall make the vinegar ſo freſh of the flower, as, if brought in a *ſaucer*, you ſhall ſmell it before it come at you. *Bacon.*—

Some have miſtaken blocks and poſts
For ſpectres, apparitions, ghoſts,
With *ſaucer* eyes and horns. *Hudibras.*

2. A piece or platter of china, into which a teacup is ſet.

SAUCESEUX BOIS, a town of France, in the department of Ardennes; 7½ miles NE. of Rethel.

* SAUCILY. *adv.* [from *ſaucy*.] Impudently; impertinently; petulantly; in a ſaucy manner.—Though this knave came ſomewhat *ſaucily* into the world before he was ſent for, yet was his mother fair. *Shak.*—A freed ſervant, who had much power with Claudius, very *ſaucily* had almoſt ſaid the words. *Bacon.*—A trumpet behaved himſelf very *ſaucily*. *Addiſon.*

* SAUCINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ſaucy*.] Impudence; petulance; impertinence; contempt of ſuperiors.

With how ſweet ſaws ſhe blam'd their *ſaucineſs*. *Sidney.*

—By his authority he remains here, which he thinks is a patent for his *ſaucineſs*. *Shak.*—

Great reaſon that my noble lord be rated
For *ſaucineſs*. *Shak. Titus Andronicus.*

—It is *ſaucineſs* in a creature, in this caſe, to reply. *Bramh.*—Imputing it to the natural *ſauciness* of a pedant, they made him eat his words. *L'Eſt.*—You *ſaucineſs*, mind your pruning-knife, or I may uſe it for you. *Dryden.*—When this *ſauciness* became univerſal, what leſs miſchief could be expected than an old Scythian rebellion? *Collier.*

(1.) * SAUCISSE. *n. ſ.* [Fr.] In gunnery, a long train of powder ſewed up in a roll of pitched cloth, about two inches diameter, in order to fire a bombcheſt. *Bailey.*

(2.) *The* SAUCISSE, or } in mining, is a long
(1.) SAUCISSON, } pipe, ſometimes made of leather, of about an inch and an half diameter, filled with powder, going from the chamber of the mine to the entrance of the gallery. It is generally placed in a wooden pipe called an aget, to prevent its growing damp. It ſerves to give fire to mines, caſſions, bomb-cheſts, &c.

(2.) * SAUCISSON. *n. ſ.* [Fr.] In military architecture, faggots or faſcines made of large boughs of trees bound together. They are commonly uſed to cover men, to make epaulments, traverſes, or breaſtworks in ditches full of water, to make the way firm for carriages. *Bailey.*

SAUCLIERES, a town of France, in the dep. of Aveiron; 15 miles SE. of Milhau.

SAUCOURT, a town of France, in the dep. of the Somme; 6 miles S. of St Valery. Near it, the Normans were defeated by Lewis II. in 881.

* SAUCY. *adj.* [I know not how this word can be eaſily deduced from *ſauce*: it may come more properly from *ſalſus*, Latin.] Pert; petulant; contemptuous of ſuperiours; inſolent; impudent; impertinent.—You are more *ſaucy* with lords than the heraldry of your birth and virtue gives you commiſſion. *Shak.*—

Study is like the heav'ns glorious ſun,
That will not be deep ſearch'd with *ſaucy* looks. *Shak.*

Turn thou the mouth of thy artillery,
As we will ours againſt theſe *ſaucy* walls. *Shak.*

With a *ſaucy* eye
Searches the heart and ſoul of majeſty. *Denh.*

I loſe my patience, when with *ſaucy* pride
By untun'd ears I hear his numbers try'd. *Roſc.*

No *ſaucy* citizen ſhall dare
To ſtrike a ſoldier. *Dryden's Juv.*

—Homer, to expreſs a man both timorous and *ſaucy*, makes uſe of a kind of point, namely, that he had the eyes of a dog, but the heart of a deer. *Spectator.*

(1.) SAUDRE,

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1.) SAUDRE, GRAND, a river of France, which
is into the Cher, near Selles, in the department
Loir and Cher.
2.) SAUDRE, LITTLE, } a river of France, which
2.) SAUDRE, PETIT, } runs into the Grande
idre, near Salbris, in the dep. of Loir and Cher.
SAUDRUPT, a town of France, in the depart-
nt of the Meuse: 6 miles NE. of St Dizier, and
W. of Bar Le Duc.
1.) * SAVE. *adv.* [This word, adverbially used
like *except*, originally the imperative of the verb.]
cept; not including. It is now little used.—
Being all defeated, *save* a few. *Spenser.*
All the conspirators, *save* only he,
Did that they did in envy of great Cæsar. *Shak.*
He never put down a near servant, *save* only
inley. *Bacon's Henry* VII.—
How have I then with whom to hold converse,
Save with the creatures which I made? *Milton.*
2.) SAVE, in geography, a river of France,
ich runs into the Garonne, near Grenade, in
department of Upper Garonne.
3.) SAVE, a river of Germany, which rises in
miola, runs thro' that country from W. to E. se-
ates Sclavonia from Croatia, Bosnia, and part
Servia, and falls into the Danube at Belgrade.
1.) * *To* SAVE. *v. a.* [*sauver*, *saulver*, Fr. *salvo*,
.] 1. To preserve from danger or destruction.
God *save* the queen. *Shak.*
One shall cry, yet cannot he answer, nor *save*
n out of his trouble. *Isa.* xlvi. 7.—
A wond'rous ark,
To *save* himself and household. *Milton.*
The circling streams, once thought put pools
of blood,
From dark oblivion Harvey's name shall *save*.
Dryden.
Will no superior genius snatch the quill,
And *save* me on the brink from writing ill?
Young.
To preserve finally from eternal death.—The
lless love and *saving* mercy which God sheweth
ards his church. *Hooker.*—There are some that
l be *saved*, and some that will be damned. *Shak.*
We are of them that believe, to the *saving* of
soul. *Heb.* x. 39.—
His merits *save* them. *Milton.*
He who perseveres in the faith and duties of our
gion, shall certainly be *saved*. *Rogers.* 3 Not
spend or lose; to hinder from being spent or
.—We can get nothing by repining, nor *save*
thing by resisting. *Temple.*—
With your cost you terminate the cause,
And *save* th' expence of long litigious laws.
Dryden.
To reserve or lay by.—He shall not *save* of that
ich he desired. *Job*, xx. 20.—
They meanly pilfer, as they bravely fought,
Now save a nation, and now *save* a groat. *Pope.*
When Hopkins dies, an hundred lights attend
The wretch, who living *sav'd* a candle's end.
Pope.
To spare; to excuse.—
Will you not speak to *save* a lady's blush?
Dryden.
Our author *saves* me the comparison with tra-
ly. *Dryden.*—
Then will I steal to death,
Silent and unobserv'd, to *save* his tears. *Dryd.*
6. To salve; to reconcile.—
To *save* appearances. *Milton's Par. Lost.*
7. To take or embrace opportunely, so as not to
lose.—The chief confidents to Cromwell, foreseeing
a restoration, seized the castles in Ireland, just
saving the tide. *Swift.*
(2.) * *To* SAVE. *v. n.* To be cheap.—Brass ordnance *saveth* in the quantity of the material. *Bacon.*
* SAVEALL. *n. s.* [*save* and *all.*] A small pan
inserted into a candlestick to save the ends of can-
dles.
SAVEIB, a town of Persia, in the province of
Chusistan: 72 miles S. of Suster.
SAVEIGNIES, a town of France, in the de-
partment of the Oise: 4½ miles NW. of Beavais.
SAVENAY, a town of France, in the dep. of
the Lower Loire: 18 miles NW. of Nantes, and
31½ W. of Ancenis. On the 23d Dec. 1793, the
royalists were defeated by the republicans near
this town, with great slaughter.
SAVENDROOG, a fortress of Indostan, in the
Mysore, long deemed impregnable. It is seated
on the top of a vast rock, half a mile perpendicu-
lar in height, rising from a base about 8 miles in
circumference, and divided at the summit by a
chasm, which forms it into two hills, which, hav-
ing each its peculiar defences, serve as two cita-
dels capable of being defended, independent of
the lower works, which are also very strong. It
was taken, however, by the British, on the 21st
Dec. 1791, after a siege of 7 days. (See INDIA, §
28.) It is 12 miles from Outredroog, 18 W. of
Bangalore, and 47 NE. of Seringapatam.
SAVENNIERES, a town of France, in the dep.
of the Maine and Loire: 7 miles S. of Angers, and
4½ NE. of Chalonne.
* SAVER. *n. s.* [from *save.*] 1. Preserver; res-
cuer.—They were manifoldly acknowledged the
savers of that country. *Sidney.* 2. One who es-
capes loss, though without gain.—
Laws of arms permit each injur'd man
To make himself a *saver* where he can. *Dryd.*
Actors, who at best are hardly *savers*,
Will give a night of benefit to weavers? *Swift.*
3. A good husband. 4. One who lays up and
grows rich.—By nature far from profusion, and
yet a greater sparer than a *saver*. *Wotton.*
SAVER KROUT. See CROUTE, and KROUTE.
SAVERDUN, a town of France, in the dep. of
Arriege, and ci-devant province of Foix, seated on
the Arriege; 45 miles from Toulouse. Lon. 1. 36.
E. Lat. 43. 14. N.
SAVERIO, a cape on the N. coast of Peru.
SAVERNAKE FOREST, a forest of England, in
Wiltshire, near Marlborough, 12 miles in circum-
ference, well stocked with deer, and delightful
from the many vistas cut through the woods and
coppices with which it abounds. Eight of these
meet in a point near the middle of the forest,
where an octagon tower is erected to correspond
with the vistas; through one of which is a view
of Tottenham Park, Lord Ailesbury's seat, a state-
ly edifice erected after the model, and under the
direction, of our modern Vitruvius, the Earl of
Burlington, who to the strength and convenience
of

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of the Engliſh architecture, has added the elegance of the Italian.

(1.) SAVERNE, or ZABERN, a town France, in the department of the Lower Rhine, and ci-devant province of Alſace, with a handſome palace. It is ſeated at the foot of Mount Voſges, in a fertile country, famous for excellent wine: 18 miles NW. of Straſburg, and 120 E. of Paris. Lon. 7. 33. E. Lat. 48. 41. N.

(2.) SAVERNE DU RHINE. See RHINE-SAVERN.

SAVERY, Roland, an eminent French painter, born at Cambray, in 1576. He painted landſcapes, which he adorned with figures in an excellent ſtyle. He died in 1639.

SAUGHE, a river of N. Wales, in Caernarvonſh.

SAUGO, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 12 miles S. of Civdad Rodrigo.

SAUGUES, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Loire: 15 miles SW. of Puy, and 20 SE. of St Flour.

SAVIG, a town of Norway, in the province of Drontheim; 88 miles N. of Drontheim.

(1, 2.) SAVIGLIANO, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and late principality of Piedmont, capital of a ci-devant diſtrict of the ſame name; ſeated on the Maira, 5 miles W. of Foſſano, 8 ESE. of Saluzzo, 8 SW. of Cheraſco, and 26 S. of Turin. Lon. 7. 44. E. Lat. 44. 30. N.

(3.) SAVIGLIANO, a town of Naples, in the province of Bari; 9 miles E. of Minorbino.

SAVIGNAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Dordogne; 7½ miles SW. of Exideuil, and 10½ SSE. of Perigueux.

SAVIGNANO, a town of Naples, in Principato Ultra: 21 miles N. of Conza.

(1.) SAVIGNE', a town of France, in the dep. of Indre and Loire: 7½ miles N. of Langeais, and 15 NW. of Tours.

(2.) SAVIGNE L'EVEQUE, a town of France, in the dep. of Sarte: 6 miles NE. of Mans, and 15 WSW. of Ferte Bernard.

(1.) SAVIGNY, a town of France, in the dep. of Cote d'Or: 3 miles N. of Beaume.

(2.) SAVIGNY EN SEPTAINE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Cher; 7½ miles E. of Bourges, and 10 W. of Neronde.

(3.) SAVIGNY SUR BRAY, a town of France, in the dep. of Loir and Cher; 7½ miles SW. of Mondoubleau.

(4.) SAVIGNY SUR SEILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Saone and Loire: 4½ miles W. of Louhans, and 8 NE. of Tournus.

(1.) SAVILE, Sir George, afterwards marquis of Halifax, one of the greateſt ſtateſmen of his time, was born about 1630; and ſome time after his return from his travels was created a peer, in conſideration of his own and his father's merits. He was a ſtrenuous oppoſer of the bill of excluſion; but propoſed ſuch limitations of the duke of York's authority, as ſhould diſable him from doing any harm either in church or ſtate, as the taking out of his hands all power in eccleſiaſtical matters, the diſpoſal of the public money, and the power of making peace and war; and lodging theſe in the two houſes of parliament. After that bill was rejected in the houſe of lords, he preſſed them, though without ſucceſs, to proceed to the limitation of the duke's power; and began with moving, that during the king's life he might be obliged to live 500 miles out of England. Aug. 1682 he was created a marquis, and ſoon after made lord privy-ſeal. Upon King James's acceſſion, he was made preſident of the council; but on his refuſal to conſent to the repeal of the teſt, he was diſmiſſed from all public employments. In that aſſembly of the lords which met after king James's withdrawing himſelf, the firſt time from Whitehall, he was choſen preſident; and upon the king's return from Feverſham, he was ſent, with the earl of Shrewſbury and lord Delamere, from the Prince of Orange, to adviſe his majeſty to quit the palace at Whitehall. In the convention of parliament he was choſen ſpeaker of the houſe of lords, and ſtrenuouſly ſupported the motion for the vacancy of the throne, and the conjunctive ſovereignty of the prince and princeſs; upon whoſe acceſſion he was again made privy ſeal. Yet, in 1689, he quitted the court, and became a zealous oppoſer of the meaſures of government till his death, in April 1695. The rev. Mr Grainger ſays, "he was a perſon of unſettled principles, and of a lively imagination, which ſometimes got the better of his judgment. He would never loſe his jeſt, though it ſpoiled his argument, or brought his ſincerity or even his religion in queſtion. He was deſerved y celebrated for his parliamentary talents; and in the famous conteſt relating to the bill of exclusion was thought to be a match for his uncle Shaftsbury. The pieces he has left us ſhow him to have been an ingenious, if not a maſterly writer; and his *Advice to a Daughter* contains much good ſenſe in few words." He alſo wrote, The Anatomy, or an Equivalent; a Letter to a Diſſenter; a Rough Draught of a New Model at Sea; and Maxims of State; all in one volume 8vo.—He alſo publiſhed the Character of king Charles II. the Character of Bp. Burnet, and Hiſtorical Obſervations upon the reigns of Edward I. II. III. and Richard II. with Remarks upon their evil Counſellors and falſe Favourites.

(2.) SAVILE, Sir George, of Rufford-hall in the county of Nottingham, Bart. born in 1726; deſcended from the illuſtrious family of the marquis of Halifax, (N° 1.) was the moſt virtuous, ſpirited and untainted member of parliament during the reign of George III. and worthy of being held forth to a diſtant poſterity, as a pattern to his degenerate countrymen. To enter into a detail of his unwearied efforts to promote the honour and welfare of Great Britain in general, and of the county of York, which he repreſented in ſeveral ſucceſſive parliaments, in particular, would far exceed the limits preſcribed to our work, and that we ſhall content ourſelves, and we hope our readers, by quoting a paſſage from the Earl of BUCHAN's *Journal*, on the day he met the proceſſion of his funeral obſequies, in the village of Tuxford, on the 21ſt Jan. 1784, on its progreſs to the place of interment.—"On this day, while ruminating on the ſad ſhipwreck of Engliſh virtue and honour, in the unprincipled union of Caſtor, as it is generally called, of public men in Parliament, diſcordant for 24 years paſt in their political creeds and profeſſions, merely, as it would ſeem, to ſeize upon the reins of government,

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e in the plunder of the nation, I met on the near Tuxford the melancholy pageants of burial of the good Sir George Savile, Knight re ſhire for Yorkſhire; an Engliſhman diſtin-ed above all others of my time, for his temte and wiſe efforts, by conſtitutional means, reſerve the conſtitution unhurt, on the one l by dangerous innovation, and on the other falling into decay by inattention to gradual *ementary* amendment, were indiſpenſibly iſite from change of circumſtances, to which y human or imperfect inſtitution muſt be lia-

In paſſing the hearſe, containing the re-s of this worthy man, I ſtood awefully im-ed with the ſenſe of my country's loſs, and within the inmoſt receſſes of my ſoul, the *ſam divina voluptas atque horror* of Lucretius, n reflecting on the greatneſs of his admired uctor."

.) SAVILE, or } Sir Henry, a very learned Eng-.) SAVILLE, } liſhman, the 2d ſon of Henry lle, Eſq; was born at Bradley, near Halifax, Yorkſhire, Nov. 30, 1549. He was enter-of Merton College, Oxford, in 1561, where ook the degrees in arts, and was choſen fel-. When he proceeded M. A. in 1570, he read that degree on the Almageſt of Ptolemy, ch procured him the reputation of a man e-ently ſkilled in mathematics and the Greek guage; in the former of which he voluntarily a public lecture in the univerſity for ſome :. In 1578 he travelled into France and other ntries; where, improving himſelf in all uſeful ning, in languages, and the knowledge of the ld, he became a moſt accompliſhed gentleman. his return, he was made tutor in the Greek gue to Queen Elizabeth, who had a great e-m for him. In 1585 he was made warden of ton College, which he governed 36 years great honour, and improved it by all the ns in his power. In 1596 he was choſen pro- of Eton College; which he filled with many ned men. James I. upon his acceſſion to the wn of England, expreſſed a great regard for , and would have preferred him either in rch or ſtate; but Saville only accepted the mony of knighthood from the king at Wind-in 1604. His only ſon Henry dying about time, he thenceforth devoted his fortune to promoting of learning. Among other things, 619, he founded in the univerſity of Oxford, profeſſorſhips in geometry and in aſtronomy; ch he endowed with a ſalary of 160l. a-year des a legacy of 600l. to purchaſe more lands the ſame uſe. He alſo furniſhed a library h mathematical books, near the mathematical ool, for the uſe of his profeſſors; and gave l. to the mathematical cheſt of his own ap-nting: adding afterwards a legacy of 40l. a-r to the ſame cheſt, to the univerſity, and to profeſſors jointly. He likewiſe gave 120l. to-ds the new building of the ſchools, beſides ſe-al rare M. SS. and printed books to the Bod-n library; and a good quantity of Greek types he printing-preſs at Oxford. After a life thus nt in the encouragement of ſcience and li-ture in general, he died at Eton College the 19th Feb. 1622, in the 73d year of his age, and was buried in the chapel there. On this occaſion, the univerſity of Oxford paid him the greateſt honours, by having a public ſpeech and verſes made in his praiſe, which were publiſhed ſoon after in 4to, under the title of *Ultima Linea Savilli*. The higheſt encomiums are beſtowed on him by all the learned of his time: by Caſaubon, Mercerus, Meibomius, Joſeph Scaliger, and Bp. Montague; who in his *Diatribæ* upon Selden's Hiſtory of Tythes, ſtyles him, "that magazine of learning, whoſe memory ſhall be honourable amongſt not only the learned, but the righteous for ever." His publications are, 1. Four Books of the Hiſtories of Cornelius Tacitus, and the Life of Agricola; with Notes upon them, in folio, dedicated to Q. Elizabeth, in 1581. 2. A View of certain Military Matters, or Commentaries concerning Roman Warfare, 1598. 3. *Rerum Anglicarum Scriptores poſt Bedam*, &c. 1596. This is a collection of the beſt writers of Engliſh hiſtory; to which he added chronological tables, from Julius Cæſar to William I. 4. The Works of St Chryſoſtom, in Greek, in 8 vols folio, 1613. In the preface he ſays, "that having himſelf viſited, about 12 years before, all the public and private libraries in Britain, and copied out thence whatever he thought uſeful to this deſign, he then ſent ſome learned men into France, Germany, Italy, and the Eaſt, to tranſcribe ſuch parts as he had not already, and to collate the others with the beſt M. SS." At the ſame time, he makes his acknowledgments to ſeveral eminent men for their aſſiſtance; as Thuanus, Velſerus, Schottus, Caſaubon, Ducæus, Gruter, Hoeſchelius, &c. In the 8th volume are inſerted Sir Henry Saville's own notes, with thoſe of other learned men. The whole charge of this edition, including the ſeveral ſums paid to learned men, at home and abroad, employed in finding out, tranſcribing, and collating the beſt M. SS. amounted to no leſs than 8000l. Several editions of this work were afterwards publiſhed at Paris. 5. In 1618 he publiſhed a Latin work, written by Thomas Bradwardin, Abp. of Canterbury, againſt Pelagius, entitled, *De Cauſa Dei contra Pelagium, et de virtute cauſarum*; to which he prefixed the life of Bradwardin. 6. In 1621 he publiſhed a collection of his own Mathematical Lectures on Euclid's Elements, in 4to.—7. *Oratio coram Elizabetha Regina, Oxoniæ habita, anno* 1592. Oxford, 1658, 4to. 8. He tranſlated into Latin King James's Apology for the Oath of Allegiance. He alſo left ſeveral M. SS. behind him, written by order of King James; all which are in the Bodleian library. He wrote notes likewiſe upon the margin of many books in his library, particularly Euſebius's Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory; which were afterwards uſed by Valeſius, in his edition of that work in 1659.—Four of his letters to Camden are publiſhed by Smith, among Camden's Letters, 1691, 4to.

(2.) SAVILLE, Thomas, younger brother of Sir Henry, was fellow of Merton and Eton Colleges. He was alſo a man of great learning, and travelled into ſeveral foreign countries. His *Letters* were printed. He died at London, in 1692—3.

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(1.) * SAVIN. *n. f.* [*sabina*, Lat. *savin*, *sabin*, Fr.] A plant.

(2.) SAVIN, in botany. See JUNIPERUS.

(3.) SAVIN TREE, INDIAN. See BAUHINIA, N° 1.

SAVINA, a town of Russia, in Tobolsk, on the Enisei: 44 miles N. of Eniseisk.

SAVINDROOG. See SAVENDROOG.

SAVINES, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Alps; 4½ miles SW. of Embrun.

(1.) * SAVING. *adj.* [from *save*.] 1. Frugal; parsimonious; not lavish.—She loved money; for she was *saving*. *Arbuthnot's John Bull.*—Be *saving* of your candle. *Swift.* 2. Not turning to loss, though not gainful.—Silvio, finding his application unsuccessful, was resolved to make a *saving* bargain. *Addison.*

(2.) * SAVING. *adv.* [This is nothing more than a participle of the verb *save* adverbially used.] With exception in favour of.—

All their shows but shadows, *saving* she. *Spenser.*

—Such laws cannot be abrogated, *saving* only by whom they were made. *Hooker.*—*Saving* the reverence due to so great a man. *Ray.*

(3.) * SAVING. *n. f.* [from *save*.] 1. Escape of expence; somewhat preserved from being spent.—It is a great *saving* in all such lights, if they can be made as fair and right as others. *Bacon.*—By reducing interest to four *per cent*, there was a considerable *saving* to the nation. *Addison.* 2. Exception in favour.—Contend not with those that are too strong for us, but still with a *saving* to honesty. *L'Estrange.*

* SAVINGLY. *adv.* [from *saving*.] With parsimony.

* SAVINGNESS. *n. f.* [from *saving*.] 1. Parsimony; frugality. 2. Tendency to promote eternal salvation.

SAVIO, a river of the new Italian kingdom, which crosses the department of the Rubicon, or late province of Romagna; and falls into the Adriatic, 6 miles SSE. of Ravenna.

SAUJON, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Charente: 13 miles WSW. of Saintes, and 15 E. of Rothweil.

(1.) * SAVIOUR. *n. f.* [*sauveur*, Fr.] Redeemer; he that has graciously saved mankind from eternal death.—

So judg'd he man, both judge and *Saviour* sent. *Milton.*

—Nothing could have tempted men to acknowledge him as their God and *Saviour*, but their being firmly persuaded of the miracles he wrought. *Addison.*

(2.) SAVIOUR, an appellation peculiarly given to Jesus Christ, as being the Messiah and Saviour of the world. See JESUS, and MESSIAH.

(3.) SAVIOUR, ORDER OF ST, a religious order of the Romish Church, founded by St Bridget, about the year 1445, and so called from its being pretended that our Saviour himself declared its constitution and rules to the foundress. It is principally founded for religious women, who pay a particular honour to the holy virgin; but there are some monks of the order, to administer the sacrament, and spiritual assistance to the nuns.

(1.) SAUL, [שאול, *Heb.* i. e. Asked.] the son of Kish, a rich man of Gibeah, of the tribe of Benjamin, the first king of Israel; for the usurper ABIMELECH does not deserve to be numbered among the kings. Saul's fruitless journey seeking his father's asses; his meeting with the prophet Samuel; the interesting particulars foretold to him, relating his anointing as king, about A. A. C. 1095, or A. M. 2909; his prophesying along with the young prophets; his appointment by the lot; his modesty in hiding himself; his first victory over the Ammonites; his rash sacrifice in the absence of Samuel, his equally rash curse: his victories over the Philistines and Amalekites; his sparing of king Agag, with the judgment denounced against him for it; his jealousy and persecution of David; his barbarous massacre of the priests and people of Nob; (See DOEG.) his repeated confessions of his injustice to David; his consultation of the witch of En-dor; (See MAGIC, § III.) with his defeat and suicide, are recorded in 1 Sam. ix-xxxi. He reigned 40 years, and died A. M. 2949.

(2.) SAUL, or PAUL. See PAUL, N° 1.

(3, 4.) SAUL, in geography, two small towns of England: 1. in Gloucestershire, 4 miles from Newnham, and 6 from Dursley: 2. in Norfolk, between Alesham and Foulsham.

SAULCE, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Alps; 9 miles S. of Gap.

SAULGEN, a town of Germany, in Suabia, capital of a county so named; 5 miles SW. of Buchau, and 35 E. of Rothweil.

SAULHEIM, a town of Germany, lately in the circle of the Upper Rhine, now included in the French empire, and dep. of Mont Tonnere: 12 miles E. of Creutznach, and 8 SE. of Ingelheim.

SAULIEU, a town of France, in the dep. of the Cote d' Or, and ci-devant prov. of Burgundy, seated on an eminence in a country fertile in corn, and abounding in cattle. It had anciently a college of the Druids: and a wood in which they sacrificed, and relics of a temple of the sun, are still visible. In 1359, this town was taken and burnt by the English; and in 1589, Tavannes took it from the Leaguers. It lies 25 miles W. of Dijon, and 142 SE. of Paris. Lon. 4. 7. E. Lat. 47. 17. N.

SAULT, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Alps; 18 miles W. of Forcalquier, and 32 WSW. of Sisteron.

SAULTY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais: 14 miles SE. of St Pol.

SAULX, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Saone: 9 miles SW. of Lunreil.

SAUMUR, a considerable town of France, in the dep. of Maine and Loire, ci-devant province of Anjou, and late capital of the Saumurois, with an ancient castle. The town is small, but pleasantly situated on the Loire, across which is a long bridge continued thro' a number of islands. Saumur was anciently a most important pass over the river, and of consequence was frequently and fiercely disputed, during the civil wars of France in the 16th century. The fortifications are of great strength, and Henry IV, on the reconciliation which took place between him and Henry III. near Tours, in 1589, demanded that Saumur should be delivered to him, as one of the cities of safety. The castle overlooks the town and river. It is built on a lofty eminence, and has a venerable magnificent appear-

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earance, and was formerly uſed as a priſon of e. The kings of Sicily, and Dukes of Anjou the houſe of Valois, who deſcended from John g of France, often reſided in the caſtle of Sau-r, as it co ſtituted a part of their Angevin domi-ns. In June 1793, this town was taken by the aliſts, and the republicans were defeated: but July, it was retaken by the democrates. Lon. 1. E. Lat. 47. 15. N.

1.) SAUNDERS, Charles, a dramatic writer o flouriſhed in the reign of Charles II. While was king's ſcholar at Weſtminſter, he wrote a y, entitled *Tamerlane the Great*. Mr Banks nplimented the author, in ſome verſes prefixed it.

2.) SAUNDERS, Richard, an aſtrologer and em-ic, in the 17th century, who wrote ſeveral tracts on Phyſiognomie and Chiromancie, and other ſive ſciences. He died in 1680.

3.) SAUNDERS, Sir Edmund, a genius who roſe be a judge and a knight from being a common gar. A lawyer of Clement's Inn diſcerning in ſigns of genius, took him as a ſervant, and ing given him education, made him his clerk. abilities enabled him to make a rapid progreſs; became an attorney, then an eminent counſel; at laſt King Charles II. made him lord chief tice of the King's Bench. He died in 1683.

4.) SAUNDERS, in botany and dyeing. See EROCARPUS, SANDERS, and SANTALUM.

1.) SAUNDERSON, Dr Robert, an eminent uiſt, born at Rotherham in Yorkſhire, on the h Sept. 1587, and deſcended of an ancient fa-ly. He attended the grammar-ſchool at Rother-n, where he made ſuch rapid proficiency, that 13 he was ſent to Lincoln college, Oxford. In 08 he was appointed logic reader. He took or-s in 1611, and was promoted ſucceſſively to ſe-al benefices. Abp. Laud recommended him to g Charles I. as a profound caſuiſt, who appoint-him one of his chaplains in 1631. Charles poſed ſeveral caſes of conſcience to him, and ceived very great ſatisfaction from his anſwers. e king regularly attended his ſermons, and d that "he carried his ears to hear others, t his conſcience to hear Saunderſon." In 1642 arles created him regius profeſſor of divinity at ford, and canon of Chriſt church; but in 1648 he s ejected by the viſitors from the parliament. t he muſt have once ſtood high in the public inion; for in 1642 both houſes of parliament d recommended him to the king as one of their ſtees for ſettling the affairs of the church. When parliament propoſed the abolition of the epiſ-pal form of church-government, Charles deſired n to take the ſubject under his conſideration. accordingly wrote a treatiſe entitled, *Epiſcopa-as eſtabliſhed by law in England not prejudicial to al power*. He was taken priſoner by the par-ment's troops and carried to Lincoln, to pro-re in exchange a Puritan divine named *Clark*, om the king's army had taken. The exchange s agreed to, on condition that Dr Saunderſon's ing ſhould be reſtored, and his perſon and pro-rty remain unmoleſted. The firſt demand was dily complied with: and the ſecond was pro-ſed to be obſerved; but it was impoſſible to train the licentiouſneſs of the ſoldiers. They entered his church in the time of divine ſervice, nterrupted him when reading prayers, and even tore in pieces the common prayer book. The Hon. Mr Boyle, having read a work of Dr Saunderſon's entitled *De juramenti obligatione*, was ſo much pleaſed, that he inquired at Bp. Barlow, if he could prevail on the author to write Caſes of Conſcience, if an honorary penſion was aſſigned him. Saunderſon told Barlow, "that if any tract of his could be of any uſe to mankind, he would ſet about it without a penſion." Boyle, however, ſent him a preſent of 50l. Upon this Saunderſon publiſhed his book *De Conſcientia*. On the reſtoration of Charles II. he recovered his profeſſorſhip and canonry, and ſoon after was made biſhop of Lincoln. During the two years and a half in which he poſſeſſed this new office, he ſpent a conſiderable ſum in augmenting poor vicarages, in repairing the palace at Bugden, &c. He died Jan. 29. 1662-3, in his 76th year. He was a man of great acuteneſs and ſolid judgment. He was an admirer of Ariſtotle and Cicero, and had read Tully's work, *De Officii hominis*, no leſs than 20 times, ſo that he could, in his old age, recite it without book. He likewiſe admired the learned civilian Dr Zouch's *Elementa juris prudentiæ*, which he thought no wiſe man could read too often. He was not only converſant with the fathers, and with caſuiſtical and controverſial divinity; but was well acquainted with all the hiſtories of the Engliſh nation, was a great antiquary, had ſearched minutely into records, and was well ſkilled in heraldry and genealogy. 1. In 1615, he publiſhed *Logicæ Artis Compendium*, which was the ſyſtem of lectures he had read in the Univerſity. 2. Sermons, amounting to 36, printed in 1681, folio, with the author's life by Walton. 3. Nine Caſes of Conſcience reſolved; 1678, 8vo. 4. *De juramenti obligatione*. This book was tranſlated into Engliſh by Charles I. while a priſoner in the Iſle of Wight, and printed at London in 1665, 8vo. 5. *De Obligatione conſcientiæ*. 6. Cenſure of Mr Antony Aſcham his book of the confuſions and revolutions of government. 7. *Pax Eccleſiæ*, concerning Predeſtination, or the five points. 8. Epiſcopacy, as eſtabliſhed by law, as above mentioned in 1661. 9. Two Diſcourſes in defence of Abp. Uſher's writings.

(2.) SAUNDERSON, Dr Nicolas, was born at Thuriſtone in Yorkſhire in 1682, and may be conſidered as a prodigy for his application and ſucceſs in mathematical learning, in circumſtances apparently the moſt unfavourable. He loſt his ſight by the ſmall-pox before he was a year old. But this did not prevent him from ſearching after knowledge. He was initiated into the Greek and Roman authors at a free-ſchool at Penniſton. After ſpending ſome years ſtudying the languages, his father (who was in the exciſe) began to teach him arithmetic. He ſoon ſurpaſſed his father; and made long and difficult calculations, without any ſenſible marks to aſſiſt his memory. At 18 he was taught the principles of Algebra and geometry by Richard Weſt of Undoorbank, Eſq; who, though a gentleman of fortune, yet, being ſtrongly attached to mathematical learning, readily undertook the education of ſo uncommon a genius. Saunderſon was alſo aſſiſted in his mathe-

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matical ſtudies by Dr Nettleton. Theſe two gentlemen read books to him and explained them. He was next ſent to a private academy at Attercliff near Sheffield, but logic and metaphyſics not ſuiting his turn of mind, he ſoon left it. He lived for ſome time in the country without any inſtructor; but ſuch was the vigour of his own mind, that he only required books and a reader. His father, beſides his place in the exciſe, had alſo a ſmall eſtate; but having a numerous family, he was unable to give him a liberal education at one of the univerſities. Some of his friends, who had remarked his perſpicuous manner of communicating his ideas, propoſed that he ſhould attend the univerſity of Cambridge as a teacher of mathematics. This propoſal was immediately put in execution; and he was conducted to Cambridge in his 25th year by Mr Joſhua Dunn, a fellow-commoner of Chriſt's college. Though he was not received as a member of the college, he was treated with great reſpect. He was allowed a chamber, and had free acceſs to the library. Mr Whiſton was then profeſſor of mathematics; and as he read lectures in the way that Saunderſon intended, it was ſuppoſed he would view his project as an invaſion of his office. But the plan was no ſooner mentioned to him than he gave his conſent. Saunderſon's reputation was ſoon ſpread through the univerſity. When his lectures were announced, a general curioſity was excited to hear ſuch intricate mathematical ſubjects explained by a man who had been blind from his infancy. The ſubject of his lectures was the *Principia Mathematica*, the Optics, and *Arithmetica Univerſalis* of Sir Iſaac Newton. He was accordingly attended by a very numerous audience. It will appear incredible, that a blind man ſhould be capable of explaining optics, but we muſt recollect, that the theory of viſion is taught by lines, and is ſubject to the rules of geometry. While thus employed in explaining the principles of the Newtonian philoſophy, he became known to its illuſtrious author. He was alſo intimately acquainted with Hally, Cotes, De Moivre, and other eminent mathematicians. When Whiſton was removed from his profeſſorſhip, Saunderſon was univerſally allowed to be the man beſt qualified for the ſucceſſion. The heads of the univerſity applied to their chancellor the duke of Somerſet, who procured the royal mandate to confer upon him the degree of A. M. He was then elected Lucaſian profeſſor of mathematics in Nov. 1711. His inauguration ſpeech was compoſed in claſſical Latin, and in the ſtyle of Cicero, with whoſe works he was much converſant. He now devoted his whole time to his lectures. When George II. in 1728, viſited the Univerſity of Cambridge, he expreſſed a deſire to ſee Prof. Saunderſon. He waited upon his majeſty in the ſenate-houſe, and was there, by the king's command, created L. L. D. He was admitted F. R. S. in 1736. He was naturally of a vigorous conſtitution; but his ſedentary life, at length rendered him ſcorbutic. For ſome years he felt a numbneſs in his limbs, which, in ſpring 1739, brought on a mortification in his foot; and, unfortunately, his blood was ſo vitiated by the ſcurvy, that aſſiſtance from medicine was not to be expected. He died on the 19th of April 1739, aged 57. He married the daughter of the rev. Mr Dickens, rector of Boxworth, in Cambridgeſhire, and by her had a ſon and daughter. Dr Saunderſon was rather admired as a man of wonderful genius and aſſiduity, than loved for amiable qualities. He ſpoke his ſentiments freely of characters, and praiſed or condemned his friends as well as his enemies without reſerve. His ſentiments were ſuppoſed unfavourable to revealed religion. On the other hand, it is ſaid, he had deſired the ſacrament to be given him on the evening before his death. He was, however, ſeized with a delirium, which rendered this impoſſible. He wrote a ſyſtem of algebra, which was publiſhed, in 2 vols 4to, at London, after his death, in 1740, at the expence of the Univerſity. Dr Saunderſon invented for his own uſe a *Palpable Arithmetic*, that is, a method of performing operations in arithmetic ſolely by the ſenſe of touch. A deſcription of this method of making calculations by his table is given under the article BLIND, § 15; and it was entirely of his own invention. His ſenſe of touch was ſo perfect, that he could diſcover with the greateſt exactneſs the ſlighteſt inequality of ſurface, and could diſtinguiſh in the moſt finiſhed works the ſmalleſt overſight in the polish. In the cabinet of medals at Cambridge he could ſingle out the Roman medals with the utmoſt correctneſs; he could alſo perceive the ſlighteſt variation in the atmoſphere. When he walked, he knew when he paſſed by a tree, a wall, or a houſe. He made theſe diſtinctions from the different ways his face was affected by the motion of the air. His muſical ear was remarkably acute; he could diſtinguiſh accurately to the fifth of a note. In his youth he had been a performer on the flute; and had made ſuch proficiency, that if he had cultivated his talents in this way, he would probably have been as eminent in muſic as he was in mathematics. He recognized not only his friends, but even thoſe with whom he was ſlightly acquainted, by the tone of their voice.

(3.) SAUNDERSON. See SANDERSON.

SAUNDERS's ISLAND, or SIR CHARLES SAUNDERS's ISLAND, an iſland in the S. Pacific Ocean, diſcovered by Capt. Wallis, in 1767. It is 6 miles long, and has a fertile mountain in the middle. The inhabitants are not numerous. Lon. 151. 4. W. Lat. 17. 28. S.

* *To* SAUNTER. *v. n.* [*aller à la ſainte terre*, from idle people who roved about the country, and aſked charity under pretence of going *à la ſainte terre*, to the holy land; or *ſans terre*, as having no ſettled home.] 1. To wander about idly.—The cormorant is ſtill *ſauntering* by the ſea-ſide *L'Eſtrange.*—

Tell me, why *ſauntering* thus from place to place
I meet thee, Nævolous, with clouded face! *Dryden.*

He *ſaunters* wildly up and down. *Pope.*

Here *ſaunt'ring* 'prentices o'er Otway weep. *Gay.*

Led by my hand, he *ſaunter'd* Europe round.
And gather'd ev'ry vice in ev'ry ground. *Pope.*

2. To loiter; to linger.—This muſt not run it ſo to a lazy *ſauntering* about ordinary things. *Locke.*—If men were weaned from their *ſauntering* to-

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mour, wherein they let a good part of their lives run uſeleſly away, they would acquire ſkill in hundreds of things. *Locke.*—

A *ſauntering* tribe! ſuch born to wide eſtates! *Tickel.*

SAVO, in ancient geography, 1. a town, and 2. a river of Italy in Campania: (*Stat.* iv. *Plin.* iii. 5.) 3. a town of Liguria, now called SAVONA.

SAVOCK, a river of England, in Lancaſhire, which runs into the Ribble near Lea, about three miles below Preſton.

SAVOISY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Cote d' Or: 10 miles SSW. of Chatillon.

SAVOK. See SAVOCK.

SAVOLAX, or SAWOLAX, a diſtrict of Sweden, in the province of Finland, bordering on Ruſſia; 200 miles long, and 100 broad; conſiſting chiefly of woods, lakes, rivers and moraſſes. The inhabitants ſow buck wheat, breed cattle, make wooden wares, and trade in butter, tallow, fiſh, furs and hides. The country abounds with elks and rein deer.

SAVONA, a large, handſome, populous, and ſtrong town of Italy, in the Ligurian republic, with two caſtles, and a Biſhop's ſee. It contains ſeveral handſome churches and well built ſtructures. It was taken by the king of Sardinia in 1746 at which time it had a capacious harbour; but the people of Genoa, being afraid that it would hurt their own trade, choaked it up. It was taken by the French in June 1800. It is ſeated on the Mediterranean in a well cultivated country, abounding in ſilk and all kinds of fruit. Lon. 8. 14. E. Lat. 44. 21. N.

SAVONAROLA, Jerome, a famous Italian monk, born at Ferrara in 1452, and deſcended of a noble family. At the age of 22 he aſſumed the habit of a Dominican friar, without the knowledge of his parents, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf in that order by his piety and ability as a preacher. Florence was the theatre where he preached, confeſſed, and wrote. He placed himſelf at the head of the faction which oppoſed the family of the Medici. He explained the Apocalypſe, and pointed out a prophecy which foretold the deſtruction of his opponents. He predicted a renovation of the church, and declaimed with much ſeverity againſt the clergy and the court of Rome. Alexander VI. excommunicated him, and prohibited him from preaching. He derided the anathemas of the Pope: yet he forbore preaching for ſome time, and then reſumed his employment with more applauſe than ever. The Pope and the Medici family then thought of attacking him with his own weapons. Savonarola having poſted up a theſis as a ſubject of diſputation, a Franciſcan, by their inſtigation, offered to prove it heretical. The Franciſcan was ſeconded by his brother friars, and Savonarola by his brethren. To convince their antagoniſts of the ſuperior *ſanctity* of Savonarola, one of the Dominicans offered to walk through a fire; and to prove his *wickedneſs*, a Franciſcan agreed to the ſame experiment. The multitude eager to witneſs ſo extraordinary a ſpectacle, urged both parties to come to a deciſion; and the magiſtrates were conſtrained to give their conſent. Accordingly, Saturday the 7th of April, 1498, was fixed for the trial. On that day the champions appeared; but when they ſaw one another in cold blood, and beheld the wood in flames, they were anxious to eſcape the imminent danger into which they had raſhly thrown themſelves. The Dominican pretended he could not enter the flames without the hoſt in his hand. This the magiſtrates refuſed to allow; and the Dominican's fortitude was not put to the teſt. The Franciſcans incited the multitude againſt their opponents, who accordingly aſſaulted their monaſtery, broke open the gates, and entered by force. Upon this, the magiſtrates brought Savonarola to trial as an impoſtor. He was put to the torture, and examined; and the anſwers which he gave fully evinced that he was a fanatic. He boaſted of having frequent converſations with God, and his brother friars were credulous enough to believe him. John Francis Picus earl of Mirandula, who wrote his life, aſſures us, that the devils which infeſted the convent of the Dominicans trembled at the ſight of friar Jerome. At length, pope Alexander VI. ſent the chief of the Dominicans, with Biſhop Romolino, to degrade him from holy orders, and to deliver him up to the ſecular judges with his two fanatical aſſociates. They were condemned to be hanged and burned on the 23d May 1498. Savonarola ſubmitted to the execution of the ſentence with great firmneſs and devotion, and without uttering a word reſpecting his innocence or his guilt. He was 46 years of age. Immediately after his death, his Confeſſion was publiſhed in his name. It contained many extravagancies, but nothing to deſerve ſo ſevere and infamous a puniſhment. His adherents did not fail to attribute to him the power of working miracles; and ſo ſtrong a veneration had they for their chief, that they preſerved with pious care any parts of his body which they could ſnatch from the flames. The earl of Mirandula, the author of his life, has deſcribed him as an eminent ſaint. He gravely informs us, that his heart was found in a river; and that he had a piece of it in his poſſeſſion, which had been very uſeful in curing diſeaſes, and ejecting demons. He remarks, that many of his perſecutors came to a miſerable end. Savonarola has alſo been defended by F. Quetif, Bzovius, Baron, and other religious Dominicans. He wrote a prodigious number of books. He has left, 1. Sermons in Italian; 2. A Treatiſe entitled, *Triumphus crucis*; 3. *Eruditorum Conſeſſorum*, and ſeveral others. His works have been publiſhed at Leyden in 6 volumes 12mo.

SAVONIERES, or SAVONIERS, } a town of France, in the department of Indre and Loire, and ci-devant province of Touraine, on the Cher: 8 miles SW. of Tours.

SAVONULES. See SAPONULÆ.

SAVORGNANO, a town of Maritime Auſtria, in the prov. of Friuli: 8 miles NNW. of Udina.

(1.) * SAVORY. *n. ſ.* [*ſavorée*, Fr. *ſatureia*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) SAVORY, in botany. See SATUREIA.

SAVOUGE, a town of France, in the department of the Cote d' Or: 9 miles S. of Dijon..

(1.) * SAVOUR. *n. ſ.* [*ſaveur*, Fr.] 1. A ſcent; odour.—

What *ſavour* is better, if phyſick be true,
For places infected, than wormwood and rue?
Tuſſer.

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—Benzo

—Benzo calls its ſmell a tartareous and helliſh *ſavour*. *Abbot*.—

Turn then my freſheſt repu'ation to
A *ſavour* that may ſtrike the dulleſt noſtril. *Shak*.
I ſmell ſweet *ſavours*. *Shak*.

—That there is in their race an evil *ſavour*, is a received opinion we know not how to admit. *Brown*.—Truffles, which have an excellent oil, and a volatile ſalt of a grateful *ſavour*, are heating. *Arbuthnot*. 2. Taſte; power of affecting the palate.—

The *ſavour* of death from all things. *Milton*.

—A directer influence from the ſun gives fruit a better *ſavour*. *South*.

(2.) SAVOUR. See TASTE and TASTING, under ANATOMY, *Index*.

(1.) * *To* SAVOUR. *v. n.* [*ſavourer*, Fr. from the noun.] 1. To have any particular ſmell or taſte. 2. To betoken; to have an appearance or intellectual taſte of ſomething.—This ripping of anceſtors is very pleaſing, and *ſavoureth* of good conceit and ſome reading. *Spenſ*.—The duke's anſwers to his appeachments, and though his heart was big, yet they all *ſavour* of an humble ſpirit. *Wotton*.—

That *ſavours* only of rancour and pride. *Milt*.
Such unneceſſary rudeneſs *ſavours*
Of ſome deſign. *Denham*.

—I have rejected every thing that *ſavours* of party. *Addiſon*.—

(2.) * *To* SAVOUR. *v. a.* 1. To like; to taſte or ſmell with delight.—

Wiſdom and goodneſs to the vile ſeem vile;
Filths *ſavour* but themſelves. *Shak*.

2. To exhibit taſte of.—Thou *ſavoureſt* not the things that be of God. *Matt*.

* SAVOURILY. *adv.* [from *ſavoury*.] 1. With guſt; with appetite.—The collation he fell to very *ſavourily*. *L'Eſtrange*.—This muſti is ſome Engliſh renegado, he talks ſo *ſavourily* of toaping. *Dryden*. 2. With a pleaſing reliſh.—

There is a dearth of wit in this dull town,
When ſilly plays ſo *ſavourily* go down. *Dryd*.

* SAVOURINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *ſavoury*.] 1. Taſte pleaſing and picquant. 2. Pleaſing ſmell.

* SAVOURY. *adj.* [*ſavoureux*, Fr. from *ſavour*.] 1. Pleaſing to the ſmell.—

The pleaſant *ſavoury* ſmell
So quicken'd appetite, that I
Could not but taſte! *Milton*.

From the boughs of a *ſavoury* odour blown. 2. Picquant to the taſte.—*Savoury* meat, ſuch as my father loveth. *Geneſis*.—

The *ſavoury* pulp they chew. *Milton*.

(1.) SAVOY, a ci-devant duchy, lying between old France and Italy, ſo named from the Latin SABAUDIA, altered to *Saboia*, and *Sabojia*; it was conquered and annexed to the French republic, in 1793, and erected into the department of Mont Blanc. See BLANC, N° II. This country was anciently inhabited by the Celtes, whoſe deſcendants therein were ſubdivided into the Allobroges, Nantuates, Veragri, Seduni, Salaſſi, Centrones, Garoceli, and ſome others of inferior note. Of all theſe the Allobroges were the moſt conſiderable. The reduction of theſe tribes, in which Julius Cæſar had made a great progreſs, was completed under Auguſtus. Afterwards this country ſhared the fate of the reſt of the weſtern empire, and was over-run by the northern barbarians. The Burgundians held it a conſiderable time; but when or how it firſt became a diſtinct earldom, hiſtorians are not agreed: this much, however, is certain, that Amadæus I. who lived in the 12th century was count of it. In 1416, Amadæus VIII. was created by the emperor Sigiſmund duke of Savoy; and Victor Amadæus firſt took the title of king of Sicily, and afterwards of Sardinia. (See SARDINIA.) Savoy before its annexation was bounded on the S. by France and Piedmont; N. by the lake of Geneva, which ſeparates it from Switzerland; W. by France; and E. by Piedmont, the Milaneſe, and Switzerland; its greateſt length being about 88 miles, and breadth about 76. As it lies among the Alps, it is full of lofty mountains, which in general are very barren; many of them are perpetually covered with ice and ſnow. The ſummit of thoſe called *Montagnes Maudites*, i. e. *the curſed mountains*, are ſaid to be more than two Engliſh miles in perpendicular height above the level of the lake of Geneva, and the level itſelf is much higher than the Mediterranean. In ſome few of the valleys there is corn and paſture, and a good breed of cattle and mules; and along the lake of Geneva, and in ſome other places, a tolerable wine is produced. Mount CENIS, between Savoy and Piedmont, over which the highway from Geneva to Turin lies, is as high, if not higher, than the *Montagnes Maudites*; but of all the mountains of the Alps, the higheſt is mount Rochmelon, in Piedmont, between Fertiere and Novaleſe. The roads over theſe mountains are very tedious, diſagreeable, and dangerous, eſpecially as huge maſſes of ſnow, called by the Italians *avalanches*, and fragments of rocks frequently roll down into them from the impending precipices. The way of traveiling is either in ſledges, chairs, or on mules: in ſome places the path on the brink of the precipices is ſo narrow, that there is but juſt room for a ſingle perſon to paſs. It begins to ſnow on theſe mountains about the beginning of October. In July, Auguſt, and Sept. many of them yield very fine graſs, with a great variety of flowers and herbs; and others box-wood, walnuts, cheſnuts, and pines. The height and different combinations of theſe mountains, their towering ſummits riſing above one another, and covered with ſnow; the many cataracts, the noiſe and rapidity of the river Arc, the froth and green tincture of its water, the echoes of its numerous ſtreams tumbling from cliff to cliff, form altogether a very romantic ſcene. Theſe mountainous tracts, notwithſtanding their height, are not free from thunder in ſummer, and are alſo much expoſed to thick clouds, which ſometimes ſettle unexpectedly on them, and continue ſeveral days. There are ſome wolves among the thickets; and they abound with hares, chamois, goats, and marmottes. In the lower grounds, there are alſo bears, wild boars, deer, and rabbits; and among the deſolate mountains are found great quantities of rock-cryſtal. In the glaciers or ice valleys, between the high mountains, the air is extremely cold, even in July and Auguſt. (See GLACIERS.) The ſurface of theſe ice-valleys looks like a ſea or lake,

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e, which, after being agitated by fierce and
ıtrary winds, has been frozen all at once, in-
ſperſed with hideous cracks and chaſms. The
ſe of theſe cracks, when firſt made by the heat
the noon-day ſun, and reverberated by the ſur-
ınding rocks and mountains, is aſtoniſhing.
e height of the impending mountains is ſuch,
t the ſun's rays ſeldom reach the ice valleys,
:ept a few hours in the middle of ſummer.
e avalanches or ſnow balls, which the leaſt con-
lion of the air will occaſion, tumble down the
ıntains with amazing rapidity, continually in-
aſing, and carrying all before them. People
re been taken out alive, after being buried ſe-
al days under them. The mountainous nature
this duchy renders the plough a uſeleſs inſtru-
ot of agriculture. The peaſants break up the
ngry ſoil with the pick axe and ſpade, and to
prove it carry up the mould and dung in baſ-
s. For the purpoſe of preſerving it from drought
the ſpring and ſummer, they cut ſmall reſer-
rs above it, the water of which may be let out
will; and to prevent the earth from giving
y, break the declivity of the mountains by
ilding walls on the ſide for its ſupport, which
quently aſſume the appearance of ancient for-
cations, and are a very pleaſing deception to
veliers. The Savoyards carry their better ſort
cheeſe into Piedmont, as the flavour is much
eemed there; but they gain more by their ſkins
bears, chamois, and bouquetins (a ſpecies of
: wild goat), or by the ſale of groweſe and phea-
ıts, which they carry in great numbers to Tu-
ı. The chief rivers are the Rhone, which, on
: ſide of Geneva, ſeparates Savoy from France;
: Arve, which has ſome particles of gold in
ſands; the Iſere, the Seran, the Siers, and the
c. There are alſo many lakes in this country,
ıch yield plenty of fiſh, but none of them very
ge, together with medicinal and reciprocating
ings and hot baths. The language of the peo-
: is a corrupt French; but thoſe that live in the
eat cities, ſpeak as good French as they do in
ris. In their temper, however, and diſpoſition,
: Savoyards reſemble the Germans more than
: French, retaining ſtill much of the old Ger-
ın honeſty and ſimplicity of manners. Their
ıgevity, and the fruitfulneſs of their women,
: the effects of their cheerful diſpoſition, heal-
y air, activity, temperance, and ſobriety. In
ıny villages of Savoy, before its annexation to
: French republic, there was hardly a man to
ſeen throughout the year, excepting a month
two. Thoſe that had families generally ſet
ıt and returned about the ſame ſeaſon, when
eir wives generally lay in, and they brought
me part of their earnings. The cultivation of
eir grounds, and the reaping and gathering in
the harveſt and vintage, was left to the women
d children, eſpecially in the mountainous parts
Savoy. Great numbers of the mountaineers of
th ſexes are ſubject to a kind of wens, which
ow about their throats, and very much diſfi-
re them, eſpecially the women; but this is the
ly inconvenience they feel from them. Savoy
ıs divided into Chablais, Genevois, and SAVOY
.OPER, the counties of Tarantaiſe and Mau-
ınne, and the barony of Faucigny. This coun-
try was formerly governed by its own ſovereigns
under various titles. In the 12th century Ama-
deus I. bore the title of MARGRAVE. In Italy A-
madeus V. was the founder of the line of the
COUNTS of Savoy. His ſon, Aymon, in the 14th
century, added to Savoy the ſurviorſhip of
MONTFERRAT by his wife Polantha. His grand-
ſon Amadeus VII. added the county of NIECE
and VENTIMIGLIA. His ſon, Amadeus VIII. pur-
chaſed the county of *Gebenne*, and was created
Duke of Savoy and a prince of the empire by Si-
giſmund, in 1416. He alſo inherited from his
brother-in-law, Lewis, the principality of PIED-
MONT, and a claim to ACHAIA and the MOREA.
His ſon, Lewis, had by his wife, Anne, daughter
of Janus, K. of CYPRUS, a claim on that iſland.
Their ſon Amadeus IX. became duke of Savoy,
and his brother Lewis king of Cyprus. Char-
lotte, relict of Lewis, left Cyprus to Charles I.
the ſon of Amadeus IX. along with a claim on *Je-
ruſalem*. To Philip the youngeſt brother of A
madeus IX. ſucceeded his grandſon Emmanuel
Philibert, who added ONEGLIA and TENDA to
the duchy. His ſon Charles Emmanuel became
maſter of SALUZZO, and married Catherine daugh-
ter of K. Philip II. of Spain. His ſon Victor A-
madeus I. ſucceeded him, whoſe grandſon Victor
Amadeus II. became king of SICILY, and after-
wards of SARDINIA. Such was the gradual riſe
of the *houſe of Savoy*, which, by the late revolu-
tions of Europe, has now fallen as low, as ever it
roſe high.

(2.) * SAVOY. *n. ſ.* [*braſſica ſabaudica*, Lat.] A
ſort of colewort.

(3.) SAVOY, in botany. See BRASSICA, § II.

(4.) SAVOY, a ſmall town of France, in the ci-
devant province of Languedoc, but in which of
the 4 departments into which it is divided we
know not: but this little town is memorable for
being the birth place of the celebrated Dr AS-
TRUC.

(5.) SAVOY PROPER, a ci-devant diviſion of SA-
VOY, N° 1.

SAVOYARDS, *n. ſ.* the ci-devant citizens of
SAVOY, N° 1.

(1.) SAURA, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in the
province of Diarbekir: 40 miles SW. of Diarbek.

(2.) SAURA INDIANS, a tribe of N. American
Indians, who formerly inhabited two towns
(N° 3 and 4.) in N. Carolina, on the banks of
the Dan.

(3.) SAURA, LOWER, a town of N. Carolina,
in Stokes county and Saliſbury diſtrict, on the S.
bank of the Dan. It was the capital of the SAU-
RA INDIANS.

(4.) SAURA, UPPER, a town of N. Carolina,
in Stokes county, on the S. bank of the Dan; for-
merly very populous, when poſſeſſed by the Saura
Indians.

SAURAL, a town of France, in the depart-
ment of the Arriege: 3 miles NW. of Taraſcon.

SAUREK, a mountain of Arabia Felix, in the
province of Yemen: 24 miles E. of Taas.

(1.) SAURIN, James, a celebrated preacher,
born at Niſmes in 1677, and the ſon of a Proteſ-
tant lawyer of eminence. He applied to his ſtu-
dies with great ſucceſs; but at length being cap-
tivated with a military life, he relinquiſhed them

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for the profeſſion of arms. In 1694 he made a campaign as a cadet in lord Galloway's company, and ſoon afterwards obtained a pair of colours in the regiment of Col. Renault which ſerved in Piedmont. But the duke of Savoy having made peace with France, he returned to Geneva, and reſumed the ſtudy of philoſophy and theology, under Turretin and other profeſſors. In 1700 he viſited Holland, then came to England, where he remained for ſeveral years, and married. In 1705 he returned to the Hague, where he fixed his reſidence, and preached with the moſt unbounded applauſe. To an exterior appearance highly prepoſſeſſing, he added a ſtrong harmonious voice. The ſublime prayer which he recited before his ſermon was uttered in a manner highly affecting. Nor was the attention excited by the prayer diſſipated by the ſermon: all who heard it were charmed; and thoſe who came with an intention to criticiſe, were carried along with the preacher and forgot their deſign. His ſermons, eſpecially thoſe publiſhed during his life, are diſtinguiſhed for juſtneſs of thought, force of reaſoning, and an eloquent unaffected ſtyle. Saurin died on the 30th Dec. 1730, aged 53. He wrote, 1. *Sermons*, in 12 vols 8vo and 12mo; ſome of which diſplay great genius. Saurin was a lover of toleration, which gave great offence to ſome of his fanatical brethren, who found fault with him becauſe he did not call the pope *Antichriſt*, and the Romiſh church *the whore of Babylon*. But theſe prophetic metaphors, however applicable they may be, were certainly not intended by Jeſus to be bandied about as terms of reproach; to irritate, without convincing, thoſe to whom they were applied. Saurin, therefore, while he perhaps interpreted theſe metaphors in the ſame way with his brethren, diſcovered more of the moderation of the Chriſtian ſpirit. 2. *Diſcourſes Hiſtorical, Critical, and Moral, on the moſt memorable Events of the Old and New Teſtament*. This is his greateſt and moſt valuable work. It was printed firſt in 2 vols fol. Beauſobre and Roques undertook a continuation of it, and increaſed it to 4 vols. It is full of learning: it is a collection of the opinions of the moſt eſteemed authors, both Chriſtian and Heathen; of the philoſophers, hiſtorians, and critics, in every ſubject which the author examines. 3. *The State of Chriſtianity in France*, 1725, 8vo. 4. *An Abridgment of Chriſtian Theology and Morality*, in the form of a Catechiſm, 1722, 8vo. He afterwards publiſhed an abridgment of this work. 5. His *Diſſertation on the Expediency of ſometimes diſguiſing the Truth*, raiſed a multitude of enemies againſt him. In this diſcourſe his plan was, to ſtate the arguments of thoſe who affirm that, in certain caſes, it is lawful to diſguiſe truth, and the anſwers of thoſe who maintained the contrary. He does not determine the queſtion, but ſeems, however, to incline to the firſt opinion. He was immediately attacked by ſeveral adverſaries, and a long controverſy enſued; but his doctrines and opinions were at length publicly approved of by the ſynods of Campen and of the Hague.

(2.) SAURIN, Joſeph, a geometrician of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, was born at Courtoſon in the principality of Orange, in 1659. His father, who was a miniſter at Grenoble, was his firſt preceptor. He made rapid progreſs in his ſtudies, and was admitted miniſter of Eure in Dauphiny when very young: but having made uſe of ſome violent expreſſions in one of his ſermons, he was obliged to quit France in 1683. He retired to Geneva, and thence to Berne, where he obtained a conſiderable living. He was ſcarcely ſettled in his new habitation, when ſome theologians raiſed a perſecution againſt him. Saurin, hating controverſy, and diſguſted with Switzerland, where his talents were concealed, repaired to Holland. He returned ſoon after to France, and ſurrendered himſelf to Boſſuet biſhop of Meaux, who obliged him to make a recantation of his errors. This happened in 1690. His enemies, however, ſuſpected his ſincerity. It was a general opinion, that the deſire of cultivating ſcience in the capital of France had a greater effect in producing this change than religion. Saurin, however, ſpeaks of the reformers with great aſperity, and condemns them for going too far. He appeaſed his conſcience by reading Pajrat's *Cogitationes Rationales*: a book written to vindicate the church of Rome from the charge of idolatry. If ambition induced Saurin to return to the Romiſh church, he was not diſappointed. He was favourably received by Lewis XIV. obtained a penſion from him, and was treated by the Academy of Sciences with the moſt flattering reſpect. At that time (1717), geometry formed his principal occupation. He adorned the *Journal des Savans* with many excellent treatiſes; and he added to the *Memoirs of the Academy* many intereſting papers. Theſe are the only works which he has left. He died at Paris Dec. 29, 1737, in his 78th year, of a fever. He married a wife of the family of Crouſas in Switzerland, who bore him a ſon. (See N° 3.) Saurin was of a bold and impetuous ſpirit. His philoſophy was auſtere; his opinions of men were not very favourable; and he often delivered them in their preſence; this created him many enemies. His memory was attacked after his deceaſe. Voltaire defended it, but in the defence publiſhed in his general hiſtory of Saurin's conduct, he leaves ſome unfavourable impreſſions upon the reader's mind. He inſinuates, that Saurin ſacrificed his religion to his intereſt; that he played upon Boſſuet, who believed he had *converted a clergyman*, when he had only *given a little fortune* to a *philoſopher*.

(3.) SAURIN, Bernard Joſeph, ſon of the preceding became a counſellor, and was admitted a member of the French Academy. He publiſhed ſeveral dramatic pieces; the firſt of his tragedies is *Spartacus*; which was performed in 1760; and the firſt of his comedies, *L'Anglomane*, which, from its title, ſeems to be a ſatire on the affectation of the French for the Engliſh. Among his illuſtrious friends were Monteſquieu, Voltaire and Helvetius; the latter of whom gave him a penſion of 1000 crowns, and paid up the principal upon his marriage with a lady much younger than herſelf. He died in 1782. His poſthumous work, *Theatre de Saurin*, was printed at Paris, in 1783.

SAUROMATÆ. See SARMATÆ.

SAUR.

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SAURUNGPOUR, a town of Hindooſtan, in Malwa, 43 miles NE. of Ougein, and 42 NNE. of Indore. Lon. 76. 32. E. Lat. 23. 35. N.

SAURURUS, in botany, LIZARDS-TAIL, a genus of the tetragynia order, in the heptandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the ſecond order, *Piperitæ*. The calyx is a catkin, with uniflorous ſcales: there is no corolla; there are four germina, and four monoſpermous berries.

* SAUSAGE. *n. ſ.* [*ſauciſſe*, Fr. *ſalſum*, Lat.] A roll or ball made commonly of pork or veal; and ſometimes of beef, minced very ſmall, with ſalt and ſpice; ſometimes it is ſtuffed into the guts of fowls, and ſometimes only rolled in flower.

SAUSCH, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Carniola: 4 miles N. of Stein.

SAUSELLE, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon: 30 miles NNW. of Civdad Rodrigo.

SAUSLIEU, a town of France, in the department of the Somme; 7½ miles S. of Amiens.

SAUSSEMENIL, a town of France in the department of the Channel: 3 miles N. of Valognes, and 7½ SE. of Cherburg.

SAUSSURE, Horace Benedict DE, was born at Geneva in 1740. His father, an intelligent farmer, to whom we are indebted for ſome *Memoirs relating to Rural Economy*, reſided at Conches, a place ſituated on the banks of the Arve, half a league from Geneva; and this country life, added to an active education, expanded no doubt in young De Sauſſure that phyſical ſtrength ſo neceſſary to the naturaliſt who devotes himſelf to travel. He repaired daily to town to enjoy the advantage of public inſtruction; and as he lived at the bottom of SALEVE, a mountain which he has ſince rendered celebrated, he amuſed himſelf frequently with aſcending its ſteep and rugged ſides. Being thus ſurrounded by the phenomena of nature, and at the ſame time aided by ſtudy, he conceived a taſte for natural hiſtory, and avoided the error both of the learned, who form theories without having been out of their cloſets, and of thoſe farmers who, living too near to Nature, are incapable of admiring her beauties. His earlieſt paſſion was botany: a variegated ſoil, abundant in plants of different kinds, invites the inhabitant of the banks of the Leman to cultivate that agreeable ſcience. This taſte produced an intimacy between De Sauſſure and the great Haller. He paid him a viſit in 1764, during his retreat to Bex; and he relates in his travels how much he admired that aſtoniſhing man, who excelled in every part of the natural ſciences. De Sauſſure was induced alſo to ſtudy the vegetable kingdom, by his connection with Ch. Bonnet, who had married his aunt, and who ſoon ſet a juſt value on the riſing talents of his nephew. Bonnet was then employed on the leaves of plants. De Sauſſure ſtudied theſe organs of vegetables alſo, and he publiſhed the reſult of his reſearches, under the title of *Obſervations on the Bark of Leaves*. This ſmall work, which appeared ſoon after 1760, contains new obſervations on the epidermis of leaves, and in particular on the miliary glands by which they are covered. About that period, the place of profeſſor of philoſophy falling vacant, it was conferred upon De Sauſſure, who was then only 22 years of age. At that time the two profeſſors of philoſophy at Geneva taught phyſics and logic alternately. De Sauſſure diſcharged this double taſk with equal ſucceſs. He gave to his courſe of logic a practical, and, as one may ſay, experimental turn; and his method of teaching, which began by ſtudying the ſenſes to arrive at the general laws of the underſtanding, announced already an able obſerver of nature. Phyſics, however, were the part for which he had the greateſt taſte, and which conducted him to the ſtudy of chemiſtry and mineralogy. He then began his travels thro' the mountains; not now to examine their vegetable productions, but to ſtudy the mountains themſelves, either in the ſtones of which they are compoſed, or the diſpoſition of their maſſes. Geology, a ſcience which was then ſcarcely in exiſtence, added charms to his numerous excurſions through the Alps; and it was then that the talents of the great philoſopher were really diſplayed. During the firſt 15 or 20 years of his profeſſorſhip, he employed himſelf by turns in diſcharging the duties of his office, and in traverſing the different mountains near to Geneva. He even extended his excurſions on one ſide as far as the banks of the Rhine, and on the other to Piedmont. At the ſame time he undertook a journey to Auvergne, to examine there the extinguiſhed volcanoes, and another to Paris, England, and Holland. After that he viſited Italy, and even Sicily. Theſe were not mere journeys for the purpoſe of reaching any particular place; he undertook them only with a view of ſtudying nature; never travelled but ſurrounded by every inſtrument that could be of uſe to him, and never ſet out until he had drawn up a plan of the experiments and obſervations he intended to make. He often ſays in his works that he has found this method exceedingly uſeful. In 1779, he publiſhed the firſt volume of his Travels through the Alps; which contains a minute deſcription of the environs of Geneva, and an excurſion as far as Chamouni, a village at the bottom of Mont Blanc. Philoſophers will read there with pleaſure the deſcription of his *Magnetometer*. The more he examined mountains, the more was he ſenſible of the importance of mineralogy. To ſtudy it with advantage, he learned the German language; and it may be ſeen, in the laſt volumes of his Travels, how much new mineralogical knowledge he had acquired. Amidſt his numerous excurſions through the Alps, and at the time of the political troubles of Geneva in 1782, he made his beautiful experiments on hygrometry, which he publiſhed in 1783, under the title of *Eſſays on Hygrometry*. This work, the beſt that ever came from his pen, eſtabliſhed fully his reputation as a philoſopher. We are indebted to him alſo for the invention of a new hygrometer. De Luc had already invented his whalebone hygrometer; and on that account there aroſe between him and De Sauſſure a pretty violent diſpute. In 1786 De Sauſſure reſigned the profeſſor's chair, which he had filled for about 25 years, to his pupil and fellow labourer Pictet, who diſcharged with reputation the duties of an office rendered more difficult by ſucceeding ſo eminent a philoſopher. When De Sauſſure was invited by the ſtate to take a ſhare in the public

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education, he made it one of the subjects of his meditations, and presented the plan of a reform in the education of Geneva; the tendency of which was, to make young people early acquainted with the natural sciences and mathematics. He even wished that their physical education should not be neglected, and with that view proposed gymnastic exercises. This plan, which excited much attention in a city where every one is convinced of the importance of education, found admirers and partisans; but the poverty of its pecuniary resources was an obstacle to every important innovation. Besides, the Genevese were attached to their old system of education; and they had reason, because it had not only proved the means of diffusing knowledge generally amongst them, but had called forth the talents of several eminent mathematicians and philosophers. But De Saussure's attention was not confined to public education. He superintended himself the education of his two sons and a daughter, who have shewn themselves worthy of such an instructor. His daughter to the charms of her sex unites an extensive knowledge of the natural sciences; and his eldest son has already made himself known by his physical and chemical labours. The 2d vol. of his Travels was published in 1786. It contains a description of the Alps around Mont Blanc, which the author considers as a mineralogist, a geologist, and philosopher. He gives also some interesting experiments on electricity, and a description of his electrometer, one of the most perfect that we have. We are indebted to him also for several instruments of measurement, such as his *cyanometer*, for measuring the degree of the blueness of the heavens, which varies according to the elevation of the observer; his *diaphanometer* (See PHOTOMETER,) and his ANEMIMETER, which, by a kind of balance, measures the force of the wind. Some years after the publication of the 2d vol. of his Travels, he was admitted as a foreign associate of the Academy of Sciences of Paris; and Geneva could then boast of having two of its citizens in that class, which consisted only of 7 members. De Saussure not only did honour to his country; he loved and served it. He was the founder of the *Society of Arts*, to which Geneva is indebted for the high state of prosperity it has attained within the last 30 years. He presided over that society till the last moment of his life; and one of his fondest wishes was the preservation of this useful establishment. By his fatiguing labours in the Council of Five Hundred, of which he was a member, and afterwards in the National Assembly, his health began to be deranged, and in 1794 he was almost deprived of the use of his limbs by a stroke of the palsy. But his mind still preserved its activity; and after that accident he revised the two last volumes of his Travels, which appeared in 1796. They contain an account of his excursions to the mountains of Piedmont and Switzerland, and in particular of his journey to the summit of Mont Blanc. (See BLANC, N° III. § 2—4.) These volumes, instead of exhibiting any marks of his malady, present an enormous mass of new facts and observations of the utmost importance to physics. He rendered also an important service to that science by publishing the *Agenda*, which terminate his 4th volume, and in which he conducts the young naturalist through the mountains, and teaches him the method of observing them with advantage. These *Agenda* are a proof of his genius, and of the strength of mind which he retained amidst his sufferings. It was also during his illness that he directed the experiments made on the height of the bed of the Arve, and that he published *Observations on the Fusibility of Stones by the Blow-pipe*, which were inserted in the *Journal de Physique*. Having gone for the sake of his health to the baths of Plombiers, he still observed the mountains at a distance, and caused to be brought to him specimens of the strata which he perceived in the steepest rocks. He had announced that he would conclude his travels with some ideas on the primitive state of the earth; but the more he acquired new facts, and the more he meditated on the subject, the more uncertain did his opinions become in regard to those grand revolutions which preceded the present epoch. In general he was a *Neptunist*, i. e. ascribed all the revolutions of our globe to water. He admitted the possibility of the mountains having been thrown up by elastic fluids disengaged from the cavities of the earth. Though the state of his health began gradually to become worse, the French government appointed him professor of philosophy at the Special School of Paris; but his strength was exhausted. On the 22d March 1799 he terminated his brilliant career, at the age of 59, lamented by a family to whom he was dear—by a country to which he had done honour—and by Europe, the knowledge of which he had extended.

(1.) SAUTEURS, a river in the island of Grenada, that runs into the sea at the N. end of it.

(2.) SAUTEURS, MONT DES, [Fr. i. e. *Leaper's Hill.*] a precipitous mountain at N. the end of Grenada.

SAUTHEY, a river of Wales, in Carmarthenshire; which runs into the Muthuey, about a mile from Llangadoc.

SAVU, an island in the E. Indian Ocean, about 24 miles long. The coast is low, but there are hills of considerable height in the middle of it. Although in the dry season it is sometimes 7 months without rain, yet the surface is beautiful even at that period. The principal plants are the cocoa nut, fan palm, tamarind, lime, orange, and mango trees; Guinea corn, rice, millet, water melons, sugar-canes, maize, marjoram, celery, garlic, fennel, areca, betel, tobacco, cotton, indigo, cinnamon, and several other kinds of plants and fruits. The quadrupeds are buffaloes, goats, horses, asses, dogs, cats, and sheep of the Bengal breed. The fowls are chiefly of the game kind, and large, but their eggs are small. Pigeons also are numerous, as well as all these animals. Turtles are found on the coast. The natives are rather under the middle size. The women are remarkably short. The men are vigorous, active, and have more expressive features than the women, which has led some writers to say the women are *all alike*—but such a perfect similitude does not occur in nature, either among animals or vegetables. The dress of both sexes is of cotton cloth dyed blue, cut in pieces 2 yards long and 1½ broad.

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read. The names of the men are written on their arms with indelible black: the women have square ornaments of flouriſhed lines impreſſed in the ſame manner. The houſes are all built upon an uniform plan, but differ in ſize according to the rank and riches of the proprietor, from 20 feet to 100. They are raiſed upon poſts 4 feet high. The iſland is divided into 5 principalities each governed by a rajah; called Laai, Maſſara, Regeeua, EBA, and TIMO. It was ſettled by the Portugueſe, but they were expelled by the Dutch; who, however, did not take poſſeſſion of it, but only ſent ſloops to trade with the natives. The Dutch have diſtributed printed verſions of the New Teſtament, a catechiſm, and other tracts, in the language of this and the adjacent iſlands. Dr Solander who viſited this iſland along with Captain Cook, called on the ſchool-maſter, and ſaw the books of his ſcholars, many of whom wrote a very beautiful hand. The Dr ſays, "there are 600 Chriſtians in the town of Seba alone." Their morals are irreproachable; only their rich people are fond of arrach, which the Dutch ſell to them, and which they indulge in largely. The Rev. Mr Cruttwell doubts the Dr's account of their Chriſtianity, becauſe "there is not a *church*, nor even a *prieſt* in the whole iſland;" but ſome will perhaps allow, that the eſſentials of chriſtianity do not neceſſarily depend upon either. Lon. 122. 30. E. Lat. 10. 35. S.

SAUVAGERE, a town of France, in the department of the Orne: 10 miles E. of Domfront.

SAUVAGES, Francis Boiſſier DE, an eminent French phyſician, to whom the medical world is much indebted for paving the way to a regular noſological arrangement of Diſeaſes, and giving the firſt outlines of it. (See MEDICINE, *Index*.) He was born in 1706. His abilities procured him the profeſſorſhips of Medicine and Botany in the univerſity of Montpellier, and he was conſidered as the Boerhaave of France. His works are very numerous. The principal are, 1. *Theoria Febris*, 1738. 12mo. 2. *Noſologia Methodica*; 5 vols 8vo, 1763: 3. *Phyſiologiæ Mechanicæ Elementa*; 1755: 12mo.

SAUVAGESIA, in botany a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking with thoſe of which the order is doubtful. The corolla is pentapetalous and fringed; the calyx pentaphyllous; the nectarium the ſame, having its leaves placed alternately with the petals; the capſule unilocular.

SAUVANT, ST, a town of France, in the department of the Vienne, 18 miles SW. of Poitiers.

SAUVASSANGES, a town of France, in the department of Puy de Dome: 15 m. S. of Ambert.

SAUVE. See SAUVES.

SAUVEL, a river of France, which runs into the Rhine, near Straſburg.

SAUVER, a river of France, which runs into the Rhine, between Seltz and Fort Louis.

SAUVERE, ST a town of France, in the department of the Allier: 12 m. NW. of Montluçon.

SAUVES, a town of France, in the department of the Gard, and late province of Languedoc, on the Vidour; 12 miles SW. of Alais, 4½ SE. of St Hypolite, and 21 W. of Niſmes.

SAUVETAT, a town of France, in the department of Lot and Garonne: 5 miles NW. of Lauzun, and 11 NNE. of Marmande. Lon. 18. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 44. 37. N.

(1.) SAUVETERRE, a town of France, in the dep. of Aveiron, and late prov. of Rouergue; 13½ miles SW. of Rhodez, 10 NNE. of Alby, and 12 SE. of Villefranche. Lon. 19. 59. E. Ferro. Lat. 44. 37. N.

(2—4.) SAUVETERRE, 3 other towns of France: 1. in the dep. of Gironde; 9 miles N. of Reolle, and 21 ESE. of Bourdeaux: 2. in that of Lot and Garonne; 10½ miles ENE. of Montflanquin, and 12 E. of Villereal: 3. in that of the Lower Pyrenees, and late prov. of Bearn, with an ancient caſtle in ruins; 6 miles NE. of St Palais, 9 SW. of Orthez, and 17 from Pau.

(1.) SAUVEUR, Joſeph, an eminent French mathematician, born at La Fleche in 1653. He was dumb until he was 7 years of age; and even then his organs of ſpeech did not diſengage themſelves ſo freely, but that he was ever after obliged to ſpeak with great deliberation. Mathematics were the only ſtudies he had any reliſh for, and theſe he cultivated with extraordinary ſucceſs; ſo that he commenced teacher at 20 years of age, and was ſo ſoon in vogue, that he had prince Eugene for his ſcholar. He was mathematical profeſſor in the royal college in 1686; and ten years after was admitted a member of the Academy of Sciences. He died in 1716; and his writings, which conſiſt rather of detached papers than of connected treatiſes, are all inſerted in the *Memoirs of the Academy*. He was twice married; and by the laſt wife had a ſon, who, like himſelf, was dumb for the firſt ſeven years of his life.

(2.) SAUVEUR, ST, a town of France, in the dep. of the Rhone and Loire: 7½ miles W. of Annonay, and 10½, SE of St Etienne.

(3.) SAUVEUR, ST, a town of France, in the dep. of the Yonne: 6 miles SE. of St Fargeau, and 18 SW. of Auxerre.

(4.) SAUVEUR, ST, DE LENDELIN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel; 5 miles N. of Countances, and 12 SW. of Carentan.

(5.) SAUVEUR, ST, LE VICOMTE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel; 7½ miles SSW. of Valognes, and 14 NW. of Carentan.

SAUVIAT, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Vienne: 6 miles NE. of St Leonard.

SAUVIGNEY LES ANGIVEY, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Saone: 6 miles E. of Gray, and 19 SW. of Veſoul.

SAVUS, in ancient geography, 1. a river of Pannonia, riſing in Noricum, N. of Aquileia, running E. through Pannonia, and falling into the Danube. *Claud.* 2. A river of Numidia falling into the Mediterranean.

SAUX LE DUC, a town of France, in the dep. of the Cote d'Or; 4½ m. NW. of It upon Tille.

SAUXILLANGES, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome, containing about 3000 citizens: 6 m. E. of Iſſoire, and 15 W. of Ambert.

SAUZA, a town of Naples, in the province of Principato Citra: 6 miles N. of Policaſtro.

SAUZAY LE POTTER, a town of France, in the dep. of the Cher; 6½ miles S. of St Amand, 8 NE. of Culan.

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SAUZE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Two Sevres: 11 miles SE. of Melle, and 20 SE. of St Maixent.

SAUZET, a town of France, in the department of the Drome: 4½ m. NE. of Montelimart.

(1.) * SAW. The preterite of *see*.—

I never *saw* 'till now
Shelt more detestable. *Milton.*

(2.) * SAW. *n. s.* [*saewe*, Danish; *saga*, or *sige*, Saxon; *scie*, Fr.] 1. A dentated instrument, by the attrition of which wood or metal is cut.—The teeth are filed to an angle, pointing towards the end of the *saw*, and not towards the handle of the *saw*, or straight between the handle and end; because the *saw* is designed to act only in its progress forwards, a man having in that more strength than he can have in drawing back his *saw*, and therefore when he draws it back, he bears it lightly off the unsawn stuff, which enables him the longer to continue his several progressions of the *saw*. *Moxon*.—The roach is a leather-mouth'd fish, and has *saw*-like teeth in his throat. *Walton*.

Then *saws* were tooth'd. *Dryden.*
His *saws* are toothless, and his hatchets lead. *Pope.*

2. [*Saga*, Saxon; *saegbe*, Dutch.] A saying; a maxim; a sentence; an axiom; a proverb.—

Good king, that must approve the common *saw*: *Shakesp.*
I'll wipe away all *saws* of books. *Shak.*
His weapons, holy *saws* of sacred writ. *Shak.*
Their grave *saws* in slumber lie. *Milton.*

(3.) *A* SAW is an instrument which serves to cut into pieces several solid matters; as wood, stone, ivory, &c. The best saws are of tempered steel ground bright and smooth: those of iron are only hammer-hardened: hence the first, besides their being stiffer, are likewise found smoother than the last. They are known to be well hammered by the stiff bending of the blade; and to be well and evenly ground, by their bending equally in a bow.

* *To* SAW *v. a.* part. *sawed* and *sawn*. [*scier*, Fr. from the noun.] To cut timber or other matter with a saw.—They were *sawn* asunder. *Hebrews*.—A carpenter, after he hath *sawn* down a tree, and wrought it handsomely, sets it in a wall. *Wisd.* xiii. 11.—Master workmen, when they direct any of their underlings to *saw* a piece of stuff, have several phrases for the *sawing* of it: they seldom say, *saw* the piece of stuff; but, draw the *saw* through it. *Moxon*.—It is an incalescency, from a swift motion, such as that of running, threshing, or *sawing*. *Ray*.—If I cut my finger, I shall as certainly feel pain as if my soul was co-extended with the limb, and had a piece of it *sawn* through. *Collier*.

(1.) SAWARA, LOWER, a town of N. Carolina; 19 miles NNE. of Guildford.

(2.) SAWARA, UPPER, a town of N. Carolina, 23 miles NNW of Guildford.

SAWBRIDGE, Catherine, a celebrated English historian, sister to the late patriotic, Alderman Sawbridge married first to Mr Macaulay, and afterwards to Mr Graham, brother to the famous Dr Graham. See GRAHAM, N° 3, and MACAULAY.

SAWBRIDGEWORTH, a town of England, in Hertfordshire; 4 miles S. of Bishop's Stortford and 26 N. of London.

* SAWDUST. *n. s.* [*saw* and *dust*.] Dust made by the attrition of the saw.—If the membrane be fouled by the *sawdust* of the bone, wipe it off with a sponge. *Wiseman*.—Rotten *sawdust*, mixed with earth, enriches it very much. *Mortimer*.

* SAWER. SAWYER. *n. s.* [*scieur*, Fr. from *saw*.] One whose trade is to saw timber into boards or beams.—The pit-saw is used by sawyers when what they have to do may be as soon done at home as send it to the *sawyers*. *Moxon*.

(1.) * SAWFISH. *n. s.* [*saw* and *fish*.] A fish of fish with a kind of dentated horn.

(2.) SAW-FISH. See PRISTIS.

* SAWPIT. *n. s.* [*saw* and *pit*.] Pit over which timber is laid to be sawn by two men.—

Let them from forth a *sawpit* rush at once
With some diffused song. *Shak.*

—They colour it by laying it in a *sawpit* or bath oak sawdust therein. *Mortimer*.

SAWTU, a town of the United States, in Georgia; 50 miles WSW. of Tugeloo.

(1.) * SAW-WORT. *n. s.* [*serratula*, Lat.] A plant like the greater centaury, from which this differs in having smaller heads, and from the knapweed, in having the borders of the leaves cut into four sharp segments, resembling the teeth of a saw. *Miller*.

(2.) SAW-WORT, in botany. See SERRATULA.

* SAW-WREST. *n. s.* [*saw* and *wrest*.] A sort of tool.—With the *saw-wrest* they set the teeth of the saw; that is, they put one of the teeth of the wrest between the first two teeth of the saw, and then turn the handle horizontally about upon the notch towards the end of the saw, and that at once turns the first tooth inward towards you, and the second tooth from you. *Moxon*.

* SAWYER. See SAWER.

SAWYER'S FERRY, a post town of N. Carolina.

SAWYER'S ISLAND, or Afferadores Island, an island near the W. coast of Mexico.

SAX, a town of the Helvetic republic, capital of a late bailiewick so named, in the canton of Zurich; seated on the Rhine: 8 miles NE. of Appenzel.

SAXA, [Lat.] in mineralogy, stones, or rocks. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. of STONES. EARTHS and STONES are now called together by Chemists and Mineralogists.

SAXAPAHAW, a considerable river of N. Carolina, which rises near a branch of the Dan, and running SE. at last unites with Deep river, and forms the NW. head water of Cape Fear river, and is navigable in boats about 50 miles.

SAXAZA, a town of Sweden, in the province of Warmeland; 38 miles NE. of Carlstad.

SAXE, Maurice, count of, was born the 19th Oct. 1696. He was the natural son of Frederic Augustus II. elector of Saxony, and king of Poland, and of the countess of Konigsmarc, a Swedish lady, celebrated for her wit and beauty. He was educated along with Frederic Augustus, the electoral prince, afterwards king of Poland. His infancy announced the future warrior. No entreaties could prevail on him to apply to his studies, nor the promise of being allowed, after he had learned

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d his talk, to mount on horſeback, or exerciſe himſelf with arms. He ſerved his firſt campaign n the army commanded by prince Eugene and he duke of Marlborough, when only 12 years old. He ſignalized himſelf at the ſieges of Tourlay and Mons, and particularly at the battle of MALPLAQUET. During the campaign of 1710, prince Eugene and the duke of Marlborough nade many public encomiums on his merit. Next year the young count accompanied the king of Poland to the ſiege of Stralſund, the ſtrongeſt place in Pomerania, and diſplayed the greateſt intrepidity. He ſwam acroſs the river in ſight of the enemy, with a piſtol in his hand. His valour ſhone no leſs conſpicuouſly on the bloody day of Gaedelbuſck, where he commanded a regiment of cavalry. He had a horſe killed under him, after he had three times rallied his regiment, and led them on to the charge. Soon after that campaign, his mother prevailed on him to marry the counteſs of Lubin, a lady both rich and beautiful. This union laſted but a ſhort time. In 1721, the count procured a diſſolution of the marriage; a ſtep of which he afterwards repented. The counteſs left him with regret; but married ſoon after. Count Saxe was too fond of pleaſure and variety to ſubmit to the duties of marriage. But he never loſt ſight of his profeſſion. He carried along with him, wherever he went, a library of military books; and never failed to ſpend an hour or two daily in private ſtudy. In 1717, he went to Hungary, where the emperor had an army of 15,000 men under prince Eugene. Young count Saxe was preſent at the ſiege of Belgrade, and at a battle which the prince gained over the Turks. On his return to Poland in 1718, he was made a knight of the golden eagle. The wars in Europe being concluded by the treaties of Utrecht and Paſſarowitz, count Saxe went to France. French was the only foreign language which during his child-hood he was willing to learn. He ſpent his time during the peace in ſtudying mathematics, fortification, and mechanics. The mode of exerciſing troops had ſtruck his attention. At 16 he invented a new exerciſe, which was taught in Saxony with the greateſt ſucceſs. Having obtained a regiment in France in 1722, he formed it according to his new plan. From that moment the *Chevalier Folard*, a judge of military talents, predicted that he would be a great man. In 1726 the States of Courland choſe him for their ſovereign. But both Poland and Ruſſia roſe in arms to oppoſe him. The Czarina wiſhed to beſtow the duchy on prince Menzikoff. (See MENZIKOFF.) Menzikoff ſent 600 Ruſſians to Milan, where they beſieged the new choſen duke in his palace. Count Saxe, who had only 60 men, defended himſelf with aſtoniſhing intrepidity. The ſiege was raiſed, and the Ruſſians obliged to retreat. Soon after he retired to Uſmaiz, and prepared to defend his people againſt the two hoſtile nations. Here he remained with only 300 men, till the Ruſſian general approached at the head of 4000 to force his retreat. That general invited the count to a conference, during which he intended to ſurpriſe him, and take him priſoner. The count, informed of the plot, avoided the conference. About this time he wrote to France for men and money. Mad. le Couvreur, a famous actreſs, pawned her jewels and plate, and ſent him 40,000 livres. This actreſs had formed his mind for the fine arts. She had made him read the greater part of the French poets, and given him a taſte for the theatre, which he retained even in the camp. The count, unable to defend himſelf againſt Ruſſia and Poland, was obliged in 1729 to leave his new dominions, and retire into France. Anne, ducheſs dowager of Courland, ad daughter of the czar John, had given him hopes of marriage, but abandoned him, becauſe ſhe deſpaired of fixing his wavering paſſion.—This loſt him not only Courland, but the throne of Ruſſia itſelf, which that Princeſs afterwards filled. Count Saxe, thus ſtript of his territories, devoted himſelf to the ſtudy of mathematics. He compoſed alſo, in 13 nights, and during the intervals of an ague, his *Reveries*, which he corrected afterwards. This book is written in an incorrect but forcible ſtyle; it is full of remarks both new and profound, and is equally uſeful to the ſoldier and the general. The death of the king of Poland his father, in 1733, kindled a new war in Europe. His brother, the elector of Saxony, offered him the command of all his forces, but he preferred the French ſervice, and repaired to the marechal of Berwick, who was encamped on the Rhine, and received him with a high compliment. The count, at the head of a regiment of grenadiers, forced the enemy's lines, and by his bravery decided the victory. He behaved at the ſiege of Philipſburgh with no leſs intrepidity. For theſe ſervices he was, in 1734, rewarded with the rank of lieutenant general. Peace was concluded in 1736; but the death of the emperor Charles VI. kindled a new war. Prague was beſieged by the count in 1741, near the end of November, and taken by aſſault. The conqueſt of Egra followed a few days after. This ſucceſs gave ſo much joy to Charles VII. that he wrote a congratulatory letter to Saxe with his own hand. In 1744 he was made marechal of France, and commanded a part of the French army in Flanders. During that campaign he diſplayed the greateſt military conduct. Though the enemy was ſuperior in number, he obſerved their motions ſo ſkilfully, that they could do nothing. In Jan. 1745, an alliance was concluded at Warſovia between the queen of Hungary, the king of England, and the States of Holland. He went ſoon after, though exceedingly ill, to take the command of the French army in the Low Countries. When the battle of FONTENOY was fought, M. Saxe was at the point of death, yet he cauſed himſelf to be put into a litter, and carried round all the poſts. During the action he mounted on horſeback, though ſo very weak. The victory of Fontenoy, owing entirely to his vigilance and capacity, was followed by the reduction of Tournay, Bruges, Ghent, Oudenarde, Oſtend, Ath, and Bruſſels: This laſt city was taken on the 28th February 1746; and very ſoon after the King ſent to the marechal a letter of naturalization conceived in the moſt flattering terms. The ſucceeding campaigns gained him additional honours. After the victory of Raucoux, which he gained on the 11th Oct. 1746, the king of

France

France made him a preſent of ſix pieces of cannon. He was, on the 12th of Jan. 1747, created marechal of all the French armies, and, in 1748, commander-general of all thoſe parts of the Netherlands which he had conquered. Holland now began to tremble for her ſafety. Maeſtricht and Bergen op Zoom had already fallen, and nothing but misfortunes ſeemed to attend the further proſecution of the war. The States General, therefore, offered terms of peace, which were accepted, and a treaty concluded on the 18th October 1748. M. Saxe retired to Chambord, a country ſeat which the king of France had given him. Some time after he went to Berlin, where the king of Pruſſia received him as a great general. On his return to France, he ſpent his time among men of learning, artiſts, and philoſophers. He died of a fever, on the 30th November 1750, aged 54. "His life had been (he ſaid) an excellent dream." He was remarkably careful of the lives of his men. One day a general officer was pointing out to him a poſt which would have been of great uſe. "It will only coſt you (ſays he) a dozen grenadiers." "That would do very well," replied the marechal, "were it only a dozen *lieutenant-generals*." He had been educated and died in the Lutheran religion. All France lamented his death. His heart was put into a ſilver gilt box. Lewis XV. was at the charge of his funeral. His corpſe was interred with great ſplendor in the Lutheran church of St Thomas, at Straſburgh, on the 8th Feb. 1751. He was a man of ordinary ſtature, of a robuſt conſtitution, and extraordinary ſtrength. To an aſpect, noble, warlike, and mild, he joined the excellent qualities of the heart. Affable in his manners, and charitable to the unfortunate, his generoſity ſometimes carried him beyond the limits of his fortune. On his death-bed he reviewed the errors of his life with remorſe, and expreſſed much penitence. The beſt edition of his *Reveries* was printed at Paris 1757, in 2 vols 4to. It was compared with the original MS. in the king's library. It is accompanied with many deſigns exactly engraved, and a Life of the Author. M. d'Eſpagnac publiſhed the count's life, in 2 vols 12mo.

SAXE-COBURG. See COBURG, N° 1.

SAXE-GOTHA, a duchy of Germany, in Upper Saxony, in the circle of Franconia; about 30 miles long, and 12 broad. The duke is the head of the Erneſtine line of Saxony, deſcended from the elector John Frederick the Magnanimous, who was deprived of the electorate by Charles V. in 1574; ſince which the youngeſt branch called the *Albertine* has enjoyed it. He has ſeveral other principalities, and his revenues are computed at 200,000l. a year, with which he maintains about 3000 regular troops. As he is the moſt powerful of all the Saxon princes of the Erneſtine branch; ſo of all the courts of Saxony, next to that of Dreſden, he has the moſt numerous and the moſt magnificent. His guards are well clothed, his liveries rich, and his tables ſerved with more elegance than profuſion. And yet by the prudent management of his public finances, his ſubjects are the leaſt burdened with taxes of any ſtate in Germany. The religion is Lutheran. Saxe-Gotha abounds in corn. Auguſta, princeſs of Wales, wife of prince Frederick, and mother of his majeſty, K. George III. was a daughter of the D. of Saxe Gotha, and was a moſt excellent princeſs.

SAXE-HILDBURGHAUSEN, a duchy of Upper Saxony, in the circle of Franconia, ſeparated from Saxe-Coburg, in 1672. See COBURG, N° 1. Hildburghauſen is the capital. See HILDBURGHAUSEN.

SAXE-LAUENBURG, a principality of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, bounded on the NE. and E. by the duchy of Mecklenburg; S. and SW. by that of Lunenburg; and NW. by that of Holſtein. The ſurface is moſtly level, and covered with heath; the ſoil ſandy and barren, though ſome fertile ſpots produce corn and flax; but it abounds with excellent paſture lands. The lakes and rivers abound with fiſh. It contains 4 towns, ſeveral villages, and about 32,000 inhabitants, who are Lutherans. The exports are butter, cheeſe, rye, timber, beech maſts, and fiſh. This country was anciently a part of SLAVIA TRANSALPINA, and its inhabitants a tribe of the WENDI, or Weſtern SLAVI, called alſo *Polaberi*. Henry the Lion conquered them, and made the country ſo entirely his property, that when he was ſubjected to the ban of the empire, he could not be deprived of it. The imperial inveſtiture of it was obtained by our king George I. in 1716. Lauenburg is the capital. See LAUENBURG, N° 1.

SAXELEN, or SAXLEN, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Underwalden, ſeated on lake Sarnen; 12 miles SSE. of Lucern, and 43 ESE. of Berne.

SAXE-MEININGEN, a territory of Germany, in Upper Saxony, and circle of Franconia; ſeparated from Coburg in 1672. (See COBURG, N° 1.) The chief city is MEININGEN.

SAXENBURG, a town of Germany, in Carinthia, on the Drave, formerly belonging to the Abp. of Saltzburg; whence we ſuppoſe it now belongs to Pr. Ferdinand of Auſtria, now Pr. of Saltzburg, by the deciſion of the indemnities. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

SAXENHAGEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Schauenburg, 20 miles NW. of Hanover. Lon. 9. 36. E. Lat. 52. 30. N.

SAXENHAUSEN, the ſuburbs of Francfort on the Maine. See FRANCFORT, N° 1.

SAXE-QUERFURT, and other names beginning with SAXE. See QUERFURT, &c.

SAXIFRAGA, SAXIFRAGE, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the decandria claſs of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 15th order, *Succulentæ*. The calix is quinquepartite; the corolla pentapetalous; the capſule biroſtrated, unilocular, and polyſpermous. There are 38 ſpecies; of which the moſt remarkable are theſe:

1. SAXIFRAGA GRANULATA, or white ſaxifrage, which grows naturally in the meadows in many parts of England. The roots of this part are like grains of corn, of a reddiſh colour without; from which ariſe kidney-ſhaped hairy leaves, ſtanding upon pretty long foot-ſtalks.—The ſtalks are thick, a foot high, hairy, and furrowed: their

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branch out from the bottom, and have a few small leaves like thoſe below, which ſit cloſe to the ſtalk: the flowers terminate the ſtalk, growing in ſmall cluſters; they have five white petals, incloſing ten ſtamina and the two ſtyles. There is a variety of this with double flowers, which is very ornamental.

2. SAXIFRAGA OPPOSITIFOLIA grows naturally on the Alps, Pyrenees, and Helvetian mountains: it is alſo found pretty plentifully growing upon Ingleborough hill in Yorkſhire, Snowdon in Wales, and ſome other places. It is a perennial plant, with ſtalks trailing upon the ground, and are ſeldom more than two inches long, garniſhed with ſmall oval leaves ſtanding oppoſite, which lie over one another like the ſcales of fiſh: they are of a brown green colour, and have a reſemblance of heath. The flowers are produced at the end of the branches, of a deep blue; and thus make a pretty appearance during their continuance, which is great part of March and the beginning of April.

3. SAXIFRAGA PUNCTATA, *London pride*, or ITALIAN SO-PRETTY, grows naturally on the Alps, and alſo in great plenty on a mountain of Ireland called *Mangerton*, in the county of Kerry. The roots of this are perennial; the leaves are oblong, oval, and placed circularly at bottom. They have a broad, flat, furrowed foot-ſtalks, and are deeply crenated at their edges, which are white. The ſtalk riſes a foot high, is of a purple colour, ſtiff, ſlender, and hairy. It ſends out from the ſide on the upper part ſeveral ſhort foot-ſtalks, which are terminated by white flowers ſpotted with red.

4. SAXIFRAGA PYRAMIDATA, mountain heath, with a pyramidal ſtalk, grows naturally on the mountains of Italy. The leaves are tongue-ſhaped, gathered into heads, rounded at their points, and have cartilaginous and ſawed borders. The ſtalk riſes 2½ feet high, branching out near the ground, forming a natural pyramid to the top. The flowers have 5 white wedge-ſhaped petals, and ten ſtamina, placed circularly the length of the tube, terminated by roundiſh purple ſummits. When theſe plants are ſtrong, they produce very large pyramids of flowers, which make a fine appearance. All theſe ſpecies are eaſily propagated by offſets, or by parting their roots.

(1.) * SAXIFRAGE. *n. ſ.* [*ſaxifrage*, Fr. *ſaxifraga*, Lat.] A plant.—*Saxifrage, quaſi ſaxum frangere*, to break the ſtone, is applicable to any thing having this property; but is a term moſt commonly given to a plant, from an opinion of its medicinal virtues to this effect. *Quincy.*

(2.) SAXIFRAGE. See SAXIFRAGA.

(3.) SAXIFRAGE, BURNET. See PIMPINELLA.

(4.) SAXIFRAGE, GOLDEN. See CHRYSOSPLENIUM.

(5.) * SAXIFRAGE, MEADOW. *n. ſ.* [*ſilanum*, Lat.] A plant.

(6.) SAXIFRAGE, MEADOW, is a ſpecies of PEUCEDANUM.

* SAXIFRAGOUS. *adj.* [*ſaxum* and *frango*, Lat.] Diſſolvent of the ſtone.—Goats ſhould be fed on *ſaxifragous* herbs. *Brown.*

SAXKIOBING, a ſea port town of Denmark, in the iſle of Laaland; 15 miles E. of Naſcow. Its chief trade is in corn.

SAXLEN. See SAXELEN.

SAXLINGHAM, or SAXMUNDHAM, a town of England, in Suffolk, ſeated on a hill, 20, or 29 miles NE. of Ipſwich, and 89 NE. of London. It has about 400 houſes, and a market on Saturday. Lon. 1. 40. E. Lat. 52. 18. N.

SAXO GRAMMATICUS, deſcended from an illuſtrious Daniſh family, was born about the middle of the 12th century. Stephens, in his edition of Saxo Grammaticus, printed at Sorœ, indubitably proves, that he muſt have been alive in 1156, but cannot aſcertain the exact place and time of his birth. See Stephens's *Prolegomena* to the Notes on Saxo Grammaticus, p. 8, to 24; alſo Holberg, vol. i. p. 269.; and Mallet's North. Antiq. vol. i. p. 4. On account of his uncommon learning, Saxo was diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Grammaticus*. He was provoſt of the cathedral church of Roſkild, and warmly patronized by the learned and warlike Abſalon, the celebrated Abp. of Lunden, at whoſe inſtigation he wrote the *Hiſtory of Denmark*. His epitaph, a dry panegyric in bad Latin verſes, gives no account of the era of his death, which happened, according to Stephens, in 1204. His hiſtory, conſiſting of 16 books, begins from the earlieſt account of the Daniſh annals, and concludes with the year 1186. The firſt part, which relates to the origin of the Danes, and their ancient kings, is full of fables; but the 8 laſt books, and particularly thoſe which regard the events of his own times, deſerve the utmoſt credit. He wrote in Latin; the ſtyle, if we conſider the barbarous age in which he flouriſhed, is in general extremely elegant, but rather too poetical for hiſtory. Mallet, in his *Hiſtoire de Dannemarc*, vol. i. p. 182, ſays, "that Sperling, a writer of great erudition, has proved, in contradiction to the aſſertions of Stephens and others, that Saxo Grammaticus was ſecretary to Abſalon; and that the Saxo provoſt of Roſkild was another perſon, and lived earlier."

(1.) SAXON, *adj.* Of, or belonging to, brought, or derived from, SAXONY.

(2.) SAXON CHARACTER, and LANGUAGE, the character and language uſed by the ancient Saxons. For the hiſtory of theſe, with their gradual change into the preſent Engliſh Character and Language, ſee Dr Johnſon's intereſting account, under ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

(3.) SAXON HEPTARCHY, a collective name given to the 7 kingdoms erected by the Saxons, in England. See ENGLAND, § 13, 14, and HEPTARCHY.

(4.) SAXON LANGUAGE. See § 2.

SAXONES, an ancient nation of Germany, who inhabited the country near the Cimbrica Cherſoneſus. *Ptol.* iii. 11. *Claud.* 1. *Eutrop.* 392. See the next article.

SAXONS, the natives of SAXONY, ancient and modern. The ancient Saxons were a brave but fierce people. The Britons, or inhabitants of S. Britain, being deſerted by the Romans, about the middle of the 5th century, and threatened with utter extirpation by the Scots and Picts, invited the Saxons over from Germany to aſſiſt and defend them; in conſequence of which, a numerous body of them came over under HENGIST and HORSA, A. D. 449, or 450. and repeated emigration

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tions of fresh adventurers successively arriving afterwards, they soon conquered and divided all South Britain, since called ENGLAND, into 7 kingdoms, commonly denominated the SAXON HEPTARCHY. See ENGLAND, § 13—18; and HEPTARCHY. With regard to the history of the Saxons, previous to the 4th century, we have very few particulars. The Saxons (says Mr Whitaker) have been derived by our historians from very different parts of the globe; India, the north of Asia, and the forests of Germany. And their appellation has been equally referred to very different causes; the name of their Indian progenitor, the plundering disposition of their Asiatic fathers, and the short hooked weapons of their warriors. But the real origin of the Saxons, and the genuine derivation of their name, seem clearly to be these: In the earlier period of the Gallic history, the CELTÆ of Gaul crossed the Rhine in considerable numbers, and planted various colonies in the regions beyond it. Thus the VOLCÆ TECTOSAGES settled on one side of the Hercynian forest and about the banks of the Neckar, the HELVETII upon another and about the Rhine and Maine, the BOII beyond both, and the SENONES in the heart of Germany. Thus also we see the TREVIRI, the Nervii, the SUEVI, and the MARCOMANNI, the QUADI, the VENEDI, and others, in that country; all plainly betrayed to be Gallic nations by the Gallic appellations which they bear, and all together possessing the greatest part of it. And, even as late as the conclusion of the first century, we find one nation on the eastern side of this great continent actually speaking the language of Gaul, and another upon the northern using a dialect nearly related to the British. But as all the various tribes of the Germans are considered by Strabo to be γνησιοι Γαλλαι, or genuine Gauls in their origin; so those particularly, who lived immediately beyond the Rhine, and are asserted by Tacitus to be indubitably native Germans, are expressly denominated Γαλαται, or Gauls, by Diodorus, and as expressly declared by Dio to have been distinguished by the equivalent appellation of *Celtæ* from the earliest period. (See CELTÆ.) And the broad line of nations, which extended along the ocean, and reached to the borders of Scythia, was all known to the learned in the days of Diodorus, by the same significant appellation of Γαλαται, or Gauls. Of these, the most noted were the SI-CAMBRI and CIMBRI; the former being seated near the channel of the Rhine, and the latter inhabiting the peninsula of Jutland. The denominations of both declare their original; and show them to have been derived from the common stock of the Celtæ, and to be of the same Celtic kindred with the Cimbri of our own Somersetshire, and the Cymbri or Cambrians of our own Wales. The Cimbri are accordingly denominated *Celtæ* by Strabo and Appian. And they are equally asserted to be Gauls by Diodorus; to be the descendants of that nation which sacked the city of Rome, plundered the temple of Delphi, and subdued a great part of Europe and some of Asia. Immediately to the south of these were the Saxons, extending from the isthmus of the Chersonesus to the current of the Elbe. And they were equally Celtic in their origin as their neighbours. They were denominated *Ambrones*, as well as Saxons; and, as such, are included by Tacitus under the general appellation of *Cimbri*, and comprehended in Plutarch under the equal one of *Celto-Scythæ*. The name of *Ambrones* appears particularly to have been Gallic; being common to the Saxons beyond the Elbe, and the Ligurians in Cisalpine Gaul; as both found to their surprise, on the irruption of the former into Italy with the Cimbri. And, what is equally surprising, and has been equally unnoticed by the critics, the Welsh distinguish England by the name of *Loegr* or *Liguria*, even to the present moment. In that irruption, these Saxons, Ambrones, or Ligurians, composed a body of more than 30,000 men and were principally concerned in cutting to pieces the large armies of Manlius and Cæpio. Nor is the appellation of Saxons less Celtic than the other. It was originally the same with the Belgic SUESSONES of Gaul; the capital of that tribe being now entitled *Soissons* by the French, and the name of the Saxons pronounced *Saison* by the Welsh, *Sason* by the Scots, and *Saſenach* or *Saxſenach* by the Irish. And the Suessones or Saxones of Gaul derived their own appellation from the position of their metropolis on a river, the stream at Soissons being now denominated the *Aisne*, and formerly the *Axona*; Uſſ-on or Axon importing only waters or a river, and S-uess-on or S-ax-on the waters of the river. The Suessones, therefore, are actually denominated the *Uessones* by Ptolemy; and the Saxones are actually entitled the *Axones* by Lucan. These, with their brethren and allies the Cimbri, having been more formidable enemies to the Romans by land, than the Samnites, Carthaginians, Spaniards, Gauls, or Parthians, in the second century applied themselves to navigation, and became nearly as terrible by sea. They soon made themselves known to the inhabitants of the British isles by their piracies in the northern channels, and were denominated by them *Lochlyn* or *Lochlynach*; lued-lyn signifying the people of the wave, and the D being quiescent in the pronunciation. They took possession of the Orkney islands, which were then merely large shoals of land, uncovered with woods, and overgrown with rushes; and they landed in the north of Ireland, and ravaged the country. Before the middle of the 3d century they made a 2d decent upon the latter, disembarked a considerable body of men, and despised the absolute subjection of the island. Before the conclusion of it, they carried their naval operations to the south, infested the British channel with their little vessels, and made frequent descents upon the coasts. And in the 4th and 5th centuries, acting in conjunction with the Picts of Caledonia and the Scots of Ireland, they ravaged all the E. and SE. shores of Britain, began the formal conquest of the country, and finally settled their victorious soldiery in Lancashire.

END OF VOLUME NINETEENTH.

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